TEXAS: WILDERNESS TO SPACE AGE
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Preface

This study comprises a history of Texas written for the junior high school reader. Beginning with the narrative of the northward expansion of the Spanish-American frontier to the lands north of the Rio Grande, the story continues with an account of the origin of the log cabin frontier of the Anglo-American in the vast territory west of the Sabine River, the growth and development of that frontier in the decades between 1821 and 1848, the history of the state of Texas from annexation to the present, and, finally, special emphasis on institutional growth—farms, ranches, and petroleum—since the days of the Civil War. It is a story of the pioneers, both Spanish and American, as they conquered and colonized a wilderness land inhabited by the native Indian races of the Southwest. It is also a story of the growth and development of a civilization and a cultural pattern based on the foundations laid by Texans of an earlier day.

Our obligations are many and deserve a special citation. We are indebted to the memory of Dr. Claude Elliott, Professor of History, Southwest Texas State College, who spent the last few months of his life writing a section of the manuscript; and to his wife, Emma Edwin Elliott, whose kind encouragement kept interest in the project alive over recent months. We also acknowledge our debt to Miss
Kathryn Martin, a member of the junior high school staff of the Seguin Public Schools, who read many pages of the manuscript in its initial stages; to Mr. Frank T. Fields of the public relations division of the Humble Oil and Refining Company, who (with the permission of the artist) made the sketches of E. M. (Buck) Schiwetz available for the publication; to Ellen Schultz, Shirley Boyd, and Terry Jensen—all of whom spent long hours in the more arduous tasks related to the preparation of the manuscript for publication; to Joe Salazar, a patient and able craftsman, whose advice and assistance on design and composition have been indispensable; to Mrs. Fred Slaughter, an instructor of Texas history at San Marcos Baptist Academy, who gave valuable criticism and advice in the final stages of the project; to S. B. Raley of Waco, whose encouragement meant much; and to Sarah Jeannette Pool, who found time in her busy teaching schedule at San Marcos Baptist Academy to give invaluable assistance over a long period of time from the beginning of this task to the eve of its completion—without her advice and counsel there would have been no book. To the many other friends and associates who assisted by offering friendly criticism and information, we extend our sincere thanks.

William C. Pool
Lucile Williamson Raley

San Marcos, Texas
August, 1962
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UNKNOWN LANDS TO WILDERNESS
Conquistador and Padre
Young students may wonder why we begin the study of Texas history with a study of Columbus and the Spanish conquerors. The answer is simple: For three centuries after the voyage of Columbus, Texas belonged to Spain. During this lengthy period, the Spanish explorers roamed over prairie and stream, built their mission settlements and colonized the wilderness. They left their mark on the land from the Rio Grande on the south and west to the Sabine and Red rivers on the north and east. Down through the centuries that have passed between then and now, the Spanish heritage has remained one of the most important factors in the development of the present-day state. The story of the conquistador and padre is told in the several chapters that make up the initial section of this book — learn it well and remember its significance.
Chapter I

Spanish Discovery of Texas

In 1492, when Columbus made his first voyage, Europe was just emerging from a long period of inactivity. Some historians call this the "Dark Ages." Men began to bestir themselves and to look with
longing eyes across the broad Atlantic. Their minds became curious about what things might be like beyond that which they could see. Too, Europe needed to find an all-water route to India, so that the trade in spices and other products could be more profitable. The routes at that time were too long, too dangerous, and too expensive. Perhaps the dangerous and expensive overland route could be abandoned if the earth were round as some were beginning to believe. If this were true, they could reach the East by sailing west.

WAS THE EARTH ROUND OR FLAT? The people of Europe for the most part, except the great scholars of the time, believed the earth to be flat as it appeared to be. Christopher Columbus, however, was one of the few who believed that the earth was round. He reasoned that if the earth were round he could reach the Far East by sailing west. He could thus find an all-water route to the great riches of In-
dia and China. Sailors and adventurers from Portugal were trying to find this route by sailing all around the tip of Africa. Other nations had not yet fully awakened from the "Dark Ages" and were too timid and afraid to launch such an expensive and dangerous undertaking.

Columbus was a Genoese sailor in the service of the king of Spain. He had the courage to try to reach India by sailing westward across the Atlantic, but there were many obstacles in his way. First, he had no money. He finally received financial aid from King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. The story (probably a legend) is that the Queen pledged her jewels to raise money for the expedition. The second great difficulty appeared when Columbus tried to get sailors to man his ships. Sailors had great fear of the ocean, for they had heard that it was boiling water and that out there the great monsters of the sea would overturn the small vessels of the day. Some criminals and others of bad repute were among those recruited to complete the crews for the three vessels, the Pinta, the Niña, and the Santa María. These three small vessels sailed courageously from the little port of Palos, Spain, in August, 1492.
COLUMBUS FINDS A NEW WORLD. One can scarcely imagine the excitement among the crew when, in the early morning of October 12, 1492, land was sighted. They believed that they had reached India. As a matter of fact, Columbus was so sure of this that he called the natives there Indians. Columbus really had landed not on the islands off the coast of India, but on the islands known to us today as the West Indies. Columbus was bitterly disappointed when he learned he had found a continent instead of the water route to India. This shows how eager the Old World was to find a new route.

SPAIN CLAIMS THE NEW WORLD. Columbus was in the employ of Spain, and his three ships sailed the Spanish flag. Sailing the same flag, Columbus made three more voyages from 1492 to 1502. He discovered the main islands of the Caribbean Sea and
touched the mainland of South America and Central America.

These explorations and discoveries firmly established claims of Spain to the New World. King Ferdinand, however, knew that immediate efforts must be made to establish the claim, or his enemies, England or France, might take it. The nations of Europe were quarreling, bickering, and fighting then, as now, each trying to get the advantage over the other. Spain had to act quickly to preserve this advantage, and the King did act. He sent colonists first to Santo Domingo, Cuba, and Puerto Rico to make his claim good. The Spanish people in the West Indies soon began to migrate to South America and finally to Mexico.

THE LAND OF THE AZTECS. The conquest of Mexico is important in Texas history because it was from this land that the Spaniards came. Spain began this conquest in 1519, and by 1521 it was complete.

At this time Mexico was inhabited by tribes of Indians, but the most powerful and most civilized of them all were the Aztecs (əzˈtēks) who lived in
the vicinity of Mexico City. These Aztecs were the most warlike and fearless of all people the Spaniards had met in their wars and conquests, but the Aztecs were highly civilized. They were great builders; they had temples and houses built of stone, and they had the best of paved roads. They made fine ornaments of gold, silver, and other metals and made cloth of beautiful color and texture. In their churches they sacrificed animals, birds, and sometimes human beings. The ruins of some of the sacred temples still stand in Mexico as evidence of a great civilization now extinct.
CORTÉS CONQUERS MEXICO AND THE AZTECS. Montezuma (mon.tä.sō′mä), the ruler of the Aztecs, was known for his wealth. Hernando Cortés (kôr.täs′), a young Spanish nobleman, determined to conquer Montezuma and take his riches. In 1519, with a small army of Spaniards, Cortés sailed boldly from Cuba to the coast of Honduras. He founded the town of Vera Cruz and then scuttled his ships to prevent his men from deserting him. Cortés had firmly resolved to conquer the land of the Aztecs; so he proceeded from Vera Cruz to the interior of Mexico and, with the aid of Indian allies, overpowered Montezuma and took the rich stores of
gold which the Aztecs had stocked in their treasure rooms.

Since Cortés and his men had guns, a few cannon, and armor to protect themselves from the spears and arrows of the Aztecs, the Spaniards were able to establish control over the land within a few months. The Spaniards also took horses and cows into Mexico with them. It was said that the Indians were more afraid of the horses than of the guns of the Spaniards.

Cortés and his soldiers seized the large stores of gold and silver, along with the mines, forcing the Indians to work them for the benefit of the king of Spain. This land which Spain claimed in the New World was henceforth known as New Spain, and the ruler appointed by the king was called a viceroy.

THE VOYAGE OF PINEDA. In the same year that Cortés began the conquest of Mexico, another Spaniard, Alonso Alvarez de Pineda (ä.lón'sô ál'vä.rës
dá pē.na'dá), actually explored the coast of Texas and may have landed there. He was sent out by the Spanish governor of Jamaica to discover a western route to "the land of sweet spices in the Far East." He explored the shores of the Gulf of Mexico from Florida to Vera Cruz, Mexico. Pineda made a map of this area, and on his return trip he discovered the mouth of what he called "a very large river." This was probably the Rio Grande. According to Pineda, a large Indian village was located near the mouth of the river and was inhabited by a friendly tribe. He remained in the vicinity of the Rio Grande for forty days; in this time he explored the river for about
eighteen miles, finding in that distance forty Indian villages. Garay (gär′), the governor of Jamaica, named the new land Amichel (ä.mē.shēl), and on Pineda's map it included the lands from Vera Cruz in Mexico to Pensacola Bay in Florida.

SIGNIFICANCE OF PINEDA'S VOYAGE. The following facts point to Pineda's voyage as one of great importance:

1. He explored the whole of the coastline from Florida to Vera Cruz and made a map of the area. On this map he showed the rivers he discovered. These most likely included the Colorado and the Rio Grande.
2. A look at this map will show you that his voyage was also important because it proved that the all-water route to the riches of the East was not anywhere in the Gulf area.
3. This voyage proved that Florida was not an island, but a part of the continent.
4. His discovery that the all-water route to India was not in the South turned the Spaniards away from that area to the area farther north.
5. One of the most important facts about Pineda's voyage is that Pineda himself gave us the first account
of the area at least fifteen years before Cabeza de Vaca (kä.bä’sä dâ vä’kä) wrote his stories about Texas. He described the natives he saw as being dwarfs, men of medium size, and giants. The giants were probably the Karankawa (kä.räng’kä.wä) Indians who lived on the Gulf Coast, since at least more than one traveler later referred to this area as “the land of the giants.”

THE FIRST SPANIARDS IN TEXAS — Cabeza de Vaca. Pineda may or may not have gone into Texas. The first Spaniards known to have entered the interior of the state were Alvar Núñez Cabeza de Vaca and three other Spaniards, who were survivors of the tragic Pánfilo de Narváez (när.vä’äs) expedition. Narváez had made a vain attempt to move his crude boats from Florida to Vera Cruz, but he was shipwrecked on an island off the coast of Texas. The sea was cruel, and only a few escaped. They called the island Malhado, or the “Island of Misfortune.” Some historians believe it to be Galveston Island.

At first the Indians made a slave of Cabeza de Vaca, but very soon he worked himself into the favor of the tribes and gained freedom to move from place to place. He knew nothing about medicine but gained great fame as a healer or medicine man. The Indians adopted him as their family doctor, and, according to him, he healed many of them. As a matter of fact, he performed the first surgical operation ever performed by a white man in Texas — that is, if we may believe his story. He said that with a pocket-
knife which he carried, he removed an arrow from an Indian’s breast, and by virtue of his calling (he was a tailor by trade) he sewed up the wound; the Indian was well the next day.

After six years of wandering, Cabeza de Vaca and his companions escaped to Mexico. They had lived in servitude among the tribes and were in constant fear, particularly of the Karankawas, who were cannibals. The journey from Texas to Mexico City took ten months. De Vaca returned to Spain, where in 1542 he published the first book ever printed about Texas. There are in it some strange tales which may be the beginning of tall tales about Texas. He wrote as follows about the Indians he saw:

"The Indians are so used to running that without rest or fatigue they can follow a deer from morning till night. In this way they kill many of them. They pursue
them until tired down and then overtake them in the race. . . .

'The majority of the people are great thieves, for, though they are free to divide with each other, on turning the head, even a son and a father will steal from each other. They are great liars, and also great drunkards.'

FRIAR MARCOS DE NIZA. The tall tales told by Cabeza de Vaca caused many people to become interested in this new land. In spite of some of the stories Cabeza de Vaca told, he seems to have been quite truthful about most things. When the Spaniards asked him about gold, he told them he had seen none. He hastened to say that the Indians assured him that there were many cities and much gold. This was just what the Spaniards desired to hear. Their interest grew as they thought about it, and they began to ask that an expedition be sent to find these cities of gold.

When Cabeza de Vaca arrived in Mexico City in 1536 with his stories of Texas, Antonio Mendoza, the first viceroy of New Spain, was much impressed. The viceroy decided to send an expedition to look for these fabulous cities and to claim them for his king. Friar Marcos de Niza (mär'kös dä né'sä) was chosen to make the reconnaissance into this land of reputed wealth. He and his men set out on this expedition in March, 1539. The group included Stephen the Moor, who was with Cabeza de Vaca. After traveling about a month, Friar Marcos sent Stephen the Moor ahead to search for the cities and to report to him. Stephen
sent back word that there were seven cities of gold and the first one was Cibola (sɛ'bo.lə).

When Friar Marcos reached Cibola, he learned that Stephen the Moor had been killed by the Indians. He was afraid, therefore, to enter the city, but he was told that the inhabitants had untold wealth. He was assured, also, that Cibola was the least wealthy of the seven cities. These cities were evidently the Indian pueblos (puɛˈbloʊs) of New Mexico.

Although Friar Marcos viewed these pueblos only from a distance, he was assured that each was wealthy beyond description. He returned to Mexico with these stories, and soon there was clamor for another expedition. He had the same kind of story as Cabeza de Vaca — that is, he did not see any gold, but he was told that there was plenty. The result was that another expedition was planned immediately.

A VISIT FROM CAPTAIN CORONADO. The fabulous stories of Cabeza de Vaca and his companions are unsurpassed, even by the glorious tales of Marco Polo. Yet the stories of Friar Marcos de Niza were just as exciting. Although many of these stories are unbelievable, they stirred great excitement in New Spain. They are important because they led to the expedition of Francisco Vasquez de Coronado (kʊ.ɾo.ˈnædəʊ) in 1540. Tales or rumors of seven cities of untold riches in the great North Country had drifted across the Rio Grande to Mexico City prior to Cabeza de Vaca’s return. He said Indians had told him that the stories were true.
The viceroy of New Spain was at once interested, and he sent Captain Coronado with an army to capture these cities of gold. As Coronado marched out in 1540, he had under his command about three hundred armored horsemen, seventy foot soldiers, and approximately one thousand Indian allies. These armored horsemen, riding the best horses the country could afford, presented an impressive sight as they set out toward the north. The trappings of the horses were silver and gold, and their blankets were of all colors.

Coronado found no golden cities. Instead he found, in the area of Arizona and New Mexico, dust-ridden towns inhabited by hostile Indians. In the spring of 1541 he set out to find Quivira (kē.ve'řä).
which the Indians told him was somewhere in the northeast on a river that was six miles wide. He found it somewhere on the Canadian River, in the Texas Panhandle or perhaps in Central Kansas, but it was as disappointing to him as were the discoveries in Arizona and New Mexico.

The exact location of Coronado's route is of much less importance than the report he made of it when he returned to Mexico in 1542. He told the viceroy that the country he saw was of no value and not worthy of Spanish occupation. He found no gold, no precious metals, no civilized inhabitants — only nomadic savages. These reports saddened the viceroy and, for over half a century, almost completely destroyed the Spanish interest in the great area of Texas.

TALL TALES ABOUT TEXAS. If you wish to collect tall tales about Texas, you will not want to miss the stories told by Coronado. He and his men were caught in a wind and hail storm, and he reported that "in a short space of time a great quantity of
hailstones as big as bowls or bigger fell as thick as raindrops." In a river which Coronado crossed, he said, "There were fish as large as horses." He claimed "the cows had hair which was woolly and snarled." These "cows," of course, were buffalo. He described the Indians as men who "eat raw flesh, and drink blood, but do not eat human flesh." Coronado related stories which the Indians told him about the "ruler of the country who took his afternoon nap under a large tree. A great number of little gold bells hung in the tree and put the ruler to sleep with the sounds which they made as they swung in the air." Coronado's other stories included descriptions of the ordinary dishes made of wrought-iron plate and gold jugs and bowls which everyone in this fabulous land owned and used. In fact, Coronado and his men repeated reports of a country to the east in which "gold was as common as prairie dust."

**IMPORTANCE OF CORONADO'S EXPEDITION.** Gold was the only thing in which the Spaniard was interested. Since Coronado found none, his expedition was called a failure. To students of Texas history, however, it has considerable significance, for these as well as other reasons:

1. It was the first expedition to enter Texas from the west.
2. It led to the discovery and exploration of the Texas Panhandle, Palo Duro Canyon (pā'lo dō'o'ro'), and the Canadian River.
3. Coronado learned the truth about the area—that is, it was not a land of gold, silver, and precious metals. Perhaps this reason was of more importance than others.

4. Spain had another claim to the New World.

**THE DE SOTO-MOSCOSO EXPEDITION.** Almost at the same time that Coronado was making his entry into Texas from the west, another expedition under the command of the Spaniard Hernando de Soto (ārnän'dō dā sō'tō) was approaching Texas from the east. De Soto had believed the stories about great wealth in the interior and, like Coronado, was searching for it. He explored the Gulf Coast and the lower Mississippi Valley. He discovered the Mississippi River, crossed it, but died soon thereafter in May, 1542. His men buried him in the river so that the Indians would not know of his death.

Thus this expedition ended sadly, as did many others. De Soto's men under Luis de Moscoso (lwēs' dā mōs.kō'sō) started overland to Mexico, or New Spain. The expedition crossed the Red River near Texarkana and continued into the northeastern corner of Texas. Then it proceeded through the land of the Tejas (tā'hās) Indians and on into the plains country, perhaps as far south as the Brazos. Moscoso and his men had learned of Coronado's expedition from the Indians. Since they were unable to contact these men, however, they decided to return to the Mississippi. They floated down the river and across the Gulf to Panuco on the Gulf Coast.
SPAIN LOSES INTEREST IN THE INTERIOR OF TEXAS. Coronado's discouraging report led to a one-hundred-fifty-year period of inactivity on the part of Spain in the interior of Texas. However, Spain showed some interest in the adjoining regions. She extended her explorations into northern Mexico when the Indians discovered mines in the area of Durango and Zacatecas about 1580. Explorers, missionaries, and adventurers were lured northward by ex-
An Early Spanish Mission

citing tales of the Grand Quivira — tales of gold, silver, and pearls.

A few years later, 1598, the Spaniard Juan de Oñate (hwán dā ō.nyā’tă) was commissioned to colonize New Mexico. As a result, El Paso, on the Mexican side, was established in 1609. Out of this grew the permanent Spanish Mission Guadalupe at El Paso (1659) and Mission San Francisco (1680) on the Rio Grande, about sixty miles below El Paso.

EL PASO SETTLED. In 1680 the Indians of New Mexico revolted against the Spanish in the El Paso region. The Spaniards there were about twenty-

22
two hundred in number, and, in the face of the Indian attack, they retreated to El Paso and there founded a town. In the meantime, the Spaniards were expanding their activities immediately south of the Rio Grande, in what is now the state of Coahuila. They established missions between the Sabinas River and the Rio Grande. One of these was Ysleta (ës.lā’tä). Thus we see that, although she did not immediately occupy the interior, Spain had strengthened her position on the border of Texas, in northern Mexico, and in New Mexico.

**RESULTS OF THESE EARLY SPANISH EXPLORATIONS.** The immediate visible results of these meager exploring expeditions were few, but the final results were far-reaching. By way of concluding the study of this preliminary period, let us list here briefly what these results were.

1. Spain's claim to Texas was established firmly by the discoveries made by Columbus and by the explorations of Pineda, Cabeza de Vaca, Coronado, and Moscoso.

2. These adventurers brought with them the horse and the cow. The mustang and the Texas Longhorn are descendants of these animals.

3. They failed to find gold, and as a result Spain lost interest for a while.

4. Spain expanded her settlements to the very borders of Texas and was prepared to move in quickly if any other nation should challenge her claim in Texas.
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What right did Spain have to claim America? What was necessary to make this claim good?
2. Why do we have an interest in the conquest of Mexico?
3. What right did Spain have to claim Texas?
4. Why were the nations of Europe searching for new routes of travel?
5. Tell the story of Cabeza de Vaca, Coronado, Moscoso, and Friar Marcos de Niza.
6. What was the significance of Coronado's expedition?
7. What were the results of the first fifty years of Spanish activity in Texas?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

(Look up these words. Try to add some new word to your vocabulary each day.)

- participant
- expedition
- meager
- launch
- scuttled
- preliminary
- repute
- fabulous
- emerging

DO IT YOURSELF

1. Draw and color a picture of the Spanish flag which was the first flag of Texas.
2. Do you like to draw? If you do, draw a map showing the routes of the explorers discussed in this chapter.
3. If you are interested in creative art (drawing pictures from your own imagination), draw a picture or sketch of some event described in this chapter: Queen Isabella giving her jewels; the landing of Columbus; Cortés taking gold from the Aztecs; or fish like Coronado saw.
4. Draw the Pinta, the Niña, and the Santa Maria.
5. Imagine yourself to be a member of one of the exploring expeditions described in this chapter. Write of your experiences.
Coronado was sadly disappointed because of the failure of his expedition. Imagine that you are talking to one of his descendants. Explain to him just how important Coronado's expedition was.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Banks, C. Stanley, and McMillan, Grace Taylor (Editors), *The Texas Reader*.

Bolton, H. E., and Barker, E. C., *With the Makers of Texas*. Printed in this book are translations of some of the accounts of early expeditions into Texas written by participants.


Cox, Bertha Mae, *True Tales of Texas*.

Littlejohn, E. J., *Texas History Stories*.


Rothen, Loyce Marie, "The Unwilling Faith Healer," in *The Junior Historian*, September, 1946. This is an interesting story of how Cabeza de Vaca came to practice the art of medicine in Texas.

Webb, Walter Prescott, and Carroll, H. Bailey (Editors), *The Handbook of Texas*, 2 Vols. If your school library does not have these two volumes, ask the librarian if she can order them. They will be most useful in your study of history.

To keep the history of the past from being dead, we must link it with the present. The events discussed happened many, many years ago, but they left an imprint on the present day. Things which happened in those early days affect us, although we do not always realize it.
Learn the names and locations of the rivers of Texas. You will need this information throughout the course.

**SPANISH PLACE NAMES**

*Los Brazos de Dios.* The Arms of God. This river is now called the Brazos. The Spaniards were always imaginative in their
Cabeza de Vaca
choice of names. The story here is that a small group of explorers was about to die of thirst, and some had despaired of their lives, when suddenly they came upon a stream filled with life-giving waters. One of them named the river Los Brazos de Dios or the “Arms of God.” He said that when they were faced with death the arms of God stretched out to save them.

*Cabeza de Vaca,* or Cow’s Head. This family name was originally Alhaja. In the year 1212 in Spain one of Cabeza’s ancestors showed how a mountain pass could be used to stop an attack of an enemy. He marked the pass with the skull of a cow. Alhaja was made a noble, granted a coat-of-arms, and dubbed *Cabeza de Vaca* (Cow’s Head).

*Paso de Aguila,* Eagle Pass. In the days when the Indians lived in the vicinity of the present Eagle Pass, they observed that the Mexican eagles frequently flew from one motte of trees to another across the Rio Grande. In their flight they always passed over the river near the present location of the town. They called it the “Place of the Passage of the Eagles.” When the Spaniards came, they translated this into *Paso de Aguila,* or Eagle Pass. Today there is no flight of eagles, but the name Eagle Pass recalls their “tracks in the sky.”

In 1520, after Pineda had made his report, Governor Garay sent an expedition to make a settlement at the mouth of the Rio Grande. Garay called this river *Rio de las Palmas,* the River of the Palms, another picturesque name. It was in connection with Garay’s efforts to colonize the Rio Grande that this land was given the name of *Garayana,* for Governor Garay. The name *Amichel* had already been applied to the land.

These and similar place names given by the Spaniards are seen every day. They are seen in the names of Texas rivers, Texas towns, and in the names of the streets of Texas cities.
Chapter II
French Appearance in Texas

The French were the first to challenge Spanish ownership in Texas. They had been exploring certain portions of the New World from an early date, even before the time of the Spanish explorers, Coro-
nado and De Soto. Let us glance at the story of the French and how they came to plague the Spanish.

**CARTIEREXPLORES CANADA.** In 1534 the king of France, an archenemy of Spain, fitted out an expedition under the command of Jacques Cartier (zhāk kār.tyā’), a bold French seaman. The plan was to take a more northerly course than Columbus had taken, in order to find the desired shorter water route to the riches of the East. Cartier landed in Canada and discovered a great river, which he named the St. Lawrence. He sailed along the river, but soon observed that it did not flow through the continent and was not, therefore, the route to India.

**FRENCH MISSIONARIES AND TRADERS EXPLORE THE MISSISSIPPI.** There was no quick follow-up of Cartier’s discoveries. The French, however, did establish a permanent settlement at Quebec in 1608. They spread from this point into the region of the Great Lakes, and finally into the Mississippi Valley. In 1673 Father Marquette (mär.kē’t’), who was a Jesuit priest, and a trader named Joliet (zhō.-lyā’), sailed down the Mississippi as far as the Arkansas River. Their purposes were to explore, to preach to the Indians, to trade, and to see if the Mississippi might be the route to India. They turned back because they were convinced that the river emptied into the Gulf of Mexico.

**FRANCE THREATENS SPAIN.** Spain profited from the trade in the New World, and as a result she
became the richest nation of Europe. Other nations wished to share this trade, so Spain was forced to adopt means to protect it. She did this in four ways:

1. She required that all shipping be done by Spaniards.
2. She required that all goods be shipped in Spanish vessels.
3. She required that the trade be carried on only between certain ports in Spain and certain ports in America.
4. She adopted the convoy system and protected the Spanish trading ships by sending warships as convoys. This means of protection was adopted when France, the Netherlands, England, and other nations of Europe began to attack Spanish shipping.
These nations continued to press Spain, particularly France. By the time of Marquette's trip down the Mississippi, the French had planted their flag on fourteen islands in the Caribbean Sea and also in South America. This was a definite threat to Spain in the New World. France was moving closer and closer to the riches which Spain enjoyed. La Salle's expedition in 1684 was still another threat.

**LA SALLE'S EXPEDITION.** One important result of Marquette's trip down the Mississippi was that his glowing accounts of the great Mississippi Valley inspired La Salle to make an expedition down the great river. His full name was René Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle (ˌrā. ˈvā. ˌla. ˈsāl’). He was, of course, a Frenchman, born in 1643. He received a good education, and at the age of twenty-three he went to Canada. Most of his remaining years were spent in exploring the New World.

In 1682 La Salle went all the way to the mouth of the river. In impressive ceremonies there he claimed all the land drained by the Mississippi for his king, Louis XIV, and named the land Louisiana in his honor. However, De Soto had already discovered the Mississippi and claimed it for Spain.

It should be pointed out here that all the explorers immediately claimed the lands they discovered for their kings. The reason was that, according to the laws which governed nations (international law) at that time, all newly discovered lands belonged to the king under whose authority the discoveries had been
made. This meant that all the lands, gold, silver, and other resources would be his.

**THE FRENCH ESTABLISH FORT ST. LOUIS IN TEXAS.** La Salle was a man of vision, and he saw at once how important it was to France to establish a settlement at the mouth of the river he had explored. In his mind, he could see this settlement connected with the French settlements in Canada by a string of forts northward along the river. He returned to Canada and then to France to get a commission from his king to make the settlement. This request was granted to La Salle, and in 1684 a small fleet of four vessels, the *Joli*, the *Belle*, the *Aimable* (əˈmæbl), and the *St. Francis*, set out with about four hundred settlers for the mouth of the Mississippi.

There is hardly a more tragic story in the history of Texas than the story of this French colony. Misfortunes of every description overcame La Salle and his group: (1) his captains were not loyal; (2) the *St. Francis* was captured by the Spanish in the West Indies; (3) the *Aimable* deserted and returned to France; (4) the expedition missed the mouth of the river and
landed at Matagorda Bay; (5) the *Joli* was wrecked in attempts to land; and (6) the *Belle*, his last ship, was wrecked while exploring the coast. They had nothing now except canoes and rafts.

The little group landed and moved inland to the head of Lavaca Bay and made a settlement on Garcitas (*gär.sē'tās*) Creek. There, in 1685, they built a fort, a few houses, a chapel, and a stockade which enclosed the entire settlement. It was named Fort St. Louis and was the first European settlement in that section of Texas.

**TWOI R T R O U B L E S M U L T I P L I E D.** To add to La Salle’s misfortunes, the expedition, sent down the Mississippi from Canada with supplies, failed to find the little colony. La Salle began to search for the Mississippi but could not find it. In 1687 somewhere in East Texas, perhaps near the present town of Navasota, the ill-fated La Salle, while in search of the river, was murdered by one of his own men.

The tragic story of the little colony came to an end when the Indians massacred all but a few of the Frenchmen at the fort. Some of La Salle’s men, under the leadership of Joutel (*zhōō.tēl’*), finally reached Canada, but it was too late to send aid to the French at Fort St. Louis in Texas.

**SPANISH SEARCH FOR LA SALLE’S COLONY.** When the Spanish heard of the French intruders, expeditions were sent out immediately, five by sea and six by land, in search of the colony. The members of one of the sea expeditions found the hulks
of La Salle's vessels at Matagorda Bay but did not find the site of the fort. Alonso de León (ä.lö'n.sö dä läö'n'), the governor of Coahuila, accompanied by Massanet (mäs.nä'), a priest, made three expeditions by land and, in 1689, found the ruins of Fort St. Louis. Less than three months before the arrival of de León, the Indians had attacked the settlement and murdered everyone except a young man and four young children. The story is that a kind Indian woman saved the lives of the children. De León had been sent to destroy the settlement, but his work was already done. He burned what was left.

**THE IMPORTANCE OF FORT ST. LOUIS.**

The settlement of the French at Fort St. Louis was not prearranged. In fact, it was made in Texas only because La Salle missed the mouth of the Mississippi. Its significance, however, is greater than its size or permanence would indicate. It was important for four reasons:

1. It formed the basis for the French claim to the territory between Florida and Mexico.
2. It gave the United States a pretext to claim that Texas was a part of the Louisiana Purchase in 1803.
3. It encouraged the French to make further attempts at settlement. The result was that France established New Orleans in 1718.
4. It aroused the Spanish to activity and led almost immediately to a Spanish settlement in East Texas. This French challenge, though accidental,
spurred the Spanish to action. You will learn about this later.
WHAT THE WHITE MAN FOUND IN TEXAS

RIVERS. The first explorers who came to Texas saw a wild, undeveloped but beautiful land. They saw the stately pines of the East, the Gulf Coastal plains covered with marshes and buffalo grass, vast woodlands and rolling prairies, the great, vast, and awe-inspiring Staked Plains stretching farther than the eye could see, and the rugged hills and high mountains beyond the Pecos. They saw the rivers rolling endlessly toward the great Gulf of Mexico—the Rio Grande (western and southwestern boundary of Texas), the Nueces (nō’sēs), the San Antonio, the Guadalupe (gwā’lō-pā), the San Jacinto (sān jāk’in-tō), the Colorado, the Brazos, the Red, the Trinity, the Neches (nēchēz), and the Sabine (sā-bēn’)(eastern boundary). They saw what they believed to be great inland waterways. In this they were mistaken. The rivers were not suitable for the development of great inland commerce.

CLIMATE. These intrepid travelers also found here a land with a moderate climate but with a wide range. Coronado traveled into an area in the Panhandle where the snow, the sleet, and the cold were sometimes forbidding; whereas Cabeza de Vaca traveled through a land that was warm and inviting and where snow was almost unknown. The generally mild and favorable climate, which the early white men found here, proved to be a great friend of the early American settlers in Texas.
RAINFALL. Moscoso and Cabeza de Vaca wandered through Texas, where from twenty-five to fifty inches of rain fell each year. Less than half that amount fell in the western area traversed by Coronado.

INHABITANTS — SIX MAIN INDIAN GROUPS. Of all the strange things the French and the Spanish saw in Texas, they were most astonished by the brown or copper-colored people who inhabited the land. As the climate and rainfall varied from one section to the other, so the Indians of each area were different from those of all other areas. These early travelers found numerous tribes, but there were six main ones. These were: (1) the timber Indians in East and Northeast Texas; (2) the coastal Indians of South and Southwest Texas; (3) the central tribes, mainly inland and between the Colorado River and the Brazos; (4) the plains Indians; (5) Indians west of the Pecos River; (6) the Rio Grande tribes, south and southwest of San Antonio.

THE TIMBER INDIANS. These Indians, who lived in East and Northeast Texas, were the most civilized of all the groups. The timber Indians were all of the same family — that is, the Caddoan family. They were subdivided into three unions or confederacies, the Hasinais (hā.se'niiz) or Tejas, the Caddoes (kā'dōz), and the Wichitas. You must remember, however, that each of these unions was made up of many smaller tribes.

These timber tribesmen were tall, strong, and cat-like in their movements. They were friendly, intelli-
gent, and civilized. They had permanent homes and permanent settlements, and they engaged in agriculture. Among the farm products they raised were beans, watermelons, corn, nuts, and berries. One of
their principal foods was hot tamales. Their homes were dome-like, thatched with twigs, daubed with mud, and covered with grass. The interiors of these homes have been described as quite beautiful, with many brightly colored rugs.

These eastern tribes gave much attention to matters of dress. In the winter the men wore beautifully colored robes. In summer they wore breechcloths. The women wore dresses of the same material with certain decorations of beads and shells added. They wore their hair well-combed and, on special occasions, braided and tied with colored ribbons of hide. Both men and women wore many ornaments.

**THE COASTAL INDIANS.** The two main tribes of the coastal area were the Attacapan on the lower stretches of the Trinity, Neches, and Sabine rivers, and the Karankawa between the Nueces and the Trinity. The Attacapans had permanent homes but engaged in less agriculture than did their northern neighbors.

The Karankawas were the least civilized and the most dreaded of all Texas Indians. They were dreaded because of their many crude customs, including cannibalism. The charge of cannibalism has been disputed by many historians, but Cabeza de Vaca, who was shipwrecked among them, said that they ate the bodies of their enemies killed in combat. We do know, however, that some of the Karankawas were Christianized. They used shark and fish oil to keep mosquitoes away, and this odor was just as offensive to the white men
as it was to the mosquitoes. They lived in the crudest of homes made of poles covered with skins.

**THE CENTRAL TEXAS INDIANS.** The main central Texas group was the Tonkawa (tong'kā.wā). These Indians may or may not have been related to their neighbors. They farmed on a small scale but lived mostly on deer and buffalo. There were only a few Tonkawas left by the time the American colonists arrived in Texas.

**THE PLAINS INDIANS.** These were the Indians who lived on the western plains. There were three main divisions: the Apaches (ā.pāch'ēz), the Comanches (kō.mān'chēz), and the Jumanos (hōo.mān'-ōz). These tribes were not as civilized as the East Texas Indians and were hostile not only to the white man, but to each other. When they could not find white men to fight, they fought among themselves. They were all nomads and at times roamed through much of Texas.

**THE APACHES.** These Indians, who roamed from place to place west of San Antonio, were fierce and cruel. They farmed very little and developed no fine arts. They were constantly at war and lived largely by plundering. The presence of the Apaches pre-
Some Projectile Points by Classification with Approximate Periods of Use
vented the frontier from moving westward for many years. Missionary efforts were fruitless among them until the terrible Comanches appeared and became their enemies. They were finally sent to reservations in Arizona and New Mexico.

**THE COMANCHES.** There were many tribes of Comanches, who were independent of each other but often acted together in times of war. Among the better known ones were the Honey-eaters, the Buffalo-eaters, and the most lowly of them all, the Root-eaters. They were nomadic, never engaged in farming, were great horsemen, and were the fiercest of fighters. When an epidemic overtook them, they simply moved away and never returned. This was their way of checking the ravages of disease. The Comanches constituted the largest group and numbered about 7,000 at one time.

**THE JUMANOS.** These were probably a western branch of the Wichitas, and they lived on the High Plains. They were driven southward by the Comanches and at one time lived in the Concho River country. At first they were very friendly toward the Spanish, and many went into the missions. Later, however, they joined the Apaches against the white men. A small number of them were sent to an Indian reservation in Oklahoma.

**THE TRANS-PECOS INDIANS.** There were many tribes who lived west of the Pecos and on down to the Rio Grande. They seemed to be unrelated, each being independent of the other. Among them, in the
Big Bend country and in the mountains, were cave dwellers. It is likely also that the Pueblo Indians lived at one time in the Trans-Pecos region.

**THE RIO GRANDE TRIBES.** The chief of all the numerous tribes in the Rio Grande area was the Coahuiltecans (kö.ä.wël'tä.kãns), named for the state of Coahuila (kö.ä.wël'lä). They lived south of San Antonio and also across the Rio Grande in the state of Coahuila. They were not highly civilized, but they were willing to learn from the Spaniards. They were mainly the ones who went into the missions around San Antonio. There they learned many things from the missionaries. The Apaches finally pushed this group across the Rio Grande into Mexico.

**WHAT HAPPENED TO THE INDIANS.** There were thousands of Indians in Texas in the days of the early settlements, but people rarely see one now. What happened to them? The Caddoes dwindled in numbers until there were perhaps no more than five hundred by 1833. They were later given a reservation on the Brazos. When trouble arose with the Texans in 1859, they were moved to the Indian Territory. The Wichitas were persuaded to move to the state of Oklahoma, where the United States government gave them some lands. The Karankawas were few in number when Texas was being settled. In the 1850's a few of the remaining Indians were killed by the Texans. The Coahuiltecans gradually decreased in numbers and finally disappeared. The Apaches continued to give trouble as late as the 1880's, and at last they were
placed on Indian reservations in New Mexico and Arizona. The Comanches gave more trouble than all the others, but most of them finally went to Indian reservations.

**INFLUENCE OF THE INDIAN.** The Indian played a great part in the history of Texas. He soon faded out of the picture, but in the early days he was important. The European expeditions were sent here
to exploit the Indians, to trade with them, and to Christianize them. From the Indians the Europeans learned of crops and crude methods of farming, of foods, and how to trap wild game. Their presence slowed down European occupation. They forced the European to change his method of warfare, for none of the tribes fought in the European manner. The Europeans fought in the open and in formation. The Indians fought from behind trees, rocks, or whatever they could find for protection. They would strike quickly and then retreat. To survive, the newcomers had to change their style of attack.

PLANTS AND ANIMALS. The early explorers also wrote about some of the plants and animals they found which impressed them. Among these were cows with curly wool (buffalo), rattlesnakes, prickly pear.
wild grapes, pelicans, and alligators. Joutel, who was a member of La Salle’s expedition, kept notes on the trip and what he saw. He said:

“Among the venomous Sorts of Snakes, as vipers, asps and others, whereof there are many, those call’d Rattle-Snakes are the most common. They generally lye among the Brambles, where they make a Noise by the motion of two Scales they have at the End of their tail which is heard at a Considerable distance, and therefore they are call’d Rattle-Snakes.”

Joutel said that one of his party died of snakebite. “The serpent bit him a little above the ankle,” he said. “and after enduring great pain he died.”
Mission La Purísima Concepción de Acuña
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Who were Marquette and Joliet? What were their purposes in exploring the Mississippi?
2. Describe La Salle's expedition.
3. Did anyone have a prior claim to the Mississippi Valley when La Salle claimed it for France?
4. Why was the king of France eager for La Salle to succeed?
5. What troubles did La Salle have on his expedition?
6. Was the founding of Fort St. Louis important? Give four reasons.
7. Comment on the geographic regions of Texas observed by the first explorers.
8. Comment on the climate in Texas.
9. What were the main tribes or groups of Indians in Texas?
10. Can you give some information about each tribe?
11. Where did each tribe live?
12. Which of the tribes were nomadic?
13. Which of the tribes were most warlike?
14. Were there any cannibals among the Indian tribes?
15. What happened to the Indians in Texas?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

ill-fated  impressive  pretext
devastation  prearranged  vantage
plague  attested  cannibalism
ravages  navigable  epidemic
intrepid  nomadic  depict

DO IT YOURSELF

1. Read about the Karankawa Indians in The Handbook of Texas. Explain to your class why it was very dangerous to go among the Karankawas.
2. Pretend that you are reporting over the radio or by television
the story of Fort St. Louis. Tell about the death of La Salle and the end of his colony.

3. Sketch or paint some scene of Fort St. Louis.

4. Draw a map and show the location of the main tribes of Indians.

5. Bring Indian relics to school for discussion.

6. Visit a museum, if possible, and look at Indian relics.

7. If you like to draw, you should draw some pictures depicting Indian life or scenes which may be displayed on the bulletin board.

8. Draw a map showing the rivers of Texas.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Atkinson, Mary J., *The Texas Indians*.


Cox, Bertha Mae, *True Tales of Texas*.


Hatcher, Mattie Austin (Translator and Editor), "Description of the Tejas or Asinai Indians, 1691-1722," *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, XXX, 206-218; XXXI, 50-62, 150-180.


Stiles, Henry Reed (Editor), *Joutel's Journal of La Salle's Last Voyage*. Joutel was a member of the La Salle expedition, and he wrote fully about the expedition. This book, printed first in 1713, has been reprinted and can be obtained by your librarian. It tells an absorbing story.

It is true that Indians no longer roam the Texas prairies. Their war whoop is no longer heard. They wait no more at dangerous mountain passes to capture and scalp the white settlers. This is past history, but wherever the Indian lived he left his trail, and these trails are visible for everyone to see today. Of these trails there is none more impressive than that left by the Comanche tribe at Paint Rock, Texas, and Hueco Tanks.

On the great rugged cliffs overlooking the Concho River near Paint Rock, Concho County, these Texas Indians, who had no written language, painted stories of their religion and events of their lives. They could not write, but some of them could paint, and they did. These paintings are called pictographs, or picture writing. At one time there were fifteen hundred of these strange and beautiful pictographs on these rocky cliffs. Many of them are still aflame with picturesque beauty.

Some of these paintings cannot be understood; some are dramatic; some are strangely complicated; some are simple stories; but all are beautiful. Painted there is the story of the destruction of the Spanish mission by the Indians in March of 1758. This was Mission San Saba de la Santa Cruz. The painting was the Indian’s way of bragging about putting an end to the Spaniard’s intrusion into his lands. Here at Paint Rock, under the stone roofs and back in the caves which formed a sort of ancient motel, the Indians camped and recorded the events of their lives in their paintings. There are paintings of birds and beasts. At one end of a jutting rock stands a wild turkey painted in red. Not far away is a painting of a mad buffalo pawing the earth. Elsewhere birds are shown in their mysterious flight.
Chapter III
Spanish Occupation of Texas, 1690-1800

The kings of France and of Spain were sworn enemies during the seventeenth century. Each was constantly on the alert to get an advantage over the other. This desire had prompted France to send out La Salle, and his appearance here, in turn, prompted Spain to make her first settlement in East Texas.

THE FIRST MISSION. In 1598 a Spanish explorer, Juan de Oñate, made an expedition into New
Mexico. He conquered the Pueblo Indians and made himself governor. The priests accompanied Oñate because they, as always, were interested in preaching to the Indians. All went well for nearly one hundred years. Then the Pueblos revolted and drove the Spaniards out of New Mexico. The refugees fled and settled a little below present-day El Paso, which was then on the Mexican side of the river. They called their settlement Ysleta. This was then in Mexico, but a change in the course of the river has left it on the Texas side. This mission at Ysleta, established in 1682, proved to be the first in Texas.

FIRST SPANISH MISSION IN EAST TEXAS. Under orders from the viceroy of Mexico, Alonso de León and Father Massanet, with one hundred ten soldiers, set out to establish a mission among the Tejas Indians. The Tejas belonged to the timber tribes in East Texas. The time was March, 1690. They took with them “twenty mules laden with wine, wax, and so on, also clothing for distribution among the Indians, and six loads of tobacco.”

The Tejas Indians lived in comfortable homes, engaged in agriculture, and enjoyed some of the fruits of civilization. At a dinner served by the chief, the priests ate parched corn, nuts, tamales, and succotash.

THE FIRST CHURCH IN EAST TEXAS. Three days after their arrival the soldiers built the first church. On June 1, 1690, this mission, or church, was consecrated, and also on that day the first church bell tolled in Texas. They called the mission San
Francisco de los Tejas in honor of St. Francis and the Tejas Indians. This mission was about twenty-five miles from the present town of Crockett. The next day de León and Father Massanet returned to Mexico. They left three priests to convert the Indians and three soldiers to protect the priests. For the soldiers they left nine horses, some firelocks, a barrel of powder, and some shot. The priests kept “twenty-six loads of flour, twenty cows, two yoke of oxen, ploughs with plough-shares, axes, spades, and other little things.”

ANOTHER MISSION IS BUILT. At first the priests were very happy and enthusiastic because as long as their gifts lasted the Indians showed great interest in the mission. This enthusiasm led the priests to build another mission, which they called Santísimo Nombre de María (mä.řë'ä), The Most Holy Name of Mary. This was nearby — perhaps on the Neches. It was soon destroyed by flood.
THE MISSION GETS INTO TROUBLE.
Many things combined to keep the settlement from succeeding.

1. Their crops were washed away one year and failed another year because of drought.
2. The Indians did not readily accept the new religion.
3. Spain lost interest because the French were nowhere to be found.
4. There was no profit from trade with the Indians.
5. The soldiers were more trouble than the Indians.
6. The Spanish government did not support them properly.
7. The Indians became sick of a strange disease, which their medicine men said was caused by the "holy water" of the priests. It seems that those who were baptized were the ones who became ill. As a result, the Indians turned against them, and in 1693 the Spaniards abandoned the mission and sadly returned to Mexico.

IMPORTANCE OF THIS MISSION. The Spanish had been shocked into going into eastern Texas by the presence of the French. When the French were nowhere to be found, the Spaniards quit. They did not return to the task for about twenty-five years, and then, only when the French seemed to threaten again.
However, this little church was important, for it taught the Spanish many things.

Just what did the Spaniards learn here? They learned of (1) the geography of the land, (2) the location of the rivers and the fords, or river crossings, and (3) much of the Indian language and of the character of the Indian and how to deal with him, and (4) how to succeed by sending larger numbers of priests, soldiers, and settlers, as well as their families of men, women, and children to make up the settlements.

FRANCE THREATENS AGAIN. It seemed that activity on the part of France or some other foreign country was the only thing which would spur Spain into action. This activity developed in the latter part of the seventeenth century and the first part of the eighteenth. In 1699 the French began to take over the province of Louisiana, which La Salle had claimed for them. On the Gulf Coast they founded Biloxi and Mobile, readily establishing control of the mouth
of the Mississippi. In 1713 they moved much closer to Texas and established Natchitoches (näk’y.tosh), on the Red River, not far from the site of the first mission in East Texas. Five years later, 1718, they established New Orleans to control the lower Mississippi.

SPANISH FRONTIER ADVANCES. While France was aggressively pushing westward into the lower Mississippi Valley, the Spanish were busy moving eastward and northward toward the Rio Grande. By 1703 the Franciscan priests had three missions, the most important one being San Juan Bautista (sän hwän’ bäu.tē’s’tā) on the Rio Grande near the present Eagle Pass. From these missions the fathers visited the Indians north of the Rio Grande.

One of these priests was Father Hidalgo (ē.däl’-gō), who had been at San Francisco de los Tejas. He begged the Spanish to re-establish the abandoned East Texas missions, since he wished to return to the friendly East Texas Indians. Officials of Spain, however, would not act until they were convinced that the French were threatening. Hidalgo, therefore, decided to try to get the French interested in Texas. He knew very well that any trade between the French and the Spanish in Texas would be against the law. In spite of this, he wrote to the governor of Louisiana and told him that he thought the Spaniards would be glad to trade with the French. This was all the encouragement the governor needed. He decided to send an expedition into Texas.
THE VISIT OF SAINT DENIS. Louis de Saint Denis (loo.e' de sân de.ne') was chosen to make this expedition into the West, because he had lived among the Indians— he understood their way of life, and he spoke their language. He could also speak Spanish. After receiving this commission from the governor of Louisiana, Saint Denis spent some time trading with the friendly East Texas Indians and then set out across Texas toward the Rio Grande. He arrived at San Juan Bautista late in the fall of 1714.

Diego Ramon (de.ä'go rá.mon') was in command at the mission, and he became very excited over the sudden appearance of a foreigner. Since it was illegal for any foreigner to trade in Spanish territory, Ramon arrested him. The viceroy in Mexico City ordered Saint Denis to appear for questioning. After asking him many questions, the viceroy decided that East Texas must be reoccupied, or Spain would lose control to the hated French king.

MISSIONS OF EAST TEXAS. Spain decided to reoccupy East Texas for several reasons. Chief among them were these: (1) the presence of the French in the east, (2) Father Hidalgo's plea for the opportunity to try again to Christianize the Indians, (3) the Indians' friendly attitude in the east, and finally, (4) the sudden appearance of Saint Denis on the Rio Grande. The Spanish then realized how little had been done to hold the province of Texas and how easy it would be for France or any other foreign country to seize it.

Captain Domingo Ramon, son of Diego Ramon,
was chosen to lead the expedition, and Saint Denis was to be his guide. The group was made up of sixty-five persons in all, including twelve missionaries and twenty-five soldiers. This party was different from the one in 1690, in that it included six families who planned to make their homes in Texas. They were going to stay this time, and they took not only families, but plows, axes, hoes, seed corn, and nearly a thousand head of cattle and goats.

Included in this group were a young bride and groom. Saint Denis had made good use of his time while he was held as a prisoner by courting Mañuela Sánchez (män'wēlā sän'chās), the beautiful granddaughter of Diego Ramon. They were married just before leaving on the expedition. After the missions were established in East Texas, they lived in the French settlements near Natchitoches.

**RAMON AND HIS FORCE.** The expedition arrived in East Texas in June, 1716, twenty-six years after the first East Texas expedition in 1690. It is very likely that they followed what later was called the Old San Antonio Road. This road started at the fort on the Rio Grande, near present-day Eagle Pass, and stretched across Texas to the modern Nacogdoches (näk.ō.dō'chēz). San Antonio, Bastrop, and Crockett are to be found along this route today. They established a mission about twelve miles from the location of San Francisco de los Tejas and put Father Hidalgo in charge. They called it San Francisco de los Neches. Ramon and his party found the Indians here very
friendly, especially after gifts had been distributed. They were profuse in their praise of the Spaniards. Typical of this praise is the example of the old chief who said that the four things which he loved most in the world were "God, the sun, the moon, and the Spaniards."

**OTHER MISSIONS.** In 1690 the Spanish had built only one mission in East Texas, but this time they built six. The missions, other than San Francisco de los Neches, were: Señora (sänonga) de los Dolores (dō.lō′rās), near the present city of San Augustine; San José (hō.sā′) in the northern part of the county of Nacogdoches; San Miguel de Linares (mi.gē′l dā lē.nā′ rās) near Robeline, Louisiana; Nuestra Señora de la Purísima Concepción (pōō.re′sē.mā′ kôn.sēp′-syō′ng′), on the Angelina River; and Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe, on the site of the present city of Nacogdoches. A presidio (pras′ē′dē′o), or fort, was established near Mission Dolores. A few soldiers were stationed at this presidio to protect the missions from the Indians and to keep watch on the French.
MISSIONS AS A SIGNBOARD. These missions were indeed too weak to drive the French out, if an invasion should be made. They acted rather as a signboard that this was Spanish property and that all foreigners should keep out. The missions could at least keep a watch on the French and report any threat of intrusion to the viceroy.

The Spanish did very little to develop their new lands, but, weak as they were, they held on until they were forced out by a new power, the United States of America. The missions did well for a time, and at the end of the first year the priests reported that they had baptized a hundred Indians. Thus by 1717 the Spanish in East Texas and the French at Natchitoches were facing each other across the land between the Sabine and Red rivers. Each was daring the other to make a move.

La Bahía

FOUNDED OF SAN ANTONIO. For several reasons it seemed wise to establish a Spanish settlement at the halfway point between San Juan Bautista and the East Texas missions. In 1718 the governor of
Coahuila set out for the interior with a company of sixty-two people to establish a colony. When he reached the area of present San Antonio, he established a fort and called it San Antonio de Bexar (bäˈhärˈ). Nearby he established in a cottonwood grove the Mission San Antonio de Valero (sän ˈän.tōˈnēō dā ˈvā.lāˈrō), also known as the Alamo. The Spanish name for cottonwood is alamo, whence its name.

Early in the year 1721 the Marquis de Aguayo led an expedition northward from Mexico to re-establish the Spanish missions in East Texas. Gathering a considerable force of about five hundred men and four thousand horses and other livestock, Aguayo reached San Antonio on April 4, 1721; on the same day a detachment under Diego Ramon occupied La
Bahía del Espíritu Santo. Aguayo, traveling by way of present New Braunfels, San Marcos, and Waco, arrived in the East Texas area, where he re-established six missions and built and garrisoned a presidio, which he named Nuestra Señora del Pilar de los Adefas. In the fall of 1721 the members of the expedition not remaining in East Texas returned to San Antonio. In June, 1722, Aguayo made a report to the king of Spain in which he recommended that four hundred families be brought from the Canary Islands, Galicia, or Havana to populate the province of Texas. By June of 1730 twenty-five families from the Canary Islands had reached Cuba, and ten families had arrived at Vera Cruz. Under the leadership of Juan Leal Goras, the group marched overland to the presidio of San Antonio de Bexar, arriving on March 9, 1731. This small group comprised the nucleus of the villa of San Fernando de Bexar. Several of the old families of San Antonio trace their descent from the Canary Island colonists.

THE FRENCH MAKE A RAID. As we have noted, Spain’s hold on Texas was very weak. This weakness became clear in 1719, when the French made a raid into the mission area in East Texas. The Spaniards were terrified, and the settlers, including the soldiers, ran for their lives. Fortunately, they had a place to go—San Antonio, which had just been established the year before. This proved to be nothing more than a raid, so most of the settlers were back in East Texas by 1721. In that year, Spain strength-
ened the mission force. In 1722 she established a presi-
dio at La Bahía (bá.ē'ā), now Goliad, and garrisoned
it with forty soldiers.

SAN ANTONIO MISSIONS. Spain reinforced
the settlements in East Texas in 1721, but the missions
were never very successful. Because of this, three of the
missions were moved to San Antonio in 1731. These
three were Concepción, San Juan Capistrano (sän
hwän kâ.pēs.trä'nō), and San Francisco de la Espada
(ä.s.pä'dä). There were two missions already there
—San Antonio de Valero and San José.

SPAIN TRIES EXPANSION. Spain seemed to
be more active now in trying to hold Texas. About the
middle of the eighteenth century she entered four new
areas, always for the same reasons: (1) to defend her
control; (2) to Christianize the Indians; (3) to
trade; and (4) to colonize. The new regions of
expansion were: the San Gabriel River region, the
San Saba area, the lower Trinity area, and the Gulf region.

Three missions were established on the south side of the San Gabriel, in what is now Milam Coun-
66
ty. The Indians seemed interested only in getting aid from the Spanish against the Apaches, and the missions did not prosper. They were abandoned by 1755. The results were no better in the San Saba area, where the fierce Apaches broke up efforts at settlement. The Spaniards' fear of the fast-growing power of the English in the Gulf of Mexico prompted the settlements in the Gulf Coast area, and fear of the French brought about the settlements along the lower Trinity. These were all abandoned later.

SPANISH CHANGES HER MIND. In the meantime, world affairs were seriously affecting the status of France and Spain. As a result of the French and Indian War, France lost all her possessions in America, and England gained control of Florida. This meant, then, that danger from the French no longer existed, and a new enemy, the English, was entrenched in Florida and the Gulf Coast.

Spain began to study her whole defense problem, sending the Marquis de Rubi (röö.bë) to make a tour of inspection and to report on Spanish defenses. He recommended that all forts and missions on the northern frontier be withdrawn. As a result, the missions around Nacogdoches were abandoned in 1773, and the five hundred or more settlers moved to San Antonio. Thus the frontier receded to San Antonio and La Bahia, or Goliad.

FOUNDING OF NACOGDOCHES. Many of these settlers loved East Texas as their home, and they wanted to go back. Some of them went back as far as
the Trinity in 1774 and made a settlement. Floods and Indian raids forced these settlers out of their Trinity homes. Then, under the leadership of Gil Ybarbo (he ë.bär'bô), they moved back to the site of the old Mission Guadalupe. Here in April, 1779, they established Nacogdoches in the area which they had abandoned six years before. This proved to be an important move because in 1800 Louisiana was ceded back to France. This left Spain again facing her arch enemy, the French. She needed a settlement here even more three years later, when a new power, the United States, bought Louisiana from France.

**Spain in Texas in 1800.** Spain tried settlements in many parts of Texas. At the end of the eighteenth century (1800), however, she had only three settlements which were worthy of note. They were San Antonio, La Bahía (Goliad), and Nacogdoches.

The Spanish settlements were of three types: the civil, the military, and the ecclesiastical. They were named the pueblo where the villagers lived, the presidio for the soldiers, and the mission, or church, with quarters for the priests.

**Life in the Pueblo.** The central feature of each settlement was the pueblo, or village. By gifts of trinkets and gaily colored cloth the Indians were persuaded to come and live in the village, but force was sometimes used to keep the Indians in the pueblo. Some early writers say also that force was often used to get the Indians into the village. One early visitor to San Antonio said he saw the Spaniards rope Indian
as they would wild mustangs. He wrote that, "As soon as a savage has been caught in the noose, he is bound hand and foot and carried to the residence of a missionary, where by threats, persuasion, severe fasting, and gentleness he would try to convert him." In the village or near it there were gardens, ranches, farms, and workshops — where Indians raised their food and practiced their art of weaving and making pottery. These things were done to make the converted Indians self-supporting.

Conditions were not the same at all the missions, but at La Concepción (San Antonio) the pueblo in 1762 was composed of two rows of stone houses and huts. The Indians lived in these houses. Each house was furnished with boilers, flat earthen pans, pots and other household utensils. Close by were fields, cultivated by the Indians under the direction of the priests. There was also a good water supply — a flowing
irrigation ditch with a stone dam. There was a ranch nearby, with dwellings for the families who looked after its stock. A missionary reported that in 1762 this ranch had 200 mares, 110 horses, 610 head of cattle, and 2,200 head of goats and sheep. Each mission had a granary. At Concepción the granary was a single large room. In this room there was space for the storage of about 80,000 pounds of corn and 50,000 pounds of beans with which to supply the pueblo.

LIFE IN THE FORT, OR PRESIDIO. Usually at each mission there was a fort, where the soldiers lived. These soldiers were necessary to protect the missionaries from Indian raids, to ward off possible French attacks, and to help to get runaway Indians back into the pueblo. The soldiers mostly loafed around the fort, and only occasionally were they called for duty. This idleness led them into much mischief. As a matter of fact, these soldiers were generally of a low character and had a bad influence on the Indians. One missionary said that only bad men and those who wished to avoid working would serve as soldiers at the presidios. The soldiers at San Antonio were so bad that they were put on the opposite side of the river to keep them away from the Indians. Some said that they were thieves. Fortunately, there were not many soldiers in Texas.

LIFE IN THE MISSIONS. Each morning the missionaries gathered their Indians together for prayer or mass before beginning the work of the day. They
told the Indians about the new religion and baptized some. They taught them all the useful arts and how to work. Unconverted Indians were taught separately from the others. When they seemed to desire it, they were baptized. The Indians were opposed to work of any kind, and they were not quick to embrace a new religion so different from their own. They had for hundreds of years worshipped the sun, the moon, the stars, the wind, and the rain. These were things they could see, hear, and feel, and which affected their lives every day. They could not give them up quickly.

**DIFFICULTIES OF THE MISSIONARIES.**

The tasks of the missionaries were very difficult. They represented both the state and the church. They were supposed to civilize and Christianize the savages and teach them how to work. Their tasks were doubly difficult because often neither could speak the language of the other. Quite often the Indians could not understand what the fathers were trying to teach them. Furthermore, the Indians were fickle — converted today, runaways tomorrow. Some tribes of Indians, like the Apaches and Comanches, did not want to go into the missions at all.

**EFFORTS MADE TO ATTRACT THE INDIANS.** The missionaries tried to make life interesting for the Indians, so that those who lived in the forests would be attracted to the missions. They would come in if they could see the advantages. For this purpose the fathers planned a great feast on every Sunday and also set aside certain other days for feasting.
The Indians liked these, but had to be in the missions to enjoy them. The priests also furnished the mission Indians with corn, beans, pumpkins, watermelons, melons, pepper, salt, and sugar. The fathers said that they must give each Indian his ration of food daily, for if they gave him a week’s supply at once, all of it would be gone in two days. The Indians loved sugar cane more than any other food the missionaries had. Therefore, sugar cane was always planted at the missions. They could get the Indians into the mission better with sugar cane than with anything else.

When the mission farms produced more than was needed, the fathers exchanged the products for things to be used in the missions. They were exchanged for cloth, flannels, hats, knives, tobacco, beads, hatchets, thread, needles, saddles, crowbars, pickaxes, earthen pans, metates (flat stones), and many other things. The fathers used these articles to pay those who cared for the mission, raised the crops, and tended the cattle. They also used them as gifts to the Indians to keep them happy.

THE WORK OF THE INDIAN. The Indian was slow in his work and very careless. He had to be watched, or he would quit his work before he had finished or, even worse, he would run away. One missionary said that it took four Indians to do the work of one Spaniard. There were many jobs for them to do, but they worked at them in their own way. They planted the fields, looked after the cattle, watered the crops, hoed the weeds, and gathered the grain. Some
worked as weavers, some as blacksmiths, some as carpenters, and others as bricklayers. They were instructed in all these tasks by the missionaries.

The work of the women and children was to spin with rough spindles and to comb cotton for the spindles. The missionaries said that the work required of the women was not heavy.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What caused the viceroy of New Spain to turn toward Texas in 1690?
2. Why were the Spanish so anxious to find Fort St. Louis?
3. What was the condition of the fort when it was found?
4. What were the various motives which led the Spaniards to found a mission among the Indians?
5. In what state of civilization were the Tejas Indians?
6. Why did the priests give up at San Francisco de los Tejas?
7. What were the results of this first East Texas settlement?
8. Which settlements did the French make in the last part of the seventeenth century? In the early part of the eighteenth?
9. What was Spain doing while France was making these settlements?
10. Which event prompted the Spanish to return to East Texas?
11. Which missions did Spain establish on her return to the east?
12. What purpose did the missions serve?
13. Tell of the founding of San Antonio.
14. Why did the Spanish leave the missions in 1719?
15. What attempts did Spain make to expand about 1750?
16. Why did Spain change her mind about the eastern missions?
17. What were the three parts of a Spanish settlement?
18. Why were the tasks of the missionaries so difficult? Give as many reasons as you can.
19. What was the daily routine in a mission?
20. What explanation can you give of why so few Indians accepted the Christian religion?
21. How did the Spaniards entice the Indians into the missions?
22. What kind of men were the soldiers at the presidios?
23. Did the soldiers help or hinder the missionaries?
24. What jobs were performed by the soldiers?
25. Why did Spain fail in Texas?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

consecrated  aggressive  reflected
ford        profuse       terrified
presidio    status        entrenched
archenemy   agonizing     granary

DO IT YOURSELF

1. There seems to be no record of exactly what the first mission in East Texas was like. Draw a picture of this mission as you think it might have been.
2. Write a story about life in the missions.
3. Draw a picture of Spanish soldiers on horseback in the act of lasooing Indians to take into the missions.
4. Imagine yourself a Spaniard at San Juan Bautista, when Saint Denis arrived there. Report this incident to your government, with recommendations as to what should be done.
5. Paint a signboard warning the French to stay out. Give your reasons.
6. Draw the three parts of a Spanish settlement, or list the three parts and describe each.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

If there is any doubt in your mind that the past actually lives in the present, this doubt will disappear if you will visit the missions in San Antonio and other parts of Texas today. Look upon them after nearly two hundred fifty years and think of the "blood, sweat, and tears" which went into the making of them. Think of the services they rendered as churches, as schools, as forts, and as dwelling places. Think, too, of the influence they have had upon our language, our customs, and our way of life.

Of the nearly fifty missions built in Texas, only eight remain standing. (The East Texas missions were all wooden structures, and nothing is left of them.) Of these eight missions the best preserved is La Purísima Concepción de Acuña at San Antonio, established in 1731. The most beautiful, however, is Mission San José y San Miguel de Aguayo, San Antonio, 1720. It has been described as the "Queen of the Missions." The most famous of the missions, of course, is San Antonio de Valero, or the Alamo. It is known as the "Cradle of Texas Liberty."

These missions live today not only in history, but in legend and tradition as well. The newspapers of San Antonio have, from time to time, printed many stories of ghosts appearing at the Alamo. One of the folk tales of Texas is of ghostly figures
guarding the Alamo. The legend is that General Andrade tried to destroy the walls of the Alamo, but his men were everywhere met by ghosts with flaming swords. Their progress was barred, and they were soon frightened away. When new relays of men were sent to pull down the walls, the ghosts again blocked the way. The Mexican soldiers came to fear the swords in ghostly hands more than they did their officers. These spirits spoke in hushed tones, which terrified the Mexicans. “Depart, touch not these walls! He who does shall meet a horrible fate. A horrible death shall be his lot.” Those who like to believe such unreal and fanciful stories tell of how the man who was responsible for these efforts to destroy the Alamo actually did suffer this agonizing death. He was entombed and burned alive. They say that the ghostly hands grasping the swords were those of Travis, Bowie, Bonham, and Crockett. So the Mission San Antonio de Valero or the Alamo, as well as all the missions, lives today in song, in story and legend, as well as in history.
Chapter IV

Anglo-Americans Visit Texas, 1800-1821

Events were happening fast in the English colonies east of the Mississippi in the later years of Spanish control in Texas. These colonies gained their independence from England and became the United
States of America. In 1803 France, after getting the Louisiana Territory back from Spain, sold it to the United States.

**THE UNITED STATES BECOMES SPAIN’S NEIGHBOR.** The United States thus became Spain’s next-door neighbor. Some Americans believed Texas was a part of Louisiana because of La Salle’s settlement, but by discovery, exploration, and settlement Spain had the better claim.

The claim of Spain was recognized, but a dispute arose over the boundary. Spain said her boundaries were at the Arroyo Hondo (är.rō’yō ön’dō). The United States claimed the Sabine, which was west of that stream. In 1806 the United States and Spain agreed that this small area in dispute would be the neutral ground, where neither power could extend its control. However, this created a difficult situation. Bad and lawless men occupied the area and created trouble for both countries.

Spain was a little worried about having the United States as a neighbor because the U. S. was active and aggressive. She became more worried and excited when the Anglo-Americans formed expeditions to move into Texas.

**PHILIP NOLAN.** The first of these expeditions was led by Philip Nolan. He was an American adventurer, who had been engaged in illegal trade in Texas for several years, even as far back as 1797. The new governor of Louisiana became suspicious of Nolan’s
purposes. He accused him of entering Texas not to capture horses as he claimed, but to make maps of the country and to get the Indians aroused against Spain. The governor, therefore, ordered Nolan's arrest if he should enter Texas again.

NOLAN'S LAST TRIP TO TEXAS. In spite of these orders, Nolan decided to make another trip to Texas. With twenty-one men he set out from Natchez, Mississippi, in October, 1800. They pushed into Texas as far as Waco, where they caught about three hundred horses. Here in March, 1801, they were attacked by a force of one hundred Spaniards sent out from Nacogdoches. Nolan was soon killed, and Peter Ellis Bean took command. After about three hours of fighting, the little band surrendered. They were taken to Nacogdoches, where they were imprisoned in the Old Stone Fort. Later they were taken to Mexico as prisoners.

BEAN LIVES TO TELL THE STORY. Peter Ellis Bean alone appeared again in history to tell the story. He told of Nolan's death as follows:
"They surrounded our Camp about one o'clock in the morning, on the 22nd of March, 1801. They took the five Spaniards and one American that were guarding our horses, leaving but twelve of us, including Caesar (Caesar was a Negro boy). We were all alarmed by the tramping of their horses; and, as day broke, without speaking a word, they commenced their fire. After about ten minutes our gallant leader, Nolan, was slain by a musket ball which hit him in the head."

**FIRST OFFICIAL DICE GAME IN TEXAS.**
The Spaniards had a law which called for the death penalty for any armed foreigner caught in Texas. The king of Spain never acted in a hurry, and Bean and his men were in the hands of their captors for six years before he decided on a penalty. When the decision reached New Spain, it was found that one out of every five should die. There were only nine left, and it was determined that only one should die. But which one? The prisoners agreed to throw dice, and the one who threw the lowest number would be killed. Each took his turn and threw the dice on a drumhead. Ephraim Blackburn was the unlucky one. He threw a three and a one, a total of four. Blackburn was a Quaker, but he was baptized into the Catholic faith at the last moment. One other, Peter Ellis Bean, threw a four and a one for a total of five. Most of the others threw from seven to eleven.

**THE MEXICANS WISH TO BE FREE.**
Except for Aaron Burr's trip into the West in 1806, the
frontier seemed to be quiet. In 1810, however, reports of internal troubles in Mexico reached the United States and set the stage for further incidents. For many years the people of New Spain had suffered numerous abuses at the hands of some sixty Spanish viceroys. An explosion was certainly ready to take place if the right leader should appear. He did appear in the person of Father Hidalgo, a poor country priest. Under his leadership the banner of revolution was raised and was very successful at first. However, he was finally defeated in battle in January, 1811, and was captured and shot.

THE HIDALGO REVOLUTION REACHES TEXAS. The Hidalgo movement spread to Texas for a brief time. In June of 1813, under the leadership of Juan Bautista de las Casas (hwän bän.tä's'tä dä läs kâ'säs), a republican government was set up at San Antonio. This government did not last long, however, for the Spanish soldiers overthrew it. Those engaged in this revolt in Texas fled to neutral ground and waited for a leader.

THE MAGEE-GUTIÉRREZ EXPEDITION. They had not long to wait, as their leaders soon ap-
peared in the persons of Augustus Magee, a lieutenant in the United States Army, and Bernardo Gutiérrez (bár.när’dō gōō.tē.ér’rez), a follower of Hidalgo. Gutiérrez had been in the United States seeking aid for Hidalgo.

These men organized what was called the “Republican Army of the North.” (They were supposed to be fighting for a republic.) This army was composed of men from the neutral ground, recruits from among the Indians, some Mexicans, and a large number of adventurers from the United States. They organized with Gutiérrez as general and Magee as colonel. Colonel Samuel Kemper was made major.

**THE ROUTE OF THE EXPEDITION — NACOGDOCHES, SPANISH BLUFF, GOLIAD.**

The force first drove the Spanish from their posts in East Texas and captured Nacogdoches. By the time they reached the Trinity they had more than eight hundred men and easily took possession of Spanish Bluff on that stream. From here they proceeded toward the town of Goliad. In the meantime, Salcedo (sä́l.sä’dō), the governor of Texas, led Spanish troops to Goliad to protect it from the intruders. The invaders captured Goliad, while Salcedo’s troops were guarding another road which was expected to be the one the Americans would travel. Salcedo then laid siege to Goliad for four months, but, failing to take the town, he returned to San Antonio.

Magee died while he was at Goliad. Some say he
committed suicide. Kemper was chosen to take Magee's place as active commander, and in March, 1813, the entire force marched to San Antonio. Salcedo surrendered to them, and it seemed that the expedition was a success.

**TROUBLES OF THE EXPEDITION.** The leaders raised a green flag to take the place of the Spanish flag. A revolutionary government was organized with Gutiérrez as generalissimo or president. The republic did not last long. What seemed a success was soon turned into defeat by unwise action. First, a Gutiérrez lieutenant, Captain Delgado, was ordered to escort Salcedo and his officials to New Orleans, but instead the prisoners were taken a little distance outside of San Antonio and mercilessly murdered. As a result of this, many of the Americans left the army in
disgust. This deprived the expedition of some of its best men, including Kemper. It was later learned that Gutiérrez ordered the massacre. Those in charge fell to quarreling among themselves. They deposed Gutiérrez, but dissension did not end with the deposal of their commander. This quarreling, bickering army was later led into a trap near Medina Lake and soundly beaten. So complete was the Spanish victory that only ninety-three Americans escaped.

Thus, by August 18, 1813, the "Republican Army of the North" was defeated, and this second effort at establishing a republic was at an end. At one time it appeared that Texas had been freed from Spanish rule, but internal troubles kept it from being so.

**TREATY OF 1819.** When the United States bought the Louisiana Territory from France in 1803, the western boundary was not established. Napoleon would not say what the boundary was. Many thought it included Texas; others did not. At any rate, this purchase made Spain and the United States neighbors again, and the matter of fixing the boundary would be a matter for Spain to consider, not France. After the purchase, the United States diplomats went to work and made a treaty with Spain, known as the Treaty of 1819. This treaty fixed the western boundary of the United States at the Sabine River.

As you know, this left Texas out of the purchase. The people of East Texas, Louisiana, and Mississippi did not like this at all. They were con-
vinced that Texas, at least as far as the Neches, belonged to the United States. The East Texans claimed that France owned it because of La Salle's settlement at Fort St. Louis. The United States had bought all of the French property west of the Mississippi River in 1803. Therefore, they reasoned that the United States had bought Texas also, since it was a part of the French property.

**THE LONG EXPEDITION.** This treaty by which Spain made good her claim to Texas was very unpopular. Many mass meetings were held by people in the United States to complain about it. At one of these meetings held at Natchez, Mississippi, the citizens decided to organize an expedition into Texas and either reclaim it for the United States or establish an independent republic there. Dr. James Long was chosen to lead the expedition. There were only seventy-five men at first, but the number had increased to about three hundred by the time the expedition reached Nacogdoches.

**TEXAS DECLARED A FREE AND INDEPENDENT REPUBLIC.** Long and his men captured Nacogdoches easily and then met in the Old Stone Fort and formed a temporary government. On June 23, 1819, they declared Texas to be a free and independent republic, with Dr. Long as the first president. The government was to be directed by an elected council.

While at Nacogdoches, Horatio Bigelow, one of the councilmen, established a printing office. He also pub-
lished the first newspaper that was printed in Texas.

**LONG ESTABLISHES TRADING POSTS.** Long realized that his foothold in Texas was weak. He tried to strengthen his position by establishing trading posts along the Brazos and Trinity rivers. He constructed one of these very near where Washington-on-the-Brazos was later founded. When Long had done this, he determined upon an expedition against Mexico. To obtain aid for the expedition, he went to Galveston to see the pirate, Jean Lafitte (zhān lāˈfēt'). Lafitte was polite to Dr. Long but very firm in his refusal to give aid. He told Dr. Long that a much stronger force was needed to take Texas from Spain.

**LONG'S FORCE DRIVEN OUT.** While Long was away at Galveston, the Spanish authorities at San Antonio sent an armed force against Nacogdoches and drove his little band across the Sabine. Some of the Americans were killed. Long would not give up, and in 1821 he again entered Texas and captured Goliad from the Spaniards. His success was brief. A larger Spanish force defeated his men, captured Long, and sent him to Mexico City as a prisoner. He was released in 1821 but was later killed by a Mexican soldier. Thus this expedition ended in defeat and tragedy, and the republic ended in complete failure.

"**THE MOTHER OF TEXAS.**" Mrs. James Long, one of the first American women who came to Texas, played a part in this tragic episode. On his second expedition Long was accompanied by his wife, Jane, and their small daughter. Long established a
camp at Point Bolivar (böl'ë-vär) across the bay from Galveston Island; and Mrs. Long, with a few soldiers, was left there when Long moved against Goliad. When he departed he had told her, "I will return to you, and never doubt."

As time went on and he did not return, the soldiers left her, their daughter, and a Negro girl all alone. At intervals Jane fired the camp's cannon in an attempt to keep the dreaded Karankawas from knowing that the troops were gone. There alone by the sea she waited. There were times when starvation seemed near. She was a true pioneer woman of courage, and from these words attributed to her we may judge "The Mother of Texas":

"I will not go. I promised my husband that I would be here when he returned, and I will be here, unless he sends me word to flee or until I hear of his death." It was at this little fort on the bleak and sandy beaches at Point Bolivar that a child was born to the Longs.

When the report of her husband's death reached her, she went to Brazoria in the company of some colonists who were on their way to Austin's colony. Dr. Long had lost his life in an effort to establish an independent republic in Texas, but Jane lived to see her husband's dream come true. Because of her loyalty to Texas she has been called "The Mother of Texas."

**TEXAS GETS A BAD NAME.** You will remember that there was a revolt in Mexico in 1810, led by
Father Hidalgo. In the time from 1810 to 1821 the war of independence smoldered in Mexico, although fighting was not always in progress. The Spaniards, therefore, were very busy putting down Mexican rebels and driving out American invaders. During this period a band of desperate men seized Galveston Island and made it headquarters for the evil business of piracy. They claimed to be allies of Mexico and enemies of Spain, but actually they were just outlaws, pirates, and slave traders. They lived by getting African Negroes in Cuba and selling them in the United States, and by capturing rich vessels on the seas. Luis Aury (loʊ.ər) was the first pirate leader, but he was followed after one year by Jean Lafitte. This was in 1817.

The pirates professed loyalty to Mexico in her efforts to gain her independence from Spain, but they gave her no help. They had no important connection with the history of Texas and did nothing for it except give it a bad name.

WHY LAFITTE BECAME A PIRATE. It has been puzzling to everyone as to why Lafitte became a pirate. According to Lafitte, he had made a fortune as a merchant in the West Indies. After his marriage he decided to take his wife to Europe to live. He sold all his property and loaded all his wealth aboard a ship which he had bought. Lafitte himself told the following story of what happened then:

"Well, sir, when the vessel that I was on had been a week at sea we were overhauled by a Spanish man.
of war. The Spaniards captured us. They took everything—goods, specie, even my wife’s jewels. They set us on shore on a barren sand key, with just provisions enough to keep us alive a few days. An American schooner took us off, and landed us in New Orleans. I did not care what became of me. I was a beggar. My wife took the fever from exposure and hardship, and died in three days after my arrival. I met some daring fellows who were as poor as I was. We bought a schooner, carried on a war against Spain. So long as I live I am at war with Spain, but
no other nation. I am at peace with the world, except Spain. Although they call me a pirate, I am not guilty of attacking any vessel of the English or French. I showed you the place where my own people have been punished for plundering American property."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What new neighbor did Spain get in 1803?
2. What was the neutral ground? How did it come into existence?
3. Who was Philip Nolan? Ellis Peter Bean?
4. What happened to Nolan's men?
5. Why did Father Hidalgo start a revolution in Mexico?
6. How did Gutiérrez and Magee come to lead an expedition into Texas?
7. Who was Salcedo? What happened to him?
8. How did the Magee-Gutiérrez expedition gain success and then lose it?
9. What was the Treaty of 1819? Why was it important?
10. Why did James Long lead an expedition into Texas? Explain this as fully as you can.
11. Do you think Texas should have been a part of the Louisiana Purchase? Why?
12. Who was known as the "Mother of Texas"?
13. Were the pirates on the Gulf of any help to Texas?
14. Why did Lafitte become a pirate?
15. Do you think the three expeditions described in Chapter IV had historical importance? Why?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

captor
dissension
neutral
episode
specie
republic
90

tragedy
smolder
deposai
DO IT YOURSELF
1. If you like to draw, make drawings of Lafitte's home on Galveston Island, Mrs. Long firing the cannon, or the dice game.
2. Write a sketch about one of the men you have studied. Use The Handbook of Texas for information.
3. Imagine that you are Dr. Long asking Lafitte for help. Broadcast your appeal by radio. Explain carefully what your plans are and why you need his help.
4. If you had been Gutiérrez asking the United States for aid in the Mexican revolt against Spain, what arguments would you have used? Remember that the Americans had already revolted and won their independence from England.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE
Allen, W., and Allen, C. W., Pioneering in Texas. The story of Jane Long.
Dobie, J. Frank, The Flavor of Texas, Chapter II.
Moore, Effie M., Alone by the Sea. This is a tremendously interesting story of Mrs. Jane Long, “The Mother of Texas.”
Wortham, L. J., A History of Texas, 1, 36-49.

Today when the call to arms is heard, the basis of the call is the same as it was in early Texas. The call is always for help
in gaining freedom or liberty. The ringing words of Patrick Henry, “Give me liberty or give me death,” are little different from those of Bernardo Gutiérrez nearly one hundred fifty years ago. When Magee and Gutiérrez determined to make the expedition to Texas, Gutiérrez issued a “strike for liberty” appeal for help. His call to friends of liberty is given below. The tyrants mentioned in his appeals were, of course, the rulers of Spain.

“Chiefs, Soldiers, and Citizens: It has been more than a year since I set out from my country (he had gone to the United States to get help for the Hidalgo revolution). During this time I have worked hard for our good. I had to overcome many difficulties, but I made friends, and found ways for helping us throw off the barbarous and insulting yoke which has oppressed us. Rise all together, soldiers and citizens, and unite in the holy cause of our independence, for on it depends the happiness of our country. Many of our friends have died unjustly under the sword of these tyrants. Their blood from the tomb cries to us for vengeance. Their spirits are before the throne of God praying for our success. . . .

“Fellow patriots, your liberty is the object of my efforts. Your rights must be protected and our holy religion must be respected. Awake, awake, rise against the tyrants who try to hold dominion over your lives! The rightful power is in your hands. Use it and you will soon have liberty!”
WILDERNESS TO STATEHOOD
Buckskin and Log Cabin
In the years of the War of 1812 and immediately afterward, the buckskin-clad Anglo-Americans, pushing ever westward, reached the Sabine River. The typical American wilderness pioneer was a sturdy, self-sufficient, rugged individualist with a firm faith in democracy. Beyond the Sabine the Americans from Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and other older areas found the haciendas, mission settlements, and presidios of the Spanish-American blocking their march toward the sunset regions of the Pacific. The Spanish barrier had to be overcome.

The story is as simple as that. In the chapters that follow you will read of Moses and Stephen F. Austin, of the other early American settlers in Texas, of the Texas Revolution and the Republic of Texas, and of annexation to the United States. You should remember that all of these events were closely related to each other, and the final result was inevitable. When the diplomats finished writing the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the Spanish-American Southwest belonged to the United States. To a large extent, Texas was the gateway to the Pacific Ocean and other frontiers.
Approximately three hundred years had passed since Pineda explored the coast of Texas. One hundred thirty years had passed since the strange sounds of the first mission bell were heard in the trackless wastes.
of East Texas. In those years the kindly fathers, the Spanish soldiers, the French traders, and the American adventurers had come and gone. The Spanish had been spurred to action first by the fear of the French and then by fear of the Americans. Their efforts, however, resulted in only three settlements worthy of note—Nacogdoches, La Bahía, and San Antonio. In all of Texas in 1820 there were, besides the Indians, scarcely four thousand people.

**WHY SPAIN FAILED.** Spain had failed to occupy the lands she claimed. Some reasons are given here, but you may think of others:

1. The Indians and the priests could not understand each other.
2. The Indians were fickle. They, as they wished, accepted or rejected the religion.
3. The Spaniards were not good colonizers.
4. Spain extended her frontiers too rapidly and too far.
5. Spain was weak.
6. Spain had more trouble at home than she could handle. She had little time for Texas.

**AN EIGHT-HUNDRED-MILE HORSEBACK RIDE.** Because of the failure of Spain, some of the people of the United States began to look with longing eyes toward Texas. Moses Austin was one of these. He was born in 1761, and at the age of twenty-two he joined his brother in the merchandising busi-
ness in Philadelphia. Their business expanded, and he became the head of a new branch at Richmond, Virginia. In 1791 he moved to Wythe County, Virginia, and engaged in the lead-mining business. He moved to Missouri to a lead-mining area in 1798. The War of 1812, which cut off the outlet to the eastern markets, coupled with the panic of 1819, ruined him financially. In 1820 he was broke and looking for a way to regain the fortune he had lost. He conceived the idea of colonizing Texas with Americans. To carry out this plan, he rode horseback eight hundred miles to San Antonio in order to confer with the governor of Coahuila and Texas. He arrived there in December, 1820. He later said that, aside from fifty dollars in cash, he had with him one horse, one mule, and one slave.

RECEPTION BY THE GOVERNOR. Antonio Martínez (mär.tě'nás) was then governor of Texas. He was disturbed and excited to have Austin appear suddenly without warning. Furthermore, Austin was an American, and all Americans were looked upon with suspicion since the expeditions of Nolan, Magee, and Long. Therefore, Martínez refused to consider Austin's plan and ordered him to leave town and the province at once. With a heavy heart Austin prepared to leave. Then something happened which changed the whole history of Texas and, to some degree, the history of the United States. He met an old friend, the Baron de Bastrop, who luckily had some influence with the governor. The baron re-
quested it, and Austin was granted a second interview with the governor.

**DEATH OF MOSES AUSTIN.** Martínez was much friendlier in the second interview. As a matter of fact, Bastrop had convinced him that Austin’s plan was good, and he agreed to submit it to the proper authorities. Austin, convinced that his request would be granted, decided not to wait for the decision and in January, 1821, set out for home. The long journey proved too much for him, and he died soon after his return to Missouri. Before his death, however, he received the news that his request had been granted. His last words, it is said, were a request that his son, Stephen Fuller Austin, carry on the enterprise.

**STEPHEN F. AUSTIN AUTHORIZED TO ESTABLISH A COLONY.** Stephen Fuller Austin, the son of Moses Austin, was born at the lead mines in southwestern Virginia on November 3, 1793. In 1798 the young man accompanied his family on its journey to southeastern Missouri; it was at the village of Potosí, in present Washington County, Missouri, that Stephen Austin spent his childhood. After attending school in Connecticut and at Transylvania University, Lexington, Kentucky, Stephen Austin returned to Missouri in 1810 and went to work in his father’s store; he also helped the elder Austin in the lead-mining business. The panic of 1819 had ruined the family fortune, so Stephen looked for new opportunities in the Territory of Arkansas and New Orleans,
The Spanish Governor's Palace

where he began to study law. After showing no interest in his father's Texas enterprise, Stephen decided to meet his father at Natchitoches. It was there that Stephen Austin learned that his father had died in June of 1821. Sadly he pressed on to San Antonio, where he was received kindly by Governor Martínez.

The governor confirmed Moses Austin's grant and authorized his son to select a location for his colony. The governor also requested Austin to take charge of the government of his colony and to submit
a plan for the distribution of lands to prospective colonists. His plan was to give six hundred forty acres of land to each man, whether married or single; three hundred twenty acres for the wife; one hundred sixty acres for each child; and eighty acres for each slave. Each settler was to pay twelve and one-half cents per acre, and Austin would survey the lands and furnish a title. Austin was required to assume the responsibility for surveying and getting titles for the settlers. He acted as governor, judge, and military chief of his colony.

AUSTIN ESTABLISHES A COLONY. Austin decided to locate his colony mainly between the Colorado and Brazos (brä'sōs) rivers below the Old San Antonio Road. He then proceeded to New Orleans and advertised for settlers. In November, 1821, Austin left New Orleans with his first colonists. He arrived at the Brazos, and on January 1, 1822, camped on a creek in what is now Washington County. He named the stream New Year's Creek. The Americans at last had a foothold in Texas. They were here to stay!

EARLY DIFFICULTIES OF THE COLONY. The difficulties these colonists experienced would have discouraged a less hardy or courageous people. Austin had arranged for supplies, including seed for spring planting, to be shipped by the schooner Lively. Instead of landing at the mouth of the Colorado as planned, it dropped anchor at the mouth of the Brazos. Austin waited for nearly three months,
and, finally, in desperation he went to San Antonio to report to the governor about his colony and to get seed corn. There he received really bad news. Mexico had finally succeeded in overthrowing Spanish control and had become an independent nation. This meant that the government which granted his contract was destroyed and arrangements with the new Mexican government would have to be made. In short, Austin had to go to Mexico City for a new contract.

**AUSTIN GOES TO MEXICO.** When duty pointed the way, Austin seemed never to hesitate. The trip was one thousand miles in a strange land, but he left Josiah H. Bell in charge of his little colony and set out immediately. He reached Mexico City on April 29, 1822, and found the government in a disturbed condition, as it nearly always was.

**AMERICANS ISSUED INVITATION BY MEXICO.** Austin learned at once that Governor Martinez had no authority to make the arrangements with him and that a colonization law would be necessary. As soon as the government quieted down enough, a
law was passed. It was called the Imperial Coloniza-
tion Law. It was referred to as imperial because a man
by the name of Iturbide (ĭ.tūr′bīd′) had made him-
self emperor of Mexico. These were the provisions
of this Imperial Law of 1823:

1. One principal town must be established in each
   colony.
2. The empresario (ĕm.prā.sā′rē.ŏ) was to receive
   approximately 75,000 acres of land for each 200
   families introduced.
3. The empresario must cultivate his lands with
   in twelve years.
4. The empresario must sell two-thirds of his
   lands in twenty years.
5. The colonists must settle the lands within two
   years.
6. The sale or purchase of slaves was forbidden.
7. All taxes, duties, and duties were abolished for
   six years.
8. All children born of slave parents were to be
   free at the age of fourteen.
9. The colonists were required to be Roman
   Catholics.
10. The colonists must come from Louisiana.

The provisions of this law were substantially
the same as all subsequent colonization laws of Mex-
ico under which Texas was settled. Austin got his
contract under this law, but another delay arose. Yes,
another revolution occurred!
TEXAS DURING AUSTIN'S ABSENCE. An unhappy situation existed in the colony while Austin was away. The colonists were disheartened because they had few provisions and little seed for planting. The unfriendly Indians made frequent raids and death in their path. There were a few times when some of the colonists were forced to live on the wild mustangs that roamed the prairies. What happened to the colonists while Austin was in Mexico is best told by Austin himself. He wrote,

"On my arrival in [return to] the colony, which I had commenced nearly two years before, I found that most of the colonists, discouraged by my long absence and the uncertainty in which they had been for such a length of time, had returned to the United States, and that the few who remained, hard pressed and harrassed on every side by hostile Indians, and threatened with the horrors of famine, in consequence of the drouth, were on the eve of breaking up and leaving the province. Encouraged, however, by my return, we persevered through the complicated and
appalling difficulties which surrounded us, until the new crops yielded us bread."

SAN FELIPE DE AUSTIN ESTABLISHED.
Upon Austin's return, he was ordered by the governor to establish a principal town in his colony as provided by law. On July 23, 1823, the town of San Felipe de Austin was laid off on the Brazos River in what is now Austin County. This was the political center of Texas until 1836. Austin organized a government, appointed alcaldes (älkäl'däs), published a code of laws, and organized a militia to protect the colonists from the Indians. He opened a land office, and his colony filled up rapidly. These first colonists
were known as the "Original Three Hundred" or the "Old Three Hundred."

NEW COLONIZATION LAWS. In 1824 the Mexican Congress passed a federal colonization law. This law provided that each state would pass its own colonization law, subject to the restrictions set up in the federal act. The regulations mainly were these:

1. Preference must be given to Mexicans.
2. No one could have more than eleven leagues of land.
3. Land would be granted only to actual settlers.
4. The federal government could stop immigration if it desired to do so.
5. No colony could be established closer than twenty-five miles of the coast nor closer than fifty miles of the border of a foreign country without special permission. These were known as the coast and border reserves. This restriction was intended to keep a safe distance between the colonists and the United States.

Following the passage of this law in 1824, the state of Coahuila and Texas passed its own colonization law. This law, dated 1825, was somewhat less generous than the law of 1823, but for the most part was liberal. Austin's later contracts and those of other empresarios were granted under this law.

AUSTIN ARRANGES FOUR MORE CONTRACTS. Austin made four other contracts, five in
all. On June 4, 1825, Austin received permission to bring in and settle five hundred additional families on the vacant lands of his first contract. A contract for one hundred families was granted him two years later. This time the families were to be settled east
of the Colorado and north of the Old San Antonio Road. The Mexican government showed confidence in Austin by allowing him the privilege of settling three hundred families in the ten league or twenty-five mile coast reserve. His fifth contract called for the introduction of eight hundred families, but the contract was never fulfilled.

**OTHER EMPRESARIOS.** The generous amount of land given to empresarios for colonizing seemed fabulous and attracted many men. These men were called empresarios, or contractors. Some of the other main contractors should be mentioned here. Green DeWitt agreed to settle three hundred families between the Lavaca (lā.vā'kā) and Guadalupe rivers, with Gonzales as the principal town. Martín de León contracted to settle one hundred fifty Mexican families in the present counties of Lavaca and Victoria. An Irish colony was established between the San Antonio and Nueces rivers by two Irishmen, McMullen and McGloin; San Patricio (săn pā.trē'sē.ō) was the principal town. Haden Edwards received a contract to settle eight hundred families in East Texas, but his contract was soon canceled by the government. More details of this will be given later. Benjamin R. Milam, Lorenzo de Zavala (lō.rän'sō dā sā.vā'lä), David G. Burnet, and many others made contracts but accomplished little.
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Can you show how little Spain accomplished in Texas in three hundred years?
2. Tell of Moses Austin's trip to San Antonio.
3. Why did Governor Martínez refuse to talk to Austin?
4. Tell of Stephen F. Austin's plan for giving lands to the colonists.
5. Where did Austin locate his first colony? Why?
6. What were some of the early difficulties of Austin's colony?
7. Why did Austin go to Mexico in 1822?
8. What were the provisions of the Imperial Colonization Law?
9. Who was Iturbide?
10. What happened in Texas while Austin was in Mexico?
11. How were the later colonization laws different from the first?
12. What other contracts were given to Austin?
13. Name a few other empresarios. Where did they settle?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
persevered  appalling  imperial
enterprise  viceroy  frugal
harassed  hostile  empresario

Replica of S. F. Austin's Home at San Felipe de Austin
DO IT YOURSELF

1. Draw a map showing the location of the principal colonies.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Bolton, H. E., and Barker, E. C., With the Makers of Texas. Much about how the colonists lived.
Daftan, Katie, Texas Heroes.
Littlejohn, E. G., Texas History Stories.
Smithwick, Noah, The Evolution of a State. Stories of early Texas by one who belonged to "The Old Three Hundred."

You believe, almost certainly, that Stephen F. Austin and the other empresarios performed a very important service. Do their achievements live today, or do they belong entirely to the past, gone and forgotten? A quick answer comes to the student who views their work. They established or were responsible for the
establishment of such Texas towns as: San Felipe, San Augustine, Harrisburg, Matagorda, Liberty, Gonzales, Washington, Victoria, San Patricio, Goliad, Bastrop, Jasper, Jackson, Jefferson, and many others. A trip to almost any one of these towns today will reveal that the work of Austin and the empresarios does indeed live today. They not only made the settlements which exist at the present time, but they laid a sure and certain foundation for all the freedoms enjoyed by Texans, including freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of religion.

A visit to Gonzales will well illustrate how permanently the early Texans built. The people of Gonzales, or any other of the towns, will receive you with the same spirit of hospitality as that shown by the early settlers. They will tell you with considerable pride about the “Come and Take It” cannon that the Texans fired at the Mexicans on that memorable second day of October, 1835. Most likely they will also tell you about the eighteen men (“The Old Eighteen”) who held the Mexicans
back until help could arrive. They will tell you with under-
standable pride of the thirty-two men from Gonzales ("The
Thirty-Two Immortals") who joined Travis at the Alamo. They
may wish to point out to you the marker which indicates the
spot on the Guadalupe River where the first shot of the Texas
Revolution was fired, which gave Gonzales the claim to being
"The Lexington of Texas."

If you have the time, they will most surely take you out
some twelve miles southeast of Gonzales to show you the Sam
Houston Oak, or the Runaway Speech Oak. Houston stood
under the spreading branches of this tree and told the colonists
Santa Anna’s army was advancing and advised them to flee for
their lives. It is not likely that they will forget to show you
the Old Eggleston House, one of the oldest houses in Texas. It
is a double log cabin with an unenclosed hall running between
the two rooms. This hall has been called a dog run. This house
was built in 1840, was once used as a hotel for the comfort of
travelers, and is now restored in the Gonzales Park for all to see.

Yes, they will tell of those things, but they will also turn
away from the past to the present and point out to you the
different churches, where people can worship as they please. With
some pride they will point out many fine schools, where their
children can be educated for the future. Your friends will also
tell you of their courts, where justice is administered and where
everyone may have a trial by jury. They will not neglect to men-
tion the fact that Gonzales is the hub of a great poultry-raising
area, of agriculture, of ranching, and of industry. They will
show you their hospitals, and how the town of 1825 has pro-
gressed from the double log-cabin era to one of fine masonry
buildings, completely modern and air-conditioned. If they are
thoughtful, they will remember to say that the early Texans laid
the foundation for all these things.
Chapter VI

Events Leading to Revolution

In the earliest years the Texans did not come into close contact with the Mexicans, and things went along smoothly. This was because the Mexican government did not pay much attention to what was happening in Texas. Trouble soon appeared, however, when Mexico decided to rule Texas more closely.
BASIC CAUSE OF DISCONTENT. The basic cause of this trouble was the fact that the Mexicans and the colonists never really understood each other. You can see easily why this was true. They could not communicate with each other very well because neither understood the language of the other. Then, too, they had different religions and different ideas about almost everything, including ideas of government. For instance, the Americans had always had trial by jury, and they thought it very important. The Mexicans did not really understand what trial by jury meant. So it was with everything else, and the two peoples were not drawn to each other. The result was that the Americans, after coming to Texas, continued to look toward the United States rather than to Mexico. They traded with the United States, sent their children there to school, and kept constant contact with their friends in the United States. Many incidents and circumstances served to emphasize these differences and to create trouble. Let us look at some of them.

MEXICANS ARE SUSPICIOUS OF AMERICANS. The Mexicans were not stupid, and they soon saw how loyal the American in Texas was to his own country and how indifferent he was to his new or adopted country. They began to wonder if these people might not someday try to get Texas from them and make it a part of the United States. Naturally, in this frame of mind the Mexicans watched every move the Texans made and frequently misunderstood their actions. They began to
look for things to prove their suspicions correct.

**UNITED STATES TRIES TO BUY TEXAS.** Among the things which aroused the Mexican suspicion were the various efforts of the United States to buy Texas. As early as 1825 the purchase was attempted. In 1827 the United States offered one million dollars for the territory extending to the Rio Grande. At another time an offer of four million dollars was made for a boundary that would be drawn midway between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, or a reasonable sum for the Lavaca, the Colorado, or the Brazos as a boundary. This excited the fears of the Mexicans, because they recalled that many people in the States had contended that Texas actually belonged to the United States as a part of the Louisiana Purchase in 1803. The Mexicans were afraid that if the United States did not purchase Texas she might try to get it some other way.

**FREDONIAN REBELLION.** The Fredonian Rebellion created more fear in the minds of the Mexicans. This is how it happened. In 1825 Haden Edwards got a contract granting him the right to settle eight hundred families in the vicinity of Nacogdoches. There were already a good many Americans there, and these settlers feared Edwards as an intruder. Edwards did not use good judgment. He got into trouble by threatening to take the titles away from the old settlers unless they could prove their titles. This was a mistake, for Edwards had been told
not to disturb any titles then existing in his grant.

It proved to be his undoing. Some of the settlers complained about Edwards to the political chief in San Antonio. He took the part of the colonists and canceled Edwards' contract. This was ruinous for Edwards, and on December 16, 1826, he declared Texas independent of Mexico and called it the Republic of Fredonia.

EXIT HADEN EDWARDS. Haden Edwards and his brother tried to get help from the Indians and also from Austin's colonists. They failed in both cases, but in certain letters which they sent out as appeals for help they showed what they thought about the Mexican government. They said many harsh things and did harm to the relations between the two peoples. One of these appeals addressed to the Texas colonists ran in part as follows: "You have been much more fortunate than we have been, in being permitted to enjoy the benefits of self-government, without the continual intrusion of tyrannical
monsters." These monsters referred to were the Mexican rulers. This appeal went on to say that every free man when he entered the Mexican Republic became a slave. Such harsh statements, of course, helped to create an unkindly feeling toward the Texans on the part of the Mexicans. The whole affair was a most unhappy one.

These appeals for help seemed to have little effect on the settlers. When Mexican troops from San Antonio moved toward Nacogdoches to put down the Edwards' revolt, about one hundred of Austin's colonists went with them. The rebellion failed to attract many followers; and when the Mexican troops arrived in the area of Nacogdoches, the Edwards brothers fled to the United States. Thus, about six weeks after the Republic of Fredonia was set up, it was a thing of the past.
REBELLION INCREASES MEXICAN DIS-TRUST. This rebellion set the Mexicans to thinking seriously about the situation. Was this rebellion not proof enough of the purpose of the Americans or Texans? To the Mexicans it was. Why had Austin's colonists refused to take part? Well, the Mexicans had an answer for that, too. They said that the colonists would have joined the movement, but they thought the time was not yet ripe. You see, they trusted the Texans less now than before.

Some things about this affair also disturbed the Texans. They could not have much faith in a government which was itself in continual revolution, nor could they respect a government which would annul a contract it had made and thus ruin an individual without a hearing. Edwards was not given a hearing. True, the governor told him he could have a trial but that he must first get out of Texas. In other words, punishment must precede the trial. What do you think of this? Edwards may have been wrong in his attitude, but a trial or hearing should have preceded the canceling of his contract. Do you agree?

GUERRERO'S PROCLAMATION, SEPTEMBER, 1829. After the East Texas rebellion the Mexican officials became interested in discouraging Americans from coming to Texas. They began to look about to find a way. First they sent some troops to be stationed at Nacogdoches, no doubt to watch the Texans. They then hit upon what they thought was a clever scheme. At this time there were no field hands
available in Texas, and plantations had to be worked by slaves. It seemed likely that if the slaves then in Texas should be set free and others not allowed to come in, many Americans would not come to Texas. Guerrero (gér.rērō), the president of Mexico, thought the plan would work. Therefore, on September 15, 1829, he issued a statement, which had the same effect as a law, freeing all the slaves in Mexico. This decree or statement was clearly aimed at Texas because there were very few slaves elsewhere in Mexico. In the face of strong objections, Texas was exempted from the decree. It was evident that Guerrero was trying to strike a blow at Texas. This left the Texans and Mexicans further apart than ever.

TERAN'S VISIT. Fear of losing Texas really seized the Mexican officials, and they were convinced that they must do something. In 1828 Mier y Terán (mēr'ē tā.rān') was sent to Texas to investigate and recommend action. He went all the way across Texas. He reported that there were scarcely any Mexicans between East Texas and San Antonio, that the Americans were coming in very rapidly, and that Texas was lost unless Mexico should take quick action. He made many recommendations, which were put into the Law of April 6, 1830.

THE LAW OF APRIL 6, 1830. The Texans hated and despised this law. You easily can see why. By this law the Mexicans planned to: (1) colonize Mexicans in Texas; (2) colonize Swiss and Germans;
(3) break up trade between Texas and the United States; (4) place more troops in Texas; (5) send convict soldiers to Texas to become settlers after their terms had expired; (6) establish customhouses at the seaports to collect duties on all goods not bought in Mexico; (7) forbid the settlement of more Americans in Texas; and (8) suspend all colonization contracts not already completed.

**COLONISTS ALARMED BY THE LAW.** The colonists saw at once that if this law were enforced they would be ruined. They could have little faith in the future of Texas under this law. They could see their new land filled with convicts and swarming with soldiers sent to spy on them. This law was to the
Texans what the hated Stamp Act was to the early English colonists. Fortunately, the law was not enforced. Colonists continued to come in from the United States, particularly into Austin's and DeWitt's colonies, and the Texans continued to trade with New Orleans. This very failure to enforce the law caused the Texans to have less respect for the Mexicans.

**Swarms of Soldiers Sent to Texas.** About the only provision of the law which was enforced was the one which called for the sending of more soldiers to Texas. This made the Texans very unhappy because they hated military rule. Additional troops were sent to Nacogdoches, Goliad, and San Antonio, where there were already some soldiers. Several new military posts were established, including one at Anahuac (ä.nä'wäk — än.ä.wäk') at the mouth of the Trinity, and one at Velasco at the mouth of the Brazos. The Mexicans were expecting trouble, and to meet it quickly they established what they called a mobile force on the Nueces. This fort was called Lipantitlan (lē.pān'teet.lān'). These troops could move quickly to any place where trouble arose. Two other new posts were established, one called Tenoxtitlan (tän.ōch'tēt.lān') on the Brazos and Terán on the Angelina River in East Texas.

**Bradburn Stirs Up Trouble.** The law itself was bad, but Mexico was very unfortunate in her choice of some of the men who were sent here to enforce it. One of these was Colonel John Davis.
Bradburn, commander of the new fort at the port of Anahuac. What did he do which led to the first fighting? First of all, he ordered all the ports closed except Anahuac. This meant that the colonists could not land their goods at the mouth of the Brazos or any port near them but had to take their shipments to Anahuac to pay duty. Violent protests led to the withdrawal of this order. Secondly, he encouraged slaves to run away because, he said, slavery was against the laws of Mexico. Furthermore, he arrested the commissioner sent to give titles to the settlers and abolished the government of the town of Liberty. As if this were not enough, he arrested two prominent citizens, Patrick C. Jack and William Barret Travis, and put them in jail. The Texans thought that these men had not done enough to be arrested — Jack had organized a militia company, and Travis had tried to get Bradburn to release two slaves who had run away from their master in Louisiana.
too far. Frank W. Johnson led some men from the Trinity settlements, and others came to the Anahuac area from the Austin Colony to force Bradburn to release the prisoners. Bradburn refused, and a short skirmish followed in which one Texan and five Mexicans were killed. The Texans then decided that they needed to send to Brazoria for a cannon; John Austin and Henry Smith were sent to the Brazos town for this purpose. Between one hundred and one hundred fifty men accompanied Austin and Smith. In the meantime, the Texans, fearful of the consequences that their deeds of the day might bring, waited in camp on a small stream known as Turtle Bayou.

It was there that they adopted the Turtle Bayou Resolutions which stated that they were really trying to assist Santa Anna in his revolution against the dictatorship of Anastacio Bustamante (bōōs.tā.män’tā) in Mexico proper. The Turtle Bayou Resolutions simply pledged loyalty and support to Santa Anna and the Mexican Constitution of 1824. In effect, the Texans claimed that their attack on Bradburn was in support of Santa Anna and the Mexican Liberal party. The scheme, as it turned out, worked. Santa Anna was able to overthrow Bustamante and establish the liberal faction in control of the national government at Mexico City. By the time José Antonio Mexía (mā.hē’ā) arrived several weeks later to investigate the Anahuac and Velasco difficulties, the Texans were able to prove that they had no intention of revolting against Mexico.
THE BATTLE OF VELASCO. Meanwhile, as the Texans at Anahuac camped on Turtle Bayou, a battle took place at Velasco. The small town of Brazoria is located about fifteen miles upstream from the mouth of the river near Velasco. John Austin and his men went to Brazoria, where they loaded the cannon on a boat and started down the Brazos. The Mexican garrison at Velasco was commanded by Colonel Domingo de Ugartechea (óó.gár.tā.chā'ā). It was only natural that Ugartechea, when he saw the Texans floating a cannon down the river on a flatboat, would attempt to block the passage of the Texans. A fierce battle resulted as the Mexicans in the small fort opened fire on the Texans. The Mexican garrison was forced to surrender when they exhausted their ammunition. The Texan casualties were seven killed and fourteen wounded; three of the wounded later died. The Mexicans had five killed and sixteen wounded.
The skirmishes at Anahuac and Velasco in 1832 can be listed as preliminaries to the Texas Revolution. Actually, the disturbances described above are significant because they show that as early as 1832 a few of the Anglo-Americans in Texas were eager for a fight; in the months to come they would press every opportunity.

**MEXICAN TROOPS LEAVE TEXAS.** The Texans were happy indeed over the developments in Texas in the summer of 1832. Ugartechea had abandoned Velasco, as we have learned, and now in August of the same year the colonists at Nacogdoches attacked Piedras and drove him and his soldiers out. This was the last of the bloodshed. The troops gradually withdrew from the forts and headed for Mexico, and the hated customs officers were with them. By the end of the summer of 1832 the only troops left in Texas were at San Antonio and Goliad. The Texans were almost free again. With this freedom came the hope that trouble with Mexico might be settled. The Texans resolved to try.

**THE CONVENTION OF 1832.** From these skirmishes the colonists decided that the Mexicans were not very good soldiers and that they could whip them in a fight. The fear of the Mexican soldier was gone. In short, the Texans were now in a frame of mind to dare Santa Anna to try to punish them. With thoughts of victory in their minds and with a new faith in the future of Texas, the colonists resolved to take advantage of their successes. To dis-
cuss their problems and to decide on a course of action, they called a convention to meet at San Felipe in October of 1832.

Fifty-eight delegates, representing all parts of Texas except San Antonio, attended this convention. Austin, who was still very loyal to Mexico, was elected president and Frank W. Johnson, secretary. Although the convention was in session several days and many resolutions were adopted, the work did not result in anything of great importance. In their resolutions they requested Mexico to repeal the part of the Law of April 6, 1830, which restricted immigration from the United States. They also asked that Mexico establish a system of primary schools, in which both Spanish and English would be taught. The most important thing that they did, however, was to ask for separation from Coahuila. The Texans wanted a separate state under Mexico.

Before adjourning, the colonists elected Rafael Manchola (män.chō'lä) and William H. Wharton to take their resolutions and present them to officials in Mexico City. Manchola and Wharton did not go to Mexico because the colonists had no money to pay their expenses. Furthermore, after the convention was over, it was decided that the resolutions should not be presented; they had been addressed to Santa Anna, and he was not yet the head of the government. Tending to make them feel united, this convention was of some importance because it gave the Texans a chance to talk with each other about their problems.

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CONVENTION OF 1833. The Texans believed that their union with Coahuila was harmful to them. They wanted a separate government so that they could attend to their own affairs. They did not like their union with Coahuila because the capital at Saltillo (sältē'yō) was so far away. Furthermore, they had only one representative in the legislature, which was composed of twelve members, and all of the laws were in Spanish. Since they had found the Convention of 1832 to be helpful, and now that Santa Anna had become president of Mexico, they decided to meet in another convention at San Felipe on April 1, 1833. William H. Wharton was chosen as president of the convention. Among the delegates was a man who later became an important person in Texas. This was Sam Houston, who attended as a delegate from Nacogdoches.

WHAT THEY DID AT THE CONVENTION OF 1833. The assembled Texans adopted the resolutions of their previous convention which the colonists had passed, but they went a step further. They wrote a constitution for Texas as a separate state from Coahuila. This was a radical step, and perhaps unwise, because it made the Mexicans believe that the Texans were interested not in separation from Coahuila, but in separation from Mexico. Before adjournment, the delegates chose Erasmo Seguin, Stephen F. Austin, and J. B. Miller to take the constitution to Mexico City for approval. Again, however, the colonists had no money, and it fell to the lot of Austin to
make the trip alone. He did so because he was always ready to do anything for the good of Texas.

**UNHAPPY EXPERIENCES.** It took Austin almost three months to make the trip to Mexico City. He went on horseback to Matamoros (mä·tä·mṓrōs), from Matamoros to Vera Cruz by boat, and from Vera Cruz to Mexico City on horseback. He arrived there on July 18, 1833.
When Austin arrived in the city, Santa Anna was absent. The government was in the charge of Vice-President Gomez Farias (gōˈmēs fāˈrēəs). Austin laid the resolutions of the convention before Farias but could get no answer from him. Finally, in an interview with the vice-president, Austin lost his temper and wrote a very unfortunate letter back to the officials of Bexar, asking that they organize a separate government without waiting any longer. Austin was soon to regret this.

When Santa Anna returned, Austin laid before him the requests for reforms. Santa Anna refused to make Texas a separate state, but he did promise to make certain other reforms which the Texans wanted. He promised to repeal that part of the Law of April 6 which kept the Americans out of Texas. He promised also to improve the mail service. The Texans, however, had proceeded to the point where they would not be satisfied with anything less than separate statehood — that is, separation from Coahuila.

THE ARREST OF AUSTIN. On December 10, 1833, Austin started for home quite happy over the promised reforms. He believed now that the Texans and Mexicans could be friends. He was doomed to great disappointment, however, which was to come to him very soon. It seems that the Mexican leaders, to whom he had written the letter about establishing a separate government, had sent his letter back to Mexico City. When he arrived on January 3 at Saltillo, the capital of Coahuila and Texas, he was ar-
rested. He was taken back to Mexico City and placed in prison there. For many months he was not allowed to speak to anyone or to have any books or to in any way enjoy himself. No one will ever know how terribly Austin suffered. The prison in which he was confined was very old, dirty, dark, and damp. There were no windows in his cell. In a diary kept daily, Austin wrote many interesting accounts of his activities. He was given the privilege of reading, but the daylight hours in his cell continued only from about ten o'clock in the morning to three in the afternoon. Much of his time was devoted to watching a lizard which lived in his cell.

Austin wrote about his own thoughts and about his lot as a prisoner. "What a horrible punishment is solitary confinement," he wrote, "shut up in a dungeon with scarcely light enough to distinguish anything. If I were a criminal it would be another thing, but I am not one. . . . I thought it was my duty to obey the call of the people and go to Mexico as their agent. I have sacrificed myself to serve them." He was kept in prison until Christmas Day, 1834. After this time he had some freedom within the city. He was not allowed to leave Mexico until the middle of 1835. Santa Anna’s officials made a grave mistake in arresting Austin who was, of all men in Texas, most loyal to Mexico. This injustice naturally weakened his loyalty. Furthermore, his imprisonment helped to build a feeling of greater hostility in Texas against Mexico. The fact that Austin was imprisoned without any criminal charge against him, that he was
placed in solitary confinement, and that he was denied bail pointed up the truth of the great differences there were between the Mexicans and the Americans.

**THE IMMEDIATE CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION.** All of these events which we have discussed were rather basic and important causes of the Texas Revolution. The more immediate causes, however, had to do with Santa Anna and some of the foolish measures he took. The actions of Santa Anna finally exhausted the patience of the colonists; the one thing Santa Anna had done which caused the Revolution to develop rapidly was to order the reoccupation of Texas with soldiers.

Let us see what was done that plunged Texas into the Revolution so quickly. We have already learned that after the affairs at Anahuac and Velasco the Mexican troops left Texas. Troops remained only at two points—San Antonio and Goliad. Most of the inhabitants of these two towns were Mexicans, and for that reason the colonists did not object so much to having troops at those places. In January of 1835, Santa Anna sent a company of troops to Anahuac, and the rumors spread quickly that his plans were to send others. Nothing of importance happened until the colonists learned that Santa Anna planned to send reinforcements to Captain Tenorio (tā.nō'ryō), who was in command at Anahuac. William Barret Travis, who, as you recall, had been imprisoned by Bradburn, called for volunteers to go to Anahuac and drive Tenorio out of his position.
The volunteers under the command of Travis presented themselves at Anahuac and demanded his surrender. At the end of an hour's wait Tenorio gave up, surrendered his arms and ammunition, and marched off to San Antonio. Travis was very pleased over this surrender because it was right here at Anahuac that Bradburn had held him prisoner in 1832.

**ARREST OF TRAVIS ORDERED.** The Mexican government officials were furious when they learned of the attack on Tenorio at Anahuac. Orders were immediately issued for the arrest of Travis and others, including Lorenzo de Zavala, Samuel May Williams, Moseley Baker, and R. M. Williamson. They were to be sent to Mexico City to be tried by the military court. The arrest of Travis and others had been ordered by General Martín Perfecto de Cós (kōs), who was a brother-in-law of Santa Anna. After Tenorio had been driven out, the colonists decided to go to San Antonio, where Cós was stationed, and try to explain the whole matter to him. They wanted to say that they were loyal to Mexico, that they wished to remain at peace with her, and that the troops would not be needed. General Cós, however, refused to talk with them until they surrendered Travis and others whose arrest had been ordered.

**AUSTIN RETURNS TO TEXAS.** In the midst of all this confusion Austin returned to Texas early in September of 1835. Austin had been free to move about the City of Mexico, as you will remember, after Christmas of 1834. In his wanderings around the
city, he had observed many changes in the government. He saw that Santa Anna was rapidly making himself a dictator and that he no longer governed his people under the Constitution of 1824. Consequently, when Austin returned to Texas after two years of absence, he told the colonists that the time for war had come. From this moment the Texans began to collect arms and ammunition and to get ready for the struggle which was ahead. Austin was a peace-loving man, and it was with a heavy heart that he advised the colonists, "War is our only recourse. There is no other remedy but to defend our rights, ourselves, and our country by force of arms." The colonists needed no urging; they were ready.

SUMMARY OF THE GENERAL CAUSES OF THE REVOLUTION. Many years ago Eugene C. Barker, a distinguished teacher and scholar at The University of Texas, summarized the general causes of the Texas Revolution.

1. The Revolution grew out of the failure of the Mexicans and Texans to understand each other—a failure which was due to the fact that they did not have a great deal in common. In this respect, the background to the Revolution was largely a "contest of civilizations," centering about the independent, effi-
cient Anglo-American frontiersmen on one side and the sensitive, subtle, and indirect Latin American on the other.

2. Mexican officials were handicapped in their dealings with the Americans in Texas by their Spanish heritage of fear and distrust caused by the rapid expansion of the United States. The clumsy efforts of the United States to buy Texas only added to this fear and suspicion in the minds of the Mexicans.

3. There was an absence of commercial contact between the two peoples, as the Mexican government discouraged all trade and commerce between the Texans and Mexican ports to the south.

4. The Law of April 6, 1830, was the turning point in the relations between the Anglo-Americans in Texas and the Mexicans.

5. In the end, it was the confusion and chaos in the national government of Mexico — the rather constant revolutionary activity between the centralists and the federalists — that brought on the rebellion.

Barker also pointed out to his young students that, despite minor irritations related to religious freedom, slavery, and an adequate judicial system (including trial by jury), the Texas Revolution was not the result of Mexican oppression and “the glory of Texas is not to be augmented by emphasizing the faults of the Mexicans.” Young Texans should remember that at this time, 1825-1835, Texas belonged to Mexico and that the “Mexicans honestly believed that they were in danger of losing it. They were mere-
ly trying desperately in the only way that they knew to save it."

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. What do you think was the most important cause of the Revolution?
2. Why were the Mexicans suspicious of the Texans?
3. Tell of the Fredonian Rebellion. Did most of the colonists take part in it?
4. What was Guerrero’s proclamation of 1829? Why did some of the colonists object to this law?
5. Why was Terán sent to Texas?
6. What do you believe was the object of the Law of April 6, 1830? What were its terms? Why did the colonists object to it?
7. Who was Bradburn? What did he do which angered the Texans?
8. What led to the fighting at Anahuac and Velasco in 1832?
9. What were the Turtle Bayou Resolutions?
10. Tell what happened at the conventions of 1832 and 1833.
11. Why did the colonists desire separation from Coahuila?
12. Why did Austin go to Mexico after the Convention of 1833?
13. What reforms did Santa Anna promise?
14. Why was Austin arrested?
15. What were the more immediate causes of the Revolution?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
intrusion tyrannical decree
exempt enforce resolution
constitution convention reform

DO IT YOURSELF
1. Prepare a report to the class on Austin’s imprisonment.
2. Write about the life of Bradburn. Use Volume I of The Handbook of Texas for information.
3. Make a display poster showing some phases of the Mexican-Texan relationship.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Barker, E. C., The Father of Texas.
Bolton, H. E., and Barker, E. C., With the Makers of Texas, pp. 159-167.

The first of the great leaders of Texas was Stephen F. Austin, whom Sam Houston called the “Father of Texas.” Aside from being the “Father of Texas,” which links him with the present, his name is the first in the chain of great leaders from his day to ours. Some of these great leaders who, like Austin, have stood for freedom, liberty, and the basic rights of the people are Houston, the “Savior of Texas”; O. M. Roberts, the “Old Alcalde”; James Stephen Hogg; and many others to the present day. They have carried on the work Austin began.

In the performance of the duties which earned him the title of the “Father of Texas,” Austin suffered more than perhaps all other leaders since his day. On January 3, 1834, Austin was arrested at Saltillo, the capital of Coahuila and Texas, and sent back to Mexico City, where he was imprisoned. It was characteristic of Austin that he thought first of the welfare of Texas and not of himself. He wrote to Texas and urged that
State Capitol at Austin, Texas
the colonists not get excited over his arrest and do things which might injure the Texan cause. He wrote of his sufferings there, and, always thinking of his beloved Texas, again he wrote, "The last year has been one of calamities for Texas—floods, cholera, and commotions. I hope the present year will be more favorable." Austin was then placed in solitary confinement in a dark, dirty dungeon in faraway Mexico City, and no one was allowed to visit him. In spite of this, he thought only of the welfare of his adopted country.

A grateful people have remembered Austin in recent years. Austin County, our capital, Austin College at Sherman, and Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College at Nacogdoches have been named for him. Monuments and plaques in his honor dot the state. Chief among them are monuments in the San Felipe de Austin State Park, in the Goliad State Park, and in the San Jacinto Battleground Park. A statue of Austin is in the rotunda of the state capitol and another in the national capitol at Washington.
Chapter VII

The Fighting Begins

Since Santa Anna was the Mexican leader whom the Texans had to fight, it would be well to learn something about him. He was born at Jalapa, Mexico, in 1794. At a very early age he became a cadet in the Spanish Army. The first time he appeared on
the Texas scene was at the Battle of Medina River, where he was cited for bravery against border ruffians. This was in June of 1813, when Magee and Gutiérrez were invading Texas.

**SANTA ANNA LEADS MEXICO IN THE REVOLUTION.** When Iturbide became emperor, Santa Anna gave him his support. However, when the emperor failed to take his side in a quarrel he had with an officer, Santa Anna declared himself to be against Iturbide and for a republic. This was in December of 1822. In March of 1823 Iturbide was overthrown. Santa Anna led several revolutions and in 1833 was elected president of Mexico as a liberal. He soon decided, however, that Mexico was not ready for democracy and so made himself a dictator. This infuriated the Texans because they were always against dictatorship under any circumstances. The Texans had declared themselves for Santa Anna back in 1832; but now, on learning of his scheme to make himself the supreme ruler, they declared themselves against him. The Revolution was at hand.

**SKIRMISH AT GONZALES.** The people at Gonzales had a cannon, which had been used by DeWitt and his colony as protection against the Indians. The Mexican commander at San Antonio wanted this cannon and sent a company of soldiers to Gonzales to demand its surrender. Andrew Ponton was alcalde or mayor of Gonzales at that time, and through his efforts the men in the vicinity were
assembled at Gonzales. They mounted the cannon on wheels hewn out of trees that grew near the town. On the second day of October the colonists had enough men, they thought, to defy the Mexicans. They moved out on the morning of October 2, 1835, with a flag waving from the cannon. On this flag were the words — "Come and Take It." The colonists moved across the river; and as they approached the Mexicans, they fired the little brass cannon at them. Now, this cannon was not very effective, but the black powder used in firing it made a great noise, and there was a great deal of smoke. As soon as the Mexicans saw this, they turned and fled back to San Antonio. It seems that this cannon almost exploded every time it was fired, so that it was more dangerous to those who tried to fire it than to those who might be in front of it. Although no Texans
were injured, some Mexicans were killed and wounded. This was the beginning of the Texans' fight for liberty. The English colonists had struck their initial blow for freedom at Lexington, Massachusetts. The first shot for the freedom of Texas was fired at Gonzales, and for this reason Gonzales is sometimes referred to as the "Lexington of Texas."

**THE TEXANS TAKE GOLIAD.** The colonists were much encouraged over their victory at Gonzales; so they decided to send a force against Goliad, where there were about thirty Mexican soldiers. The little Mexican garrison was forced to surrender on October 9 to a small force of about fifty Texans led by George M. Collinsworth. General Cós had left this small garrison of thirty men at Goliad to form a link between the coast and San Antonio. The capture of Goliad, therefore, was important in that it broke up this post and cut off the Mexicans in San Antonio from their communication with the coast.

**AN ARMY IS ORGANIZED AT GONZALES.** After the Battle of Gonzales on October 2, the Texans, believing that the war had started, sent for Austin to come to Gonzales to confer with them. Austin had been in Texas only a few weeks after his long imprisonment in Mexico. He was ill from his long stay in the prison. However, on October 11 at Gonzales, he was elected commander-in-chief of the little army. Austin had never turned away from a job that needed to be done for Texas. He did not turn away
this time. He accepted the command and began to prepare his few recruits for a march to San Antonio. Austin and this small group of men left Gonzales on the thirteenth of October. By slow and easy marches they reached the vicinity of San Antonio near the end of October.

Austin had used the time to try to discipline his men and to get them into a fighting mood. None of these men were professional soldiers. They were farmers, ranchers, and workmen of all types. There were no uniforms, and the men wore the clothes that they wore in the fields. Most of the men had muzzle-loading rifles and some had pistols. Pistols, however, had not come into full use in Texas at this time.

Noah Smithwick was one of the men who helped the Texans prepare the cannon at Gonzales for the fight against the Mexicans. He marched out with Austin’s men on that day in October and later wrote a description of the men as they left Gonzales. From this description you can see that Austin did not have a very impressive-looking army. In referring to this first Texas Army, Smithwick said, “It certainly bore little resemblance to the army of my childhood dreams. Buckskin breeches were the nearest approach to uniform, and there was wide diversity even there, some being new and soft and yellow, while others, from long familiarity with rain and grease and dirt, had become hard and black and shiny. . . . Boots being an unknown quantity; some wore shoes and some moccasins. Here a broad-brimmed sombrero over-
shadowed the military cap at its side; there a tall 'beegum' rode familiarly beside a coonskin cap, with the tail hanging down behind, as all well regulated tails should do."

This was October, 1835, and the Texans had already fought a battle at Gonzales and one at Goliad, but they had not yet decided why they were fighting. The same writer who described Austin's army wrote about this also. He said, "Some were for independence; some for the Constitution of 1824; and some for anything, just so it was a row. But we were all ready to fight."

**THE FIGHTING AROUND SAN ANTONIO.**

There were three battles fought in the so-called San Antonio campaign. They were the Battle of Concepción, the Grass Fight, and finally the capture of San Antonio. Let us look at each one of these separately.

**THE BATTLE OF CONCEPCION.** Approximately two weeks after the Texans left Gonzales, they camped at the old Mission San Francisco de la Espada. You will recall that this was the new name for the Mission San Francisco de los Tejas, which had been moved to San Antonio from East Texas. Austin had about six hundred men at this time.

From their encampment at the mission, Austin sent James Bowie and James W. Fannin with about ninety men to search for a camp site near the town. In the search for this site, they camped near Mission Concepción, where on the morning of October 28 they
found themselves surrounded by a greatly superior Mexican force. The Texans had learned from the Indians to fight from cover when they could. Therefore, they took refuge in the river bed so that they
could use the bank for breastworks. The battle was over in a very few minutes, and the Texans were again victorious. They had lost only one man in
battle. His name was Richard Andrews. To him belongs the distinction of being the first man to give his life for the Texan cause. The Texans did not forget this sacrifice, and they erected a monument as a memorial to him in Concepción Battleground Park.

**THE GRASS FIGHT.** The second battle around San Antonio was known as the Grass Fight. It took place on November 26. On that day Deaf Smith, the scout who played such a prominent part later in the Texas Revolution, rode into camp with the news that a hundred Mexican soldiers were coming into town. He said their horses were loaded with fabulous amounts of gold and silver to pay the troops. The capture of this treasure was most desirable, and James Bowie volunteered to lead an expedition against them. Again the fight lasted only a short while, with the Mexicans taking to their heels. The Texans, however, captured most of the equipment of the pack train; but to the chagrin of the Texans, the bags they captured contained grass which the Mexicans were bringing to feed the horses. It was reported that the Mexicans lost approximately fifty men, whereas the Texans lost none.

These two battles, although they did not involve very large forces, were important because they gave the Texans courage and faith in themselves. They were now fully convinced that they could whip the Mexicans.

**THE FALL OF SAN ANTONIO.** Two days before the Grass Fight, General Austin left the army at
Texas Battle Flags

San Antonio to do a most important job. It seemed clear to everyone in Texas that assistance from the United States would be needed if they were to be successful in their revolution. They needed someone of character and great influence to go to the United States and explain why Texas had revolted against Mexico and to get help in men and money. The consultation, which had met first on November 3 and about which we will learn more later, appointed Austin to go to the United States for aid. William H. Wharton and Dr. Branch T. Archer were appointed to go with him. Before he left San Antonio, Austin ordered an election to be held to select someone to succeed him as commander-in-chief of the army. They chose General Edward Burleson.

*THE STORMING OF SAN ANTONIO.* When the army was deprived of Austin’s leadership, many volunteers became restless. Some of them believed that the army did not have the necessary equipment to capture San Antonio, and many of them wanted to return home. On December 3 it was decided to aban-
don the siege for the winter. Just as this decision was made, however, they learned that General Cós in San Antonio was practically out of arms, ammunition, and food. It was just at this time, when the colonists were making plans to go home, that Benjamin R. Milam came out with the famous challenge, “Who will go with old Ben Milam into San Antonio?” About three hundred men volunteered. The plans quickly changed, and they decided to take the city by storm.

On December 5 the three hundred volunteers started on their way into the town. One column was led by Benjamin R. Milam and the other by Frank W. Johnson. The fight raged for four days and nights as the Texans fought their way from house to house. On the morning of December 9, General Cós, commander of the Mexicans, raised a white flag. This meant that he had had enough. On the morning of December 11, terms of surrender were signed.

The terms arranged with General Cós seem today to have been very reasonable. Under the terms the general and his officers were permitted to return to Mexico, provided they would promise that they would not oppose the re-establishment of a republican form of government in Mexico. Furthermore, the convict soldiers were required toleave Texas. The other soldiers were given permission to remain, if they wished to do so. On Christmas Day, 1835, in compliance with the terms of the agreement, General Cós led his army across the Rio Grande. The Texans felt relieved now that their country was again free
of Mexican soldiers. Unfortunately, there were many more to come — and very soon.

Although the Texans had lost only two men in all of the fighting, one of them was Ben Milam, who was the most courageous of them all.

THE END OF THE CAMPAIGN OF 1835. The capture of San Antonio brought to an end the campaign of 1835; but at that very moment, Santa Anna was preparing to send more troops. These troops would begin to arrive in Texas about two months later.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Give a sketch of the life of Santa Anna.
2. Tell about the skirmish at Gonzales. Why was it called the "Lexington of Texas"?
3. Describe the cannon the colonists had at Gonzales. Why was it very effective?
4. Describe Austin's army at Gonzales.
5. Tell about the fighting around San Antonio.
6. Why did Austin leave the army at San Antonio?
7. Who was Ben Milam? Tell about his life.
8. Describe the fall of San Antonio. Who was in command of the Mexicans there?
9. What terms of surrender were made with General Cós?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

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DO IT YOURSELF

1. Draw a picture of the "Come and Take It" cannon.
2. Draw a sketch of the Mexicans in the Grass Fight.
3. Write a sketch of the life of William H. Wharton, Branch T. Archer or General Edward Burleson. See The Handbook of Texas.
4. Dramatize the story of Ben Milam.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Tate, Tommy, "The Storming of San Antonio de Bexar," in The Junior Historian, January, 1954, p. 27.

Benjamin R. Milam forever linked his name with the future of Texas when in early December, 1835, he stepped out in front of the volunteers and called out, "Who will go with old Ben Milam into San Antonio?" Austin had left the army, and the men were discouraged, homesick, and ready to leave for home. Three hundred rallied to Milam's call, with results which you already know. The price of the capture of San Antonio was the death of Milam, now known as the "Hero of San Antonio."

Milam was a Kentuckian who came to Texas as early as 1818 to trade with the Comanches. He was a member of the James Long expedition and was imprisoned for trying to avenge
the death of Long. He joined the Texan volunteers at Goliad and remained with them to the time of his tragic death at San Antonio. In the meantime, he did important scout work for Austin in and around San Antonio. Today the square where he was buried is named for him. In the center of the square is a monument to him, erected in 1897 by the De Zavala Chapter of the Daughters of the Republic of Texas.
Chapter VIII
The Texans Form a Government

While the fighting around San Antonio was in progress, the Texans gave attention to forming a government. The colonists were divided on the question of whether or not they should go to war with Mexico, as we have seen. In order to decide this, Austin asked the people of every district in Texas to elect delegates to meet together and consult about their problems.
THE CONSULTATION. The delegates were elected, and they would have met by the middle of October, but many of the members of this consultation were in the army. The consultation was unable to get a quorum until November 3, 1835. On this day it assembled at San Felipe and immediately began its work. The main things the consultation did were these:

1. It organized a provisional government for Texas with Henry Smith as governor and James W. Robinson as lieutenant governor. Both of these men belonged to the Independence party.

2. It set up a general council made up of a representative from each department. The governor, lieutenant governor, and the council made up the provisional government. This was the only government Texas had from November, 1835, until March of 1836.

3. It chose Austin, William H. Wharton, and Branch T. Archer to go to the United States for aid.

4. It provided for a regular army, adopted regulations to govern it, and appointed Houston to command it.

5. It declared Texas to be loyal to Mexico as long as the Constitution of 1824 was in effect.

6. It declared opposition to the dictatorship which Santa Anna had established in Mexico.

THE QUARREL BETWEEN THE GOVERNOR AND THE COUNCIL. At this critical mo-

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ment it was most unfortunate that Governor Smith and the council could not agree on important matters. In the first place, Governor Smith and some of the council members were great personal enemies, and they were unable to rise above such things. Another cause for quarrels between the governor and the council was the proposed plan for an invasion of Mexico. The council wanted the Texans to invade Mexico and capture Matamoros. It was thought that if Matamoros could be taken, the liberal Mexicans south of the border would endorse the cause of the Texans and fight with them against Santa Anna. The governor, on the other hand, was definitely opposed to this expedition and preferred that San Antonio be heavily fortified.

In spite of the opposition of Governor Smith, the council on January 30, 1836, appointed Colonel Johnson to take command of a force to move against Matamoros. Johnson accepted the offer but not immediately. In the meantime, the council had appointed Colonel James W. Fannin to lead the expedition. In all this General Sam Houston, who had been chosen as commander-in-chief of the army, was ignored.

THE GRANT EXPEDITION. To complicate matters still further, Colonel Johnson ordered Dr. James Grant to receive volunteers and to march from San Antonio to Goliad with the intention of later capturing Matamoros. Under orders from Johnson, Dr. Grant took a number of men from San Antonio and
all of the supplies he needed for his advance against Mexico.

GOVERNOR SMITH SUSPENDED BY THE COUNCIL. General Houston complained that all of these plans were being made without his approval. Governor Smith then ordered him to move west with his army. Actually, four commanders had been appointed to lead armies against Matamoros. It was certainly a case of having more chiefs than Indians — they had several commanders but very few troops. Everything was in confusion.

To make matters worse, the governor attempted to dissolve the council. The council, instead of obeying the order, notified Governor Smith that his services would no longer be needed. The council appointed Lieutenant Governor Robinson to act as governor. Smith refused to leave the office, but the council continued to look to Robinson as their chief.

This all meant tragedy for Texas. The commanders each acted separately and assembled a small force, but none of them was strong enough to meet the crisis just ahead.

THE CONVENTION OF 1836. The only way the people of Texas could rid themselves of the quarreling governor and council was to elect a new assembly to take their place. When the convention met at Washington-on-the-Brazos, March 1, 1836, it notified the governor and the council that their services were no longer required.
At this time there were only a few log cabins and a few business houses in the new town of Washington-on-the-Brazos. Even the streets had not been cleared of trees and shrubs. There was no building large enough for the delegation, so the members were forced to meet in an unfinished building. The temperature was freezing, and there was no way to keep warm.

There were fifty-nine delegates who attended the convention at one time or another. Fifty-two of these delegates were born in eleven different states in the United States, and one each in Scotland, England, Ireland, and Canada. As a matter of fact, three of these delegates were born in Mexico.

The delegates turned their attention immediately to the pressing affairs of state. The first important bit of work which they did was to write a declaration of independence. George C. Childress headed a committee to draw up this declaration. It listed the many grievances the Texans had against the Mexican government which they believed justified their desire for separation from Mexico. The Declaration was unanimously adopted by the convention on March 2, 1836.

CAUSES FOR THE DECLARATION. You will recall that Austin's little army on its march from Gonzales to San Antonio discussed the reasons for fighting. They did not at that time agree as to the real cause. It was quite a different matter now. The Texans, assembled at Washington-on-the-Brazos on March 2, 1836, had no doubt that independence was their goal.
In the Declaration they gave a number of reasons why they were making the declaration, and some of them were as follows: (1) that Mexico had guaranteed a republican government to the colonists and that now Santa Anna had established a dictatorship; (2) that Santa Anna had, in effect, overthrown the government of Coahuila and Texas; (3) that he had demanded the surrender of prominent citizens; (4) that he had imprisoned Austin without just cause; (5) that Mexico had not provided trial by jury; and finally (6) that Mexico had not established a system of public education.

**THE NEW CONSTITUTION.** After the Declaration of Independence had been adopted unanimously by the convention, the delegates turned their attention to the adoption of a constitution. The Constitution, which they adopted, was patterned after that of the United States, except that Texas was not divided into states. The Constitution provided for a president, a congress, and a system of courts. It also provided for the encouragement of immigration from the states; Congress was instructed to establish schools; freedom of speech and religion and trial by jury were guaranteed; and slavery was recognized. The judicial system was to consist of a supreme court, as many district courts as were needed, and a county court in each county. These rights which the Texans wrote into their Constitution were unheard of in Mexico.

**TEMPORARY GOVERNMENT.** The Constitution that the delegates adopted at Washington-on-
the-Brazos provided that the regular president, who was to be elected by the people, should not take charge of the government until December. Since one of the first things the convention had done was to deprive Governor Smith of his position, it was apparent that a temporary government would have to be provided. This they did, and it was called the ad interim government.

The convention, therefore, proceeded to elect officers to serve until an election by the people could be held. Sam Houston was re-elected commander-in-chief of the army. David G. Burnet was elected president and Lorenzo de Zavala vice-president. The convention also appointed a group of distinguished advisers to act as President Burnet's cabinet. Samuel P. Carson was elected secretary of state; Bailey Hardeman, secretary of the treasury; Thomas J. Rusk, secretary of war; Robert Potter, secretary of the navy; and David Thomas, attorney general. These men were to govern Texas until an election could be held.

**THE CONVENTION ADJOURNS IN WILD EXCITEMENT.** As we shall see in the next chapter, Santa Anna had brought an army to Texas in the winter of 1835-1836. In the closing hours of the convention, the news reached the delegates that one of Santa Anna’s forces had captured and killed about one hundred men, who had been assembled by Frank W. Johnson and Dr. James Grant for the expedition against Matamoros. Worse news yet was the rumor that Santa Anna himself had captured the
Alamo and that the defenders had been put to death. These reports were true, but the delegates remained to hear an inaugural address from President Burnet.

In the course of his speech President Burnet said, "The day and the hour has arrived when every free man must be up and doing his duty. The Alamo has fallen! The gallant few who so long sustained it have yielded to the overwhelming power of numbers; but they perished not in vain! The ferocious tyrant has purchased his triumph over one little band of heroes at a costly price; and a few more such victories would bring speedy ruin upon himself. Let us, therefore, fellow citizens, take courage from this glorious disaster; let us implore the aid of an incensed God, who abhors inequity, who ruleth in righteousness, and will avenge the oppressed."

Before President Burnet's speech was concluded, the rumors were making the rounds that the Mexican Army was approaching Washington-on-the-Brazos. The new officers, therefore, were obliged to leave for Harrisburg, where they established a capital. It was only a short time, however, until it was necessary for them to flee again — this time to Galveston.

**QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS**

1. Why did the colonists organize the Consultation of 1835?
2. Where did they meet and what did they do?
3. How do you explain the quarrel between the governor and the council?
4. What was done at the Convention of 1836?
5. How did the Texans explain their revolt from Mexico?
6. Describe the government set up in the Constitution.
CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
quorum incensed provisional
inaugural suspended temporary
avenge sustained ferocious

DO IT YOURSELF
Sometimes the playwright is able to capture the spirit of a historical era in language far more colorful than that of the historian; and, at the same time, he can maintain historical objectivity and accuracy. Ramsey Yelvington, the contemporary Texas playwright, offers an excellent example of this fact. In recent years, Yelvington's *Cloud of Witnesses* has been produced each summer at the San José Mission in San Antonio under the title, *Drama of the Alamo*.

You should try to see this production sometime in the future. If it is impossible to make the trip to San Antonio, try to read a copy of the play in your school library and make a report in class on this project. If you have seen the *Drama of the Alamo*, tell your classmates about it.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE
Read the Constitution of 1836. Keep in mind its provisions so that you can compare this document with later constitutions.

This short chapter on the Texans and their government does not have the romance and drama about it as do some which deal with more dramatic subjects. It is, however, important. As a matter of fact, an exceedingly courageous act on the
part of David G. Burnet, the president of the *ad interim* government, forms an important link between those hectic days and the present.

David G. Burnet was president during the most unhappy months of the Republic. He was chosen, as you recall, to try
to hold the government together until the war was over and a regular election could be held. This proved to be a most difficult task. There was no money, and there was great unrest in the army. The soldiers, most of them just in from the United States, were unhappy about the agreement the government had made to send Santa Anna home. These army men demanded that Burnet resign. This he steadfastly refused to do and refused to accept the resignation of his cabinet. Upon his refusal, the army leaders decided to capture Burnet and take control of the affairs of state. They sent men to do this, but Amasa Turner, a San Jacinto veteran, learned of their plot and warned Burnet of the plan. Burnet broke up the plot and continued in his office. By this courageous act, military rule was prevented. But for Burnet's insistence, the chances for the recognition of the independence of Texas would have been greatly reduced. Burnet deserves a place among the great Texans whose action preserved the heritage enjoyed by all Texans today.

Burnet County, created in 1852, was named in honor of David G. Burnet. In 1936 the State of Texas erected a memorial to him on the campus of the Clarksville, Texas, High School.
Chapter IX

The Campaign of 1836

When February, 1836, rolled around, all was in a state of confusion in Texas. The government officials had spent the winter quarreling among themselves and giving orders and counter orders. Austin was away in the United States, and the Texans had been deprived of his great leadership. When the campaign started, Dr. James Grant and Frank W. Johnson were at San Patricio with about one hundred men. Colonel James W. Fannin was at Goliad with between
four and five hundred; and William Barret Travis was at the Alamo with perhaps one hundred fifty recruits. The men were few in number, and there seemed to be no unity of purpose. They were scattered over a wide area, with none in a position to resist a Mexican army. At the same time, the Mexicans were planning to send General Urrea against San Patricio. Santa Anna, with a large force, was approaching the Alamo along the Old San Antonio Road.

SANTA ANNA’S ARMY. The army which Santa Anna brought to Texas has been described as a great army of fighting men, well-disciplined, well-fed, well-clothed, and well-equipped. Let us see what a writer of that time, who saw this expeditionary force, had to say about this:

“In the entire army there was not a tent except those provided by the officers for their own private convenience. Rivers and swollen streams had to be crossed and yet one small cart could have carried all the tools they had for the construction of a raft or small bridge. It was in mid-winter and the soldiers were clad in thin pantaloons, cotton shirts, and thin jackets, and instead of shoes most of them wore guarachas, sandals made of rawhide.

“In all the army there was not a chaplain to comfort the afflicted and dying. There was not a gunsmith, and only two or three surgeons and not one of these was with the expedition when the army reached the Rio Grande. . . . To complete our misfortunes the commander-in-chief admitted the North American
quack doctor at Saltillo through force of necessity. He was the only physician in general assessments division and he died of a fever on the Frio. The army was wholly without hospital stores, appliances, and general equipment for the preservation of health and efficiency, and the commissary was little better.”

THE ALAMO

THE SITUATION AT THE ALAMO. After the Texans had captured San Antonio in December, most of them had returned to their homes; but some had gone with Johnson and Grant on the wild Matamoros expedition, while a few stayed in San Antonio. In January of 1836 Colonel James C. Neill, who was commander at San Antonio, reported that there were at that time only one hundred men in San Antonio and that they were badly in need of supplies.

General Houston, however, did not favor making any defense of San Antonio. So he sent Colonel James Bowie to San Antonio with instructions to destroy all fortifications and to seek a more defensible position. In accordance with Houston’s instructions, Bowie recruited twenty-five men and went to San Antonio; but once he was there, he refused to follow instructions. Instead, he joined with those who believed that San Antonio must be defended at all costs.

The governor had asked Colonel William Barret Travis to raise a hundred men to go to the relief of San Antonio, and on February 3 Travis reached the Alamo with only thirty men. Because of illness, Colonel
Neill left San Antonio. Bowie and Travis were then in command; because of Bowie's illness, Travis became the actual commander.

TRAVIS MAKES STIRRING APPEALS FOR HELP. Santa Anna had led his army across the Rio Grande on February 12, 1836, and had made his way directly to San Antonio. The advance part of his army reached there on February 23. For some reason, Travis and his men were greatly surprised at the appearance of the Mexicans. Apparently Travis had made no preparations to defend San Antonio.

The decision was quickly made that they would occupy the buildings of the old Mission San Antonio de Valero (the Alamo), which had been abandoned more than fifty years. The men repaired the walls and prepared to defend themselves as best they could. It was about this time that David Crockett came in from Tennessee, bringing with him twelve men.

Travis sent out many appeals, and some of them contained pathetic words. "For God's sake and the sake of our country send us reinforcements," he pleaded.

THIRTY-TWO BRAVE MEN FROM GONZALES. On the twenty-third of February, Travis sent a hasty note to Andrew Ponton, the alcalde of Gonzales. He begged Ponton, "We have a hundred and fifty men and are determined to defend the Alamo to the last. Give us assistance." It was in answer to this appeal that Captain Albert Martin and thirty-one other citizens of Gonzales went to the aid of
Travis. They broke through the lines and entered the Alamo on March 1. This raised Travis' strength to a possible one hundred eighty men.
THE MOST HEROIC DOCUMENT. Most of the calls which Travis issued went unanswered because the Texans lacked leadership, and without it they could do nothing. He sent appeals to the governor and to the lieutenant governor; when he received nothing from them, he sent appeals to the council for help. Finally, Travis decided to direct his appeals to the people of Texas. One of these appeals, dated February 24, 1836, has been described as the most heroic document in American history. The letter is quoted here in full.

"To the People of Texas & all Americans in the World—

Fellow citizens & compatriots —

"I am besieged, by a thousand or more of the Mexicans under Santa Anna — I have sustained a continual Bombardment & cannonade for 24 hours & have not lost a man — The enemy has demanded a surrender at discretion, otherwise, the garrison are to be put to the sword, if the fort is taken — I have answered the demand with a cannon shot, & our flag still waves proudly from the walls — I shall never surrender or retreat. Then, I call on you in the name of liberty, of patriotism & everything dear to the American character, to come to our aid, with all dispatch — The enemy is receiving reinforcements daily & will no doubt increase to three or four thousand in four or five days. If this call is neglected, I am deter—
mined to sustain myself as long as possible & die like a soldier who never forgets what is due to his own honor & that of his country — Victory or Death.

WILLIAM BARRET TRAVIS
Lt. Col. comdt.

"P.S. The Lord is on our side — When the enemy appeared inside we had not three bushels of corn — We have since found in the deserted houses 80 or 90 bushels and got into the walls 20 or 30 head of Beeves.

TRAVIS"

This is perhaps the most famous P.S. in all history. Why do you suppose the Texans had made no preparation for the coming of the Mexicans?

THE FALL OF THE ALAMO. On March 2 the Texans, as you know, declared their independence. On that very day the last units of Santa Anna's army reached San Antonio. Travis sent out his last appeal for help on the next day, the third of March. In this appeal Travis wrote, "A blood-red banner waves from the church at Bexar, and in the camp above us, a token that the war is one of vengeance against rebels. . . . Their threats have had no influence on me or my men but to make all fight with desperation and with that high souled courage which characterizes the patriot who is willing to die in defense of his country, his liberty, and his own honor."

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Santa Anna divided his army into three parts so that he could attack three sides of the Alamo at one time. On the morning of Sunday, March 6, 1836, Santa Anna sent his army against the Alamo. It was said that the Mexican band played the Deguello (dä-gwâ'yô'), which meant that all would be killed and that no prisoners would be taken. The defenders of the Alamo were too few. In a very short time the Mexicans were swarming over the walls and into the fort.

The Mexicans are thought to have lost between five and six hundred men. Some of the bodies were buried in the cemetery, but many of them were dumped into the river. The bodies of the Texans were piled on a great funeral pyre and burned late in the afternoon. A year later the charred bones that remained were buried with military honors.

**IMPORTANCE OF THE ALAMO.** The story of the Alamo is one of the saddest stories in all history. The defenders of the Alamo, however, had not died in vain, although the fort was lost. These men at the Alamo delayed the advance of Santa Anna and gave the little Texan army time to prepare for the struggle to come. Furthermore, it must be said that the fury with which Travis and his men fought at the Alamo inspired Texans to greater efforts. It has also been judged to be important because Santa Anna was so happy over his victory that he became over-confident and proceeded carelessly into the heart of Texas.
A LEGEND OF THE ALAMO. One of the stories which Texans like to tell, whether true or not, is the story of Travis drawing the line at the Alamo. The legend or story is that Travis, just before the final assault by the Mexicans, took his sword and drew a line across the dirt floor of the Alamo and asked every man who was willing to fight to the very end to cross the line. All immediately crossed the line. James Bowie, who was ill and could not move, asked that some of the men carry his cot across the line. This is a heroic story, and it could have happened.

About a half hour after the fall of the Alamo, Santa Anna called for Ramón Múszquiz (mōs′kēz′), a San Antonio official, to conduct him through the ruins. Santa Anna said he wished to see the bodies of colonels Travis, Bowie, and Crockett. Múszquiz wrote later that "on the north battery of the fortress convent lay the lifeless body of Colonel Travis, shot through the forehead. Toward the west . . . we found the body of Colonel Crockett. Colonel Bowie was found dead in his bed in one of the rooms of the south side."

HOUSTON'S RETREAT TO VICTORY

HOUSTON IS TOO LATE. On the sixth day of March the convention, which had adopted the Declaration of Independence on March 2, elected Houston commander-in-chief of the army. Houston set out at once for Gonzales to take command of
the forces which were gathering there for the purpose of going to the relief of Travis. He was too late, for on this same day, March 6, the Alamo fell.

Houston reached Gonzales on March 11 and found a small number of men assembled there, about one hundred seventy-four in all. The news of the fall of the Alamo had preceded him. There was scarcely a family in Gonzales that had not lost someone in the Alamo. The people were frightened. Houston decided to retreat to a position nearer the center of the settlements. The news that the army was going to leave Gonzales increased the fear; as the army prepared to flee, so did the people. This was the beginning of the "runaway scrape."
HOUSTON RETREATS TO THE COLORADO. On the night of March 13, after setting fire to Gonzales, Houston began his retreat. He and his army were heading for the Colorado. They reached Burnham's Crossing on the Colorado, near the present town of Columbus, on March 17. Houston immediately dispatched William T. Austin to the mouth of the Brazos for some artillery. It seems that Houston planned to make the Colorado his line of defense, where he expected to get reinforcements from East Texas and also some news of what had happened to Fannin. Two days after his arrival at the Colorado, Houston took his little army over to the east bank of the river. He then burned the ferry at Burnham's and moved downstream a few miles to Beason's Crossing; there he remained until March 26.

On the day that Houston left Burnham's Crossing, the Mexicans arrived on the Colorado. The Texans were being pursued. Houston had received many recruits and perhaps could have defeated the Mexicans, but he waited for his artillery and for information from Goliad.

When the Mexicans arrived on the Colorado, Houston decided to continue his retreat to the Brazos, and on the evening of March 26, he left the Colorado. Houston's action caused great criticism and almost caused mutiny in his army. Among those who wished to fight at once were captains Moseley Baker and Wylie Martin. Houston pursued his own course, however, and paid no attention to the criticisms.
He reached the Brazos at San Felipe de Austin on March 27. From San Felipe, Houston marched his army up the river to Groce's Ferry. Some of his men were in such a rebellious state that they refused to go with him and remained at San Felipe. Moseley Baker remained at San Felipe with about one hundred twenty men, and Wylie Martin took his company below San Felipe to guard the crossing at what was called Fort Bend. Houston camped at Groce's Ferry, near the present town of Hempstead, and remained there until April 14.

**WHY HOUSTON DIDN'T FIGHT.** There was much murmuring in the ranks and among the followers of the camp because Houston continued to retreat and seemed to refuse to fight. Houston kept his own counsel and did not talk with anyone, not even his officers.

Why did Houston wait so long? It is certain that it was not cowardice. It is likely that Houston had no plan in mind except to await the opportune moment and then to strike at Santa Anna. One of the reasons for delay certainly might have been that a victory on the Colorado would not have been decisive. Furthermore, Houston needed additional artillery and more volunteers. Finally, it is almost certain that Houston was afraid to risk a battle until he learned what had happened to Fannin, who had between four and five hundred men at Goliad. Probably Houston wished to make sure of a victory before he risked everything in
battle. Houston did not leave Groce's Ferry until April 14.

Let us leave him and his army there for a time and return to the tragic scenes that were being enacted around Goliad.

"THREE GREAT TRAGEDIES — JOHNSON AT SAN PATRICIO." It must be borne in mind that most of the events in different places occurred without the knowledge of what was going on in other areas. In those days communications were very difficult, and quite often detachments of soldiers fought their battles and met their fate in entire isolation from each other.

Yet, in spite of poor communications, it seems that Santa Anna had almost complete information about the status of affairs in Texas. He knew, for instance, all about the wild plans to invade Mexico, capture Matamoros, and dictate terms of peace in the "City of Montezuma." He knew also that Frank W. Johnson and Dr. James Grant were in the area of San Patricio and Agua Dulce, preparing to invade Mexico, and that Fannin was at Goliad. He seemed to be able to learn much more about the Texans than they were able to learn about him.

There were two main parts to Santa Anna's plan for the conquest of Texas. He himself led the army to San Antonio for the purpose of capturing that town. He then planned to march into the interior of Texas. The other force, which was led by General Urrea, was to move up from Matamoros into the area around
San Patricio and Goliad and, after defeating the forces there, was to meet Santa Anna at the capital of Austin's colony, San Felipe.

As you will recall, after the capture of San Antonio from General Cós in December, 1835, Frank W. Johnson and Dr. James Grant had moved down into the area around San Patricio and Agua Dulce in search of horses and mules for the purpose of invading Mexico. General Urrea reached San Patricio from Matamoros on the night of February 27 and immediately attacked the town. Nearly all of the Texans were killed. Colonel Johnson and at least three others, however, escaped and made their way to Refugio. Grant's party was attacked by Urrea's soldiers on March 2, at Agua Dulce Creek, about twenty miles from San Patricio. All of Grant's men were killed except R. R. Brown, who escaped on horseback. He was pursued and captured, however, but he lived to tell the story of what happened. Grant was later killed by the Mexicans.

The Goliad Massacre

While the Mexicans were hunting down and destroying the forces of Johnson and Grant, Fannin had gone to Goliad and had fortified the old La Bahía Mission, calling it Fort Defiance. It was here, on March 14, that Fannin received the order from Houston to destroy the fortifications and to retreat to Victoria. He had approximately four hundred men — most of them volunteers from the United States.
Among the companies from the United States were the New Orleans Greys, the Red Rovers of Alabama, the Mobile Grays, and the Mustangs of Kentucky.

**FIVE FATEFUL DAYS.** Fannin did not obey Houston’s orders immediately but waited five days before beginning his retreat. In the meantime, General Urrea, who had just defeated the two leaders of the Matamoros expedition, had turned his attention to Goliad and had practically surrounded the town. Fannin has been bitterly criticized for this delay. The critics say that he should have carried out Houston’s orders immediately. Of course, it is easy to see now that he might have escaped the clutches of the Mexicans if he had followed directions. Before deciding whether he was justified, let us see why he delayed.

**FANNIN SENDS KING AND WARD TO REFUGIO.** The inhabitants of Goliad and the surrounding vicinity were frightened when the news of the battles of San Patricio and Agua Dulce reached them. Fannin had what seemed at the time to be good reasons for delay. Sometime before he received orders to retreat to Victoria, he heard the news of Urrea’s advance toward Refugio, and he dispatched Captain King with a small company of men to protect the settlers. However, when King reached Refugio on March 12, which was two days before Fannin received orders from Houston, he found that General Urrea’s cavalry was already there. For his own protection, King took refuge in an old mission. He sent a messenger
immediately to Fannin, who received the report at midnight of the same day.

Ask yourself the question: If you had been in command at Goliad, what would you have done? There seemed to be only one thing Fannin could do, and that was to send aid to King and his twenty-eight men. He sent Ward with one hundred men to King's relief. If any great military mistake was made, it was made by King and Ward.

Ward reached the mission at Refugio on the thirteenth, and Mexican reinforcements arrived the next day. King intended to return to Goliad on the fourteenth, but when the news of the reinforcements was received, he took a few men from the mission and went to see what he could find out. While on this exploratory mission, he and his entire party were captured and shot.

When Ward heard the firing, he took his command and started out to aid King. Ward later retreated to the mission, where a desperate battle took place. It was said the number of Mexicans either killed or wounded totaled two hundred. On the following night Ward escaped from the mission and started for Victoria.

All this time Fannin waited at Goliad for some word from Ward and King. He felt that he could not abandon them while there was hope of their return. This is the full explanation of his failure to carry out Houston's orders. Anxiety for the safety of Ward and King mounted, and on March 16 Captain Frazier, who had lived in Refugio, proposed to Fan-
nin that if Fannin would supply him with a good horse he would go to Refugio and return with news of King and Ward within twenty-four hours — unless, as Frazier said, he were killed or captured. Fannin consented to this. At four o'clock on the following day Frazier returned, as he said he would, with a complete account of the disaster which had befallen King and of Ward's retreat to Victoria. Fannin made plans immediately to retreat at daybreak the following morning.

**THE BATTLE OF COLETO CREEK.** There was no reason now to wait longer. Early on the morning of the nineteenth of March, Fannin began his retreat to Victoria. He crossed the San Antonio River and began the march. His force had been reduced to approximately three hundred, but he was well-equipped with arms, including nine cannons. With this artillery available, Fannin believed that his men would be equal to any force the Mexicans might send against them.

Fannin's line of march lay over the prairie towards the Coleto Creek, which is about ten miles from Goliad. About three o'clock in the afternoon he halted to rest on the prairie, some three miles from the Coleto. This was a most unfortunate delay and was opposed by Fannin's officers. After an hour, Urrea's cavalry came in and blocked the Texans' approach to the creek. Quick preparations were made for battle. The wagons and oxcarts were massed in the center, and a hollow square was formed with the
artillery at the corners. The cannons, however, be-
came useless early in the battle, as they became too
hot to use. As night came on, the Mexicans with
General Urrea drew a line around the doomed Texans.
The night that followed was one of gloom in the
Texan camp. As they encamped that night, seven of
their own men were dead and sixty wounded.

One of the doctors who was later spared by the
Mexicans wrote an account of this affair. In speaking
of the situation immediately after the battle he said:
"We now had time to look around us and consider
the situation. It was after sunset and a night of im-
penetrable darkness, such as is rarely to be witnessed.
We were without water, and many, especially the
wounded, suffered from thirst, and, on further in-
quiry, we found from some unaccountable oversight
we had left our provisions behind. Our teams during
the engagement were killed or had strayed off beyond
our reach. We had seven men killed and sixty wound-
ed, about forty of whom were disabled. Colonel
Fannin had committed a grievous error in suffering
us to stop on the prairie at all. We ought to have
moved on at all hazards and all costs until we reached
the timber. . . . The want of water was most severely
felt, for all had become thirsty, and more especially
the wounded, whose misery was greatly aggravated
by it."

The officers consulted during the night and de-
cided that the best thing to do was to surrender
if they could get honorable terms. This seemed es-
pecially true when they learned that General Urrea re-
ceived reinforcements during the night. When the
matter was first proposed to Colonel Fannin, he was
opposed to it, saying, "We whipped them off yester-
day and we can do so again today." But the situ-
ation seemed hopeless. When he found that the senti-
ment for surrender was unanimous, or nearly so, he
ordered the white flag to be raised.

Fannin had great contempt for the Mexicans' abil-
ity to fight, and he would have preferred to fight
on, for he was determined to defeat them. He had
shown this same spirit in a letter which he wrote
on February 28, 1836, about two weeks before the
surrender. To a friend he wrote, "I have about 420
men here, and if I can get provisions in tomorrow or next day I can maintain myself against any force. I will never give up the ship. . . . If I am whipped it will be well done and you may never expect to see me. I hope to see all Texans in arms soon. If not, we shall lose our homes and must go east of the Trinity for awhile.’’

As we shall see, Fannin did not go east of the Trinity. It was his lot to go west.

**FANNIN’S SURRENDER.** After the white flag was raised, Colonel Fannin, with his attendant officers, met the Mexican officials between the lines. There are many contradictory accounts of what happened at this meeting. No doubt the Texans believed that in surrendering as prisoners of war they would be granted the privilege of returning to their homes when the war was over.

However, the document which was signed by Fannin has been recently discovered, and it is found that the Mexican officials made no direct promises regarding the disposition of the men. They surrendered under the Mexican law, which said that any foreigner taken in arms would be executed.

That they were to be sent back to their homes was indicated by the remarks of one of the Mexican colonels, who was superintending the receiving of the arms from the Texans. An eyewitness said that, as they delivered up the arms, this Mexican colonel said, ‘‘Well, gentlemen, in ten days, liberty and home.’’ The document itself says that the Texans
“surrendered as prisoners of war subject to the disposition of the supreme government of Mexico.”

If you wish to be critical, you can say that Fannin should never have accepted such terms from the Mexicans; but, again, what would you have done if you had been in command? Would you have tried to fight your way out of the trap and perhaps have lost most of your men killed? If Colonel Fannin had done this, he and his men would have been forced to abandon those who had already been killed or wounded. Would you have been willing to abandon these people to their fate? Or would you have surrendered, just as Fannin did, with the hope that you might save all of your men? It seems that, in the light of all the information he had, Fannin did the right thing.

THE GOLIAD MASSACRE. After the signing of the terms of surrender, the Texans were marched back to Goliad and imprisoned in the old La Bahia Mission. Here on March 26 they were joined by Ward’s men, who had been captured at Victoria.

On Sunday, March 27 (Palm Sunday), the prisoners were marched out of the fort in three different companies — one on the Corpus Road, one toward the lower ford, and one on the Bexar Road. They went about one-half or three-fourths of a mile from town, where they were halted and shot. It seems that the prisoners were told different stories, such as that they were to go for wood, to drive up beeves, or to proceed to the Port of Copano. Some escaped when the
shooting started, but in all, about three hundred fifty Texans were killed.

Santa Anna must bear the blame for this butchery. First of all, he was responsible for the law which called for the execution of any foreigner taken with arms in Mexican territory; secondly, it was he who sent the order to the Mexican officials for the execution of all prisoners. Generals Urrea and Portilla and others were opposed to carrying out the order.

Thus one tragedy after another occurred to discourage the Texans. The forces of Johnson, Grant,
King, Ward, Travis, and Fannin had all been wiped out. Everything now rested on the broad shoulders of Sam Houston and his little army, which was in retreat eastward across Texas.

**THE RUNAWAY SCRAPE.** The army, accompanied by hundreds of women and children, was in full flight from the Mexicans. This has been called the "runaway scrape." Smithwick gives the following account of this flight:

"The desolation of the country through which we passed beggars description. Houses were standing open, the beds unmade, the breakfast things still on the tables, pans of milk moulding in the dairies. There were cribs full of corn, smoke houses full of bacon, yards full of chickens that ran after us for food, nests of eggs in every fence corner, young corn and garden truck rejoicing in the rain, cattle cropping the luxuriant grass, hogs, fat and lazy, wallowing in the mud, all abandoned. Forlorn dogs roamed around the deserted homes, their doleful howls adding to the general sense of desolation. Hungry cats ran mewing to meet us, rubbing their sides against our legs in token of welcome. Wagons were so scarce that it was impossible to remove household goods, many of the women and children, even, had to walk. Some had no conveyance but trucks, the screeching of which added to the horror of the situation. One young lady said she walked with a bucket in hand to keep the trucks on which her mother and their little camping outfit rode from taking fire."
"And, as if the arch fiend had broken loose, there were men — or devils, rather — bent on plunder, galloping up behind the fugitives, telling them the Mexicans were just behind, thus causing the hapless victims to abandon what few valuables they had tried to save. There were broken-down wagons and household goods scattered all along the road. Stores with quite valuable stocks of goods stood open, the goods on the shelves, no attempt having been made to remove them."

FROM RETREAT TO ADVANCE
AFTER THE RUNAWAY SCRAPE

Now, after the unpleasantness of detailing these sad events, let us turn to Sam Houston and his army, whom we left camped on the banks of the Brazos River at Groce's Ferry. The criticism of General Houston became more bitter because the soldiers believed he should turn and give battle to Santa Anna. In the first days of April the vice-president of the Republic, Lorenzo de Zavala, and the secretary of war, Thomas Jefferson Rusk, joined the army, it was said, to try to encourage Houston to make a stand. The Texas Army was scattered up and down the Brazos, with Moseley Baker at San Felipe, Wylie Martin at Fort Bend, and Houston and his followers at Groce's Ferry.

When Santa Anna reached San Felipe in person on April 7, he found that Houston had moved. Santa Anna believed the Texas Army had decided to keep
out of his way and to let him overrun the whole of Texas. He immediately took about one thousand men and one cannon and tried to cross the Brazos.

Now, as you recall, Baker was still at San Felipe. He so gallantly disputed Santa Anna's passage, that the Mexican general was forced to give up the cannon and to move down to Fort Bend. Wylie Martin was there, and his men fought gallantly, but Santa Anna was able to effect a crossing. He pushed on down to Harrisburg, which he burned on the sixteenth of April, and then moved down to the new Washington on Galveston Bay. In the meantime Burnet and his government had moved to Harrisburg, then to Galveston Bay, and were just leaving in a boat when Santa Anna arrived.

**HOUSTON PREPARES TO FOLLOW SANTA ANNA.** On the fourteenth of April, Houston left his encampment on the Brazos. Just as he was leaving, the army came into possession of two six-pound cannons given to the Texans by the people of Cincinnati. The cannons have been affectionately called the "Twin Sisters."

Santa Anna was now separated from his army and had run into a trap on a little peninsula below the town of Harrisburg. Houston decided to follow him, and on the eighteenth, Deaf Smith, a scout, brought in the information that Santa Anna was trapped on the peninsula. Houston continued the pursuit, and the two armies found themselves face to face at a point near where the Buffalo Bayou and San
Jacinto River come together. There was considerable skirmishing on the twentieth day of April, but Houston thought that the main battle should be postponed until the Texans recovered from the long and rapid marches.

**THE BATTLE OF SAN JACINTO.** Nothing happened on the twenty-first until the afternoon. The two armies were about a mile apart, and each seemed to be waiting for the other. At nine o'clock in the morning, General Cos had arrived with four hundred fifty men to reinforce Santa Anna’s army. These men had come by way of Vince’s Bridge over an arm of Vince’s Bayou. Houston at once sent Deaf Smith to destroy this bridge, so that no further reinforcements could come by that route, nor could the Mexican soldiers escape across the bridge.

There was some talk in the Texan camp of waiting until the next day to attack the Mexicans; but the Texans had nearly eight hundred men, and they believed they could defeat Santa Anna. Furthermore, the Texans were clamoring for a fight. Most of these men had lived in Texas for many years. A few of them were survivors of the Goliad massacre, and many others had lost friends or relatives either at the Alamo, Goliad, Refugio, San Patricio, or Agua Dulce.

At three o’clock in the afternoon Houston ordered the men to prepare for battle. At four o’clock the command to march was given. They advanced rapidly, and Houston had difficulty in getting his men to hold their fire until they were close enough to be effective.
The battle cry was "Remember the Alamo! Remember Goliad!"

The Mexicans were taken completely by surprise, and all efforts of the Mexican officers to rally their men proved hopeless. The Mexican soldiers immediately began the race for their lives across the prairies, with the Texan soldiers in hot pursuit. In eighteen minutes the battle was over.

**MEXICAN LOSSES.** The Mexicans suffered terrific losses at the Battle of San Jacinto. About 630 were killed, and 208 were wounded. In addition, 730 were taken prisoner. A few escaped, but some were
captured afterwards, including General Santa Anna, General Cós, Colonel Almonte, and several other officers. The Texans captured many prizes, including $18,184, large quantities of arms, army stores, and camp equipment. Many mules, horses, and wagons were also captured.

**TEXAN LOSSES.** The number of men engaged on the Texan side in the Battle of San Jacinto was less than eight hundred; their losses were two killed and twenty-three wounded. Among those wounded was General Sam Houston, who was wounded in the ankle by a cannon ball.

**THE CAPTURE OF SANTA ANNA.** The night after the battle was one of unlimited joy and celebration. The next day, however, the Texans turned to the business of tracking down Mexicans who had escaped. It seems that James A. Sylvester, a sergeant in the service of Texas, was the one who captured the greatest prize of all — that is, Santa Anna. Sylvester did not recognize Santa Anna, who had disguised himself as a common soldier. He could not, however, completely disguise himself, and Sylvester noticed he wore a fine linen shirt with studs in the bosom. Sylvester and the other men who joined him did not know who their prisoner was until they arrived at camp. Some of the Mexicans gave the secret away when they exclaimed in Spanish, "*El Presidente!* *El Presidente!*" meaning "The President!" However, as soon as Santa Anna was taken to generals Houston and Thomas J. Rusk, he immediately stated his name
and rank and demanded the treatment of a prisoner of war.

PEACE ARRANGEMENTS

ARMISTICE AGREED UPON. As soon as Santa Anna was brought into camp, he went into a conference with generals Houston and Rusk. Because of differences in language, it was very difficult for them to understand each other. At first, a very young man, Moses Austin Bryan, acted as interpreter, and for a time Vice-President Zavala helped them to understand what was being said. Finally, General Rusk called for General Almonte, who did most of the translating and interpreting for the interview. During the interview it was said that General Santa Anna, being much exhausted, asked for opium, which was given to him.

After long discussions, an agreement was reached. Santa Anna ordered General Filisola and General Gona to retire to San Antonio at once. General Urrea was directed to retreat to Victoria. All hostilities were halted.

THE TREATY OF VELASCO. As you already know, the officials of the Texas government were leaving Galveston just as Santa Anna arrived. From there they went to Velasco at the mouth of the Brazos River, where they remained for the duration of the war. For this reason, the treaty which the Texans made with Santa Anna on May 14, 1836, was called the Treaty of Velasco.
Many Texans, including Secretary of War Lamar and Secretary of the Navy Potter, objected to negotiating with Santa Anna. They said that Santa Anna should be shot as a murderer. A controversy arose over this question, but finally better counsels prevailed, and it was decided to make a treaty with him.

The treaty had two parts, one secret and one public. The public treaty provided as follows:

1. Santa Anna would never take up arms against Texas, and he would use his influence to end the war.
2. All hostilities on land and sea would cease at once.
3. The Mexican troops would evacuate Texas immediately.
4. All captured property would be restored to the rightful owner, and all private property would be respected.
5. The treaty provided also that all prisoners held by the Mexicans would be exchanged for an equal
number of Mexicans held by the Texans. (The Texans were not willing to exchange all the prisoners because there were many more Mexican prisoners than captured Texans.)

6. Finally, the public treaty provided that Santa Anna would be released whenever it seemed advisable.

On the same day the terms of the secret treaty were agreed upon. In this treaty Santa Anna promised to use his influence in Mexico to get the Mexican government to recognize the independence of Texas. He was also to try to get the Mexican government to recognize the Rio Grande as the boundary. Most important in the secret treaty, however, was the provision that Santa Anna would be released immediately.

Although great care was taken in the negotiation of these treaties, it should be remembered that Santa Anna was a prisoner and that he had no authority to make a treaty. As a matter of fact, the Mexican government ignored the treaties entirely and declared that it would not be bound by any treaty Santa Anna made.

Although Mexico rejected the treaty, the troops obeyed their commander and left the state. About 4,000 of these troops left in June. In the meantime, great numbers of volunteers were arriving in Texas from the United States. It is likely that the Mexican troops, if they had failed to comply with Santa Anna's orders, could have been driven out by these fresh volunteers.

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HAPPY DAYS AHEAD. The war was over at last. The peace treaties had been signed, and the fighting had stopped. The Texans could now go back to their farms and begin planting their crops. There was joy in the hearts of everyone — Texas was free!

With the end of fighting also came the end of the runaway scrape toward East Texas. You will recall that this runaway scrape started back at Gonzales on March 13, 1836. It had continued along with Houston’s army, and many joined it as they proceeded eastward. Because of fear of the Mexicans the men and
women left their homes, their crops, and all their property in an effort to protect their lives. This all came to an end with the termination of the war.

Mrs. Dilue Harris, who was one of the many women who joined the runaway scrape, lived to tell the story of the trip over and back. Recording how those people actually felt, Mrs. Harris tells how joyous was the day they learned that the war was over. She wrote, "Suddenly we heard someone calling from the direction of Liberty. We could see that it was a man on horseback waving his hat; and, as we knew there was no one left at Liberty, we thought the Mexicans had crossed the Trinity. The young men seized their guns, but when the rider got near enough for us to understand what he said, it was, 'Turn back. The Texans have whipped the Mexican army and the Mexicans are prisoners. No danger! No danger! Turn back!' When he reached camp, he could scarcely speak, he was so excited and out of breath. When the young volunteers began to understand the glorious news they wanted to fire a salute but Father made them stop. He told them they had better save their ammunition, for they might need it."

**AMERICANS GIVE ASSISTANCE.** A history of the Texas Revolution would be incomplete without some account of the part played in this struggle by the people of the United States. The people there were very sympathetic toward the Texans, for not over fifty years had passed since they themselves had gone through the ordeal of establishing their free-
dom from England. The United States furnished aid to the Texans in many ways. You will recall that the consultation in 1835 had sent Austin, Wharton, and Archer to the States to get assistance, and they found that their task was easy because of the sympathy which the people had for the Texans.

There were three particular ways in which the United States gave assistance. In the first place, they gave or loaned large sums of money to the colonists; and many supplies of food, clothing, ammunition, and other valuable goods were furnished. In addition to money and supplies, many volunteers from the United States came to Texas to help drive out the Mexicans. Several of the companies which took San Antonio in 1835 had just come in from the United States. Many of those unfortunate men who perished in the defense of Texas were from the United States.

The third thing that the United States did was very helpful. General Gaines, with a detachment of United States soldiers, was stationed opposite Nacogdoches. This tended to keep the Indians quiet. You easily can see that if the Indians had gone on the war-path while Texas was engaged in the struggle with Mexico, the Revolution might never have succeeded.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. What was the position of the Texas troops when the Campaign of 1836 began? What was Santa Anna’s plan of attack?
2. Give the story of the fall of the Alamo.
3. Why was the Alamo important?
4. Give the reasons for Houston’s retreat from Gonzales.
5. Tell about Houston's trouble with the army.
6. Do you think Houston was right in delaying the fight?
7. Describe the great tragedies which happened to Johnson and Grant.
8. Why did Fannin fail to obey Houston's orders at once? Do you think Fannin was justified?
10. Tell all you know of the Battle of San Jacinto.
11. What were the terms of the treaty which Houston made with Santa Anna?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

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<td>parapet</td>
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<td>campaign (war)</td>
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DO IT YOURSELF

1. Prepare a poster urging Texans to unite against Santa Anna. Be sure to show the grievances against Santa Anna and Mexico.
2. Imagine yourself one of those who took part in the runaway scrape. Tell of incidents of the flight and of the hardships suffered.
3. Prepare an article for an imaginary newspaper for April 22, 1836. Report all the news.
4. Write a defense of Travis and others who decided to defend the Alamo instead of retreating. What might have been the result if Travis and his men had deserted the Alamo?

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Bolton, H. E., and Barker, E. C., *With the Makers of Texas*, pp. 183-213. Here you will find stories of the Goliad massacre, the Battle of San Jacinto, a Mexican's story of San Jacinto, the capture of Santa Anna, the runaway scrape, and the return home.

The Battle of San Jacinto was over, some say, in eighteen minutes. The full importance of the battle, however, may not
be measured by its length. As a matter of fact, this battle determined that the boundary line between the Latin American and Anglo-American nations would be the Rio Grande. As a tribute to the brave Texans who fought for and won independence, the government of the United States and that of Texas joined together to erect a magnificent monument on the San Jacinto battlefield. The great shaft of the monument towers five hundred seventy feet high and is crowned at the top with a huge Texas star. The cost was $1,500,000.

This beautiful memorial honors not only those who fought at San Jacinto, but all those who fought for independence. On its walls is carved the history of the Revolution and of colonial Texas. Carved on one of its eight walls are these words about the importance of the Revolution and of San Jacinto:

“Measured by its results San Jacinto was one of the decisive battles of the world. The freedom of Texas from Mexico won here led to annexation and to the Mexican War, resulting in the acquisition by the United States of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, California, Utah, and parts of Colorado, Wyoming, Kansas, and Oklahoma. Almost one-third of the present area of the American nation, nearly a million square miles of territory, changed sovereignty.”
Chapter X
The Republic of Texas

Texas had never been satisfied under Mexican rule. She was unhappy when Coahuila and Texas were joined together in 1824, and she had always hoped for separation. Now she was not only separated from Coahuila, but also from Mexico. The troubles Texas had under Mexico were gone, yet there were many to take their place. The problems were different but no less pressing. As an independent Republic, Texas was
beginning ten troubled years, in which failure was more common than success.

**THE PROBLEMS THEY FACED.** The Texans were true frontiersmen and approached their public affairs with hope and vigor. They had to (1) set up a new government; (2) administer the public lands estimated at 180,000,000 acres; (3) levy and collect taxes; (4) quiet the Indians and provide general defense; (5) deal with Mexico, for she would not honor the Treaty of Velasco; (6) establish relations with foreign countries; (7) pay the public debt; and (8) build roads, churches, schools and do other things required of an independent state. A people with less courage and fortitude would have lost heart at once.

**NO POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE REPUBLIC.** Before the Revolution there had developed in Texas what were called the Peace party and an opposing group, the War party. These were not political parties in the strictest sense. In fact, no political parties developed during the days of the Republic. The issues in each election did not concern policies but men instead. A voter might be described as being for or against Houston, or for or against Austin. Men rallied around their favorite candidate because they liked him or because his position on some local affair suited their interests.

**BURNET’S ADMINISTRATION.** You recall that the temporary or ad interim government had been
hurriedly set up at Washington-on-the-Brazos in March, 1836. The Alamo had already fallen, and there was no time to hold an election. It was inaugurated barely in time to start running away from Santa Anna's army. The officers elected were forced at once to flee to Harrisburg, now a part of Houston. The government had hardly settled down there when the Mexican army appeared, causing the government to flee in confusion to Galveston. After San Jacinto, President Burnet and his cabinet went to the battlefield for a short stay. From here they went to Velasco at the mouth of the Brazos. A few months later the seat of government was moved to Columbia. You can see that this traveling government could not have had much control over the people before the battle at San Jacinto. Now, with the war at an end, it had to govern Texas and apply itself to the tasks before it.

One great problem which plagued Burnet had to do with the army and the treatment of Santa Anna. The secret Treaty of Velasco had promised that Santa Anna would be sent home immediately. Burnet believed that he should be released because the Texans had promised it. He thought that nations, as well as men, should keep their word. However, two members of the cabinet, including Lamar, had refused to sign the treaty and insisted that Santa Anna should be court-martialed and shot. On June 1 at Velasco, Burnet placed Santa Anna on the Invincible to be sent to Vera Cruz. The following incident having occurred, the sailing was delayed.
THE ARMY INTERFERES. Volunteers had continued to come into Texas in large numbers. Nearly all of them were ambitious and were seeking adventure. If they could not have a fight, they could at least have some excitement. None of them had had any part in the war.

Some of these volunteers arrived at Velasco on the very day Santa Anna was to sail for Vera Cruz. They demanded that "The Napoleon of the West" be brought ashore. The secretaries of war and navy were joined by many others, and such a scene was created that Burnet could do nothing else. Santa Anna was forced off the vessel and again imprisoned. For a time there was real danger that the army might overthrow the civil government. This would have been a tragedy indeed.

ARMY IS PRACTICALLY INDEPENDENT. Why didn't Burnet just discharge the men from the army and send the new volunteers—the trouble-makers—back to the United States? Texas could never pay a large army, anyway.

In the first place, Burnet probably could not have given such orders to the army with any hope that they would be obeyed. The army was practically independent of the civil government, even though Burnet was supposed to be the commander-in-chief. In the second place, he could not afford to break up the army in the face of the situation. Texas was still at war with Mexico, since Mexico had refused to abide by the Treaty of Velasco.
Since he could not send the volunteers back home nor safely reduce the number of troops, President Burnet continued to be plagued by the army. The men were encamped near the coast and were idle all day long. With nothing to do, they appointed committees to wait on the president and tell him how to perform his duties. Worst of all, in their idleness the men revived the idea of invading Mexico. They refused to accept Lamar, who had been sent by the cabinet to command them. Instead, they elected Felix Huston, who had just come from the United States. They were a law unto themselves. The presidency under such conditions was a real burden.

THE FIRST ELECTION, SEPTEMBER, 1836. Things grew a little better by midsummer of 1836. Law and order had been restored sufficiently, President Burnet thought, to enable the people to give attention to an election. On July 23, therefore, he issued a call for an election to be held the first Monday in September. The Texans were to vote on three things: (1) the adoption of the Constitution, which the convention had written; (2) the election of a president, a vice-president, and members of Congress; and (3) the question of annexation to the United States.

There were three candidates for the presidency: Sam Houston, the hero of the San Jacinto campaign; Henry Smith, a provisional governor of Texas; and Stephen F. Austin, who was to be called the "Father of Texas." Austin was beloved by most of those who knew him, but he had been so often out of Texas
that many did not know him. Soon after he returned from his long imprisonment in Mexico, he went to the United States to get aid for Texas. Everyone knew Houston, however, and all felt great sentiment for this military hero. He was elected by a large majority. Mirabeau B. Lamar was chosen as vice-president.

The Constitution was approved or ratified by an almost unanimous vote, and only ninety-one votes in all of Texas were cast against being annexed to the United States. The first Congress, made up of fourteen senators and twenty-nine representatives, met at Columbia on October 3, 1836. On October 22 Houston and the other officers were inaugurated under the new Constitution.

**PRESIDENT HOUSTON.** Sam Houston had been called "The Raven," but after 1836 he was known as "The Hero of San Jacinto." He had a remarkable career. Houston was born in Rockbridge County, Virginia, March 2, 1793. His father died while he was very young, and he moved with his mother to Tennessee. There he went to school, clerked in a store, worked on the farm, and later taught school. In these early years he learned the habits, character, and even some of the language of the Indians.

Houston very early became interested in the military. At the age of twenty he joined the United States Army, and he first won fame in the Battle of Horse Shoe Bend against the Creek Indians in Alabama. After retiring from the army, he studied law and became a follower of Andrew Jackson. He served for
four years as a member of Congress from Tennessee, and then he became the governor of that state.

Houston's marriage broke up for some reason soon after he became governor. His wife returned home, and he resigned his governorship. For the next few years he lived among the Indians of Arkansas and was formally adopted by the Cherokees.

Houston moved to Texas in 1833 and made his home in Nacogdoches. He was an important figure in Texas from this day until his death. As you know, he was a member of the Convention of 1833, the Consultation of 1835, and of the Convention of 1836. He was twice chosen as commander-in-chief of the Texas Army, a position he held throughout the war.

To go ahead of the story, he served two terms as president of the Republic, 1836 to 1838 and 1841 to 1844. From 1846 to 1859 he was senator from Texas. He then became governor and served to the spring of 1861. He died at Huntsville in 1863 — one of the greatest of all Texans.

**HOUSTON’S FIRST ADMINISTRATION — 1836-1838.** Conditions in Texas were in confusion, and the outlook was gloomy when General Houston became the first president of the Republic. Texas was almost surrounded by trouble. South of the Rio Grande the Mexicans were threatening to return to Texas and renew the fighting. North and west the Indians were hostile and threatening because they were losing their hold on the lands. On the east, the United States was friendly, but from there every day came
large numbers of adventurous and quarrelsome Americans. They came to fight the Mexicans; but since there were no Mexicans to fight, they became a problem. As if these things were not enough, the government was in debt, had no money, and, what was worse, had no way to get any.

These were grave problems, but Houston met them with intelligence and determination. He acted wisely from the first in the appointment of his cabinet, which was designed to unite Texas. Austin became secretary of state and Henry Smith, secretary of the treasury. These men had been his opponents in the election of 1836. He appointed Thomas J. Rusk as secretary of war; J. Pinckney Henderson, attorney general; S. Rhoads Fisher, secretary of the navy; and Robert Barr, postmaster general.

_Houston's Policies._ You will later learn the details of how Houston dealt with the various problems. It is enough here to list what his general policies were:

1. He pursued a friendly policy toward Mexico and thus prevented the renewal of the struggle.
2. He reduced the size of the army.
3. He followed a policy of peace and good will toward the Indians and thus protected the Texas settlers from cruel attacks.
4. He adopted a policy of strict economy. He tried to spend no more than the government collected.
5. He favored annexation.
6. He released Santa Anna and sent him to Mexico.

DEATH OF STEPHEN F. AUSTIN. Early in Houston's administration, on December 27, 1836, Stephen F. Austin died. This event was made sadder by the fact that Austin was such a young man — only forty-three. His health had been undermined by his long imprisonment in Mexico, and he was never very strong. In a weakened condition he began his duties as secretary of state at Columbia and worked long hours in a garret-like room with no fire. A cold which he contracted developed into pneumonia, and death soon took him away. Austin, as secretary of state, had been working to get the United States to recognize the independence of Texas. This had been substantially achieved, and he died believing that he had succeeded.

By nine o'clock on the morning of December 27, 1836, it had become evident that Austin was dying. At that time the doctor had applied a treatment, and Austin murmured, "Now, I will go to sleep." A little while later he awoke from a happy dream. He had dreamed that the United States had recognized the independence of Texas. His last words were: "Texas recognized, Archer told me so. Did you see it in the papers?" Austin had loved the idea of home, but he never married: the love and affection which most men give to their families he had given to Texas. It was indeed fitting that his last words were about the welfare of Texas, the object of his affection. He was buried in a lonely grave at Peach Point. In 1910 his remains
were removed to Austin and buried in the State Cemetery. As truly as any man killed in the Revolution, Austin gave his life for Texas.

**THE SECOND NATIONAL ELECTION, 1838.** It seems that the people of Texas were pleased with the way Sam Houston had conducted the affairs of the state. The Constitution, however, provided that the first president would serve only two years and that he could not succeed himself. Houston could not, therefore, be a candidate in 1838.

There were three men who sought to be the second president. They were Mirabeau B. Lamar, vice-president; James W. Collinsworth, chief justice; and Peter W. Grayson, former attorney general. Before election day, Lamar was left unopposed by the deaths of the other two candidates.

**LAMAR’S POLICIES.** Lamar’s policies were almost the opposite of those of Houston. They were mainly these:

1. He opposed annexation to the United States. It was his plan to make Texas a great independent nation.
2. He did not discourage fighting along the border of Mexico as Houston had.
3. He pursued an unfriendly policy toward Mexico by sending an expedition into New Mexico.
4. He waged war against the Indians and drove the Cherokees out of the state.
5. He supported the idea of free public schools.
6. He did not pursue a policy of economy.

PRESIDENT HOUSTON AGAIN ELECTED, 1841-1844. There were two candidates for the presidency in 1841. They were Sam Houston and David G. Burnet, who was the vice-president during Lamar's administration. Burnet was, therefore, identified with the Lamar administration, which had not been very popular. Houston was elected by about a two to one vote.

Houston was inaugurated in December, 1841, and he lost no time in returning to the policies of his first administration. This meant reversing most of the policies followed by Lamar. He tried to keep peace with Mexico but found it difficult, for the Mexicans had been irritated by the unfriendly attitude of the Lamar policies. He made friendly treaties with the Indians and practically stopped the bloody warfare with them. He returned to a very strict economy and improved the finances of the Republic.

ANSON JONES SUCCEEDS HOUSTON, 1844-1846. The election of 1844 proved to be the last for the Republic of Texas. The two candidates in this election were Anson Jones (Houston's secretary of state) and General Edward Burleson. Jones was elected by a small majority. Kenneth L. Anderson was elected vice-president. The main event of this administration was the annexation of Texas to the United States, which had been partially arranged be-
fore Jones became president. Jones presided at the ceremonies and surrendered the reins of government to J. Pinckney Henderson, the first governor of Texas. Let us turn now to the home affairs of the Republic.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What were the main problems which Texas faced as a Republic?
2. Did the Republic have political parties as in the United States?
3. What was the _ad interim_ government? Tell of the flight of this government and where it went.
4. What trouble did Burnet and his government have with the army?
5. Why did Burnet not discharge the army?
6. Discuss the election of 1836. Who were the candidates for president? What did the Texans vote on in this election?
7. Give a sketch of the life of Sam Houston.
8. What were the policies of Houston as president?
9. How was Austin's death a great loss to Texas?
10. Tell of the election of 1838. Who was elected? Give a sketch of his life.
11. What were Lamar's policies? How did they differ from those of Houston?

**CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY**

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**DO IT YOURSELF**

1. If you like to draw, prepare two scrolls side by side. On one write down the policies of Houston, with those of Lamar on the other scroll.
2. How are you at political campaigning? If you like such things, make or write a campaign speech for Austin, Houston, or Smith.
3. Do you agree that Austin did a great work for Texas? Write a few paragraphs about the great loss to Texas resulting from his death.
4. Make an outline of all the problems the Republic had when it was first organized.

**FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE**

Check your library for biographies of the men mentioned in this chapter.

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The results of the work of Anson Jones, the last president of the Republic of Texas, are as evident today as those of the work of any man who served either the Republic or the state. He was elected president of Texas in September, 1844, and he was inaugurated on December 9 of that year. He called a special session of Congress on June 4, 1845, and submitted the question of annexation or peace with Mexico. Mexico had agreed to recognize the independence of Texas, if Texas would not annex itself to any other country. The Congress rejected the treaty with Mexico and approved the joint resolution of annexation. Thus it fell to the lot of President Jones to perform the last official act which made Texas a part of the United States.

On February 16, 1846, President Jones addressed the assembled Senate and House of Representatives as follows:

"Gentlemen of the Senate and the House of Representatives, the great measure of annexation, so earnestly desired by the people of Texas, is happily consummated. . . . The lone star of Texas, which ten years since arose amid clouds over fields of carnage and obscurely shone for a while, has culminated, and, following an unscriutable destiny, has passed on and become fixed forever in that glorious constellation which all freemen and lovers of freedom in the world must reverence and adore—the American Union."

On this incident of lowering the lone star flag and raising the flag of the United States an eyewitness, Noah Smithwick, wrote as follows, "Many a head was bowed, many a manly cheek was wet with tears when that broad field of blue in the center of which, like a signal light, glowed the lone star, emblem of the sovereignty of Texas, was furled and laid away among the relics of the dead republic."
It was said that the broad blue flag was reverently lowered by the retiring president, but, when the flag of the Union rose in its place and caught the breeze, a deep satisfaction warmed his heart. Even as tears formed in his eyes, his voice came through in loud and repeated cheers.

In addition to his many other services, Jones, with four other men, formed the first Masonic Lodge in Texas. In 1853 he also became one of the founders of the Medical Association of Texas.

Jones was buried at Glenwood Cemetery in Houston. The 1936 Centennial Commission honored his memory by erecting a statue in Anson in Jones County, both the town and the county named for him. Barrington, his plantation home, has been restored and is in the state park at Washington-on-the-Brazos.
Chapter XI

Home Affairs of the Republic

The Mexican government had warned the Texans that they were too few in number to finance a separate government. This soon became very plain to everyone. It seems that there were many things that called for expenditure of money, especially in times of war. Food, clothing, guns, ammunition, and monthly pay had to be provided for the soldiers. The few ships of the Texas Navy had to be kept in repair, and the
sailors paid. Furthermore, the president, the members of Congress, and other government officials had to be paid. When Burnet, the temporary president, turned his office over to Houston on October 22, 1836, the Texans found that the treasury was not only empty, but the state owed about a million and a quarter dollars. This was bad news to Houston.

FINANCIAL TROUBLES

WHY THE GOVERNMENT NEEDED MONEY. Mexico continued to threaten Texas with an armed invasion. It was necessary, therefore, for the army and navy to be kept in the service, at least as long as the menace seemed real. A considerable army was also needed as protection from the Indians, who were a constant threat. Furthermore, money was needed in order to begin paying off the great national debt. These things required more money than the Republic could raise.

Even though the Republic was in poverty, the Texans were liberal with salaries to be paid the officers. The official mansion of the president was a two-room log cabin, but his salary was $10,000 a year. Of course, the other officials had to be paid in proportionate amounts. Even if the government had had only one financial obligation — that of paying the president — it could not have done so. Houston reported in June, 1837, that only $500 had come into the treasury during the first eight months of his term. Houston’s salary alone for those months amounted to approxi-
mately $7,000. The state of the treasury was so bad that Houston said he had to give his own personal note in order to obtain supplies for the government. There was no question that the government needed money; the question was how to get it.

**THE WAYS THE GOVERNMENT TRIED TO RAISE MONEY.** There were few means of raising money which were not tried. First, the officials tried to sell the public lands, but the government was giving away lands so freely that few wished to buy. Secondly, taxes were levied on the people. Some of these taxes were property taxes, business taxes, and poll taxes. A third way tried was a tax, called *customs*, levied on all goods brought into Texas from outside countries. The government tried a fourth means, that of borrowing money; but few cared to grant loans. When all these methods failed to bring in the needed revenue, the Republic issued paper money; this proved to be a mistake.

In fact, all the schemes failed to bring in sufficient money; and the government continued to go into debt.

**WORTHLESS PAPER MONEY.** When the government was forced to issue paper money, it was in bills or blank notes of various values, as our bills are today. Three kinds were issued: "star money," with a star on the back; "red backs," colored red on reverse; and what were called "exchequer bills"—these were simply promises to pay in gold or silver at a certain time. But how could the treasury pay
when it had no money? It could not, and the people soon lost confidence in the government. As a result, the paper money became almost worthless — some of it valued as low as two cents on the dollar.

**HOUSTON APPROVED ISSUANCE OF PAPER MONEY.** In his message of May 12, 1838, Houston gave the reasons why paper money was issued. These are his words: "The struggle had left us destitute and naked. There were no banks, there was no money, our lands could not be sold, and the public credit was of doubtful character." Something had to be done to keep the government from breaking up. Houston thought that the issuance of paper money was the only chance.

**A GROWING PUBLIC DEBT.** The debt of the Republic continued to grow up to the time of annexation. In spite of all Houston could do, the government owed nearly twelve million dollars when Texas was admitted to the United States. Much of this was for paper money, which had become practically worthless. The Republic had no money when it began; it had none at the close. The only difference was the huge debt it had incurred.

**INDIAN WARS**

**INDIANS QUIET DURING THE REVOLUTION.** We have seen that the Texans had money problems during the whole ten years of the Republic. The same was true of the Indian question. The gov-
ernment was never quite able to solve either problem. When the Revolution started, there were about fifteen thousand Indians in Texas. No wonder the Texans lived in constant fear that Mexico might get the Indians to rise against the Republic!

**INDIANS DESIRE LAND TITLES.** The Comanches were a very cruel and warlike tribe. They moved around from place to place. Other tribes were more civilized and had homes near Nacogdoches, where they engaged in farming and peaceful pursuits. Titles to lands did not mean much to the Comanches, but it was different with the agricultural groups —
they wanted the titles which had been promised them. Both Austin and Houston had promised them that they would be protected from greedy land seekers. The consultation also had made similar promises.

By a treaty, which General Houston and Colonel Forbes made, the Indians were promised their lands if they would remain friendly. This treaty was made in February, 1836, and by the following summer they were growing restless, for they still did not have the promised titles. They were angry about this, and when Manuel Flores, a Mexican agent, tried to stir them to fight he almost succeeded. The presence of United States troops near the Indian villages perhaps prevented it.

**PRESIDENT HOUSTON AND THE INDIANS.** When Houston became president, the Indian situation was full of danger and ready to break out at any minute. But Houston knew better than anyone how to deal with these people. He had lived among them, and he understood them well. Furthermore, he had many close friends among the Cherokees, who admired and loved him. Houston knew how dangerous the Indians were, but he had a kindly feeling for them. He immediately announced that the best way to get along with the Indians was to treat them kindly, but to be ready at all times to meet an attack. He kept up a strong ranger force and advised the building of forts along the frontier. These rangers were experienced Indian fighters, who had been used during the Revolution to keep the Indians in check.

Houston promised to allow the Indians to keep
the lands on which they were living. This, coupled with his friendly policy, worked well, for there was little Indian trouble during Houston’s administrations. However, a few roving bands of Indians still raided some settlements, stole cattle, and now and then killed a settler. In the summer of 1838 a Mexican agent tried to stir up a fight in East Texas, but it did not develop. This was mainly because of Houston’s peaceful policy.

LAMAR AND THE INDIANS. The story was very different after Lamar became president in 1838. The three years of his administration were marked by Indian wars and much bloodshed. His policy was almost the opposite to Houston’s. Lamar believed that all Indians were bad, and he hated the idea of mild treatment. He believed that the only way to deal with the Indian was to drive him out or kill him. Some people today believe that Houston’s policy was right, while others support Lamar and his policy. What do you think?

Indian raids and frontier troubles were becoming more frequent when Lamar assumed the office. Furthermore, the Cherokees were angry because they still had received no titles to their lands despite all the promises. The situation was not good, and Lamar brought on trouble at once. He announced that the Indians had no rights in the country and ordered them to leave.

Chief Bowles, the chief of the Cherokees, was particularly angered by Lamar’s stand. Did they have any
rights? You must be the judge. The Cherokees had been in Texas since the early 1820's. They were here soon after Austin brought in the first settlers. Their settlements were older than most of those of the Texans. Furthermore, every government set up by the Texans had recognized the rights of the Cherokees.

**CHEROKEES DRIVEN OUT.** When the Indians heard Lamar's statements, they decided to try to save themselves. This applied to all the Indians, not the Cherokees alone. The various tribes became so dangerous that white settlers in the West were forced to band together in groups of six or eight in order to work in their fields. Some watched; others hoed and plowed.

Much of this trouble was caused by Mexican agents sent out from Mexico. One of these agents was Manuel Flores. He worked among the Indians around Nacogdoches. In the summer of 1839 he was traveling across Texas to Nacogdoches with a band of warriors, when he was overtaken by General Edward Burleson. This was near the present town of Austin. A battle took place, in which Flores was killed. Burleson found papers on the body of Flores which showed that these Mexican agents were plotting with the Cherokees. When Burleson reported this, President Lamar was convinced that the Cherokees must be removed from Texas. He tried to buy their homes and their farms. When they refused to sell, however, war was waged against them. They were driven across the Red River in the summer of 1839.
THE COMANCHE WAR CRY. The war cry which chilled the hearts of the settlers most was that of the wild Comanches. This cry was heard often in 1839 and 1840, when these dreaded Indians made war all along the western frontier.

There were two important battles fought with Comanches in 1840. The first was the famous "Council House Fight." It occurred at San Antonio in March, 1840. The Comanches had said they wished to be at peace with the white men; so a powwow was held at San Antonio. The chiefs were to come and bring all their prisoners, but they brought only one prisoner — a young girl named Matilda Lockhart.

The Texans were angered by this, for they knew the Comanches had many more prisoners. Therefore, they decided to hold the chiefs until the other prisoners were brought in. When the Texas soldiers marched into the room to arrest the chiefs, fighting began, and twelve chiefs, sixty-five Indian warriors, and several
women were killed. Fighting also took place outside of the council house, where most of the Indians were killed. The few squaws who were left carried the news to the tribe, and soon the other prisoners were brought in and a treaty was signed.

The second important battle was the Battle of Plum Creek in Caldwell County. In August, following the "Council House Fight," about one thousand Comanches and Kiowas raided Texas all the way to the coast. They captured Victoria, burned Linnville, stole several thousand head of cattle, killed many settlers, and destroyed much property. In their attempt to return to the hills west of Austin, they were overtaken at Plum Creek, where nearly one hundred of them were killed.

HOUSTON RESTORES PEACE. When Houston returned to office in 1841, he lost no time in reversing Lamar’s policy. He started another era of peace and good will toward all the Indian tribes. He returned to the idea of making peace treaties with them. By 1843 nearly all the tribes had made peace and had agreed not to bother the settlers. Needless to say, some of the Indians did not live up to their agreement, but most of them did. There were no more serious Indian problems while Texas was a Republic.

These wars were important for the reason that they were costly. They added to the state’s debt, which was already burdensome. Also, these hostile Indians
kept the frontier from moving westward as rapidly as it otherwise would have done.

OTHER DOMESTIC PROBLEMS

TEXAS ATTRACTS SETTLERS BY GIFTS OF LAND. Two things might have discouraged settlers from coming to Texas during the time of the Republic. They were (1) the continual threats of the Mexicans to return and take Texas and (2) the murderous activities of the Indians. Still, settlers came in large numbers. In 1836 there were perhaps thirty thousand Americans in Texas — more than the Mexicans and Indians combined. This number had increased to about one hundred thousand when Texas was annexed, nearly ten years later. In December, 1839, an observer said, "Texas Ho! is the cry. Steamboats, ships, and wagons come crowded with settlers for the young and growing Republic."

WHY THE SETTLERS CAME. The people who came to Texas had about the same reasons as other settlers had for moving westward in the United States. Among these reasons were (1) the generous land policies of Mexico and the Republic, (2) promise of adventure in Texas, (3) release from responsibilities at home, and (4) the chance to escape punishment for crime. Furthermore, (5) there were very hard times in the United States, so that many businesses failed. Texas offered a new opportunity for these people to rebuild their fortunes. (6) Some settlers came from Germany and other parts of Europe to
escape the bad rule of kings and princes. They wanted to live in a democratic country. Perhaps another reason for their coming was the wise Homestead Law of 1839.

**THE HOMESTEAD LAW OF 1839.** The purpose of the Homestead Law was to protect the home
of any man who could not pay his debts. This would prevent want and suffering on the part of the wife and children in such cases. The law provided that fifty acres or a town lot belonging to a person could not be taken because of debt. The law also provided that the owner could keep his furniture and tools, five cows, a yoke of oxen, a horse, twenty hogs, and provisions for a year. Texas still has a similar law.

**THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.** There were good reasons why the early Texans could not give much attention to education. They had the problem of earning a living and that was not easy. They lived in fear of the Indians and of the Mexicans. More important, as you know, the Republic of Texas had no money to build schools.

The Texans had been interested, however, and they had appealed to Mexico to establish a system of public schools. In answer to this the legislature of Coahuila and Texas had provided for free primary schools to be established. This was in 1829. There is also a record of the Mexican government granting several leagues of land to Nacogdoches for the purpose of establishing schools. At least, Mexico had made a beginning. Not much came of it, however, and the Texans cited the failure to establish schools as one of the causes of the Revolution.

The Texans did not do very much about education either, but how could they? They had no money. Houston had so many problems that he found little time to think of education. President Lamar, how-
ever, seemed to realize that the citizens of a republic must be educated. He believed uneducated men could not govern themselves well. Therefore, he turned his attention to the matter of public schools.

LAMAR'S FAMOUS MESSAGE. Houston, in all his messages to Congress, did not mention education, but Lamar devoted several paragraphs of his first message, December, 1838, to urging Congress to quick action. In this message were the phrases so often quoted today: “A cultivated mind is the guardian genius of Democracy. . . . It is the only dictator that free men acknowledge and the only security free men desire.”

LAWS PROVIDING FOR EDUCATION. In 1839 Congress set aside three leagues (13,284 acres) of land in each county for the support of an academy and fifty leagues for the endowment of two universities. The next year, 1840, a fourth league was set aside in each county to equip the schools. These land grants were very generous, but land was cheap and hard to sell at any price. There was, however, no system of public schools established during the days of the Republic. What education there was remained largely in the hands of private institutions.

PRAISE FOR LAMAR. We have seen how Lamar was severely criticized for his reckless spending of money and for his Indian policy. When we think of what he did for education, however, we can understand why he is called “The Father of Education.” It is true that it was to be a long time before public
schools went into operation, but he pointed the way. As a result of his policy, millions of acres of land were set aside for public schools, and every person in Texas today benefits from his acts.

LOCATION OF THE CAPITAL. We have already seen how the first government moved from place to place: from Washington-on-the-Brazos to Harrisburg; from there to Galveston; next to San Jacinto and to Velasco; finally moving to Columbia, where President Houston was inaugurated.

Where to locate the capital permanently was the question. There was bitter rivalry between East Texas and West Texas over this. The First Congress decided that the capital should be moved from Columbia to Houston. Houston was a new town and was named for the hero of San Jacinto. The government moved to Houston in May, 1837.

In 1839 the Congress appointed a commission to locate a site for the permanent capital. The site had to be somewhere between the Colorado and Trinity rivers and north of the San Antonio Road. This commission chose the present site of Austin on the north bank of the Colorado River. The president, his cabinet, and other government officials moved to the new capital in October, 1839. The capital was named Austin in honor of the "Father of Texas."

Settlements had barely reached this far west, and Austin was quite exposed to Indian attacks. Furthermore, this area was more subject to raids from Mexico. For these reasons, and because Houston desired that
the capital remain at the town named for him, efforts were made to move the government back to Houston. This angered the people of Austin, and they refused to allow the government documents to be moved. When Houston tried to have the government archives (records) moved to Washington-on-the-Brazos, there was armed resistance. The archives were returned to Austin. This has been called the "Archive War," and it occurred in December, 1842. Further efforts have been made to move the capital, but it has remained at Austin since 1839.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. What was the state of the treasury when Houston became president?
2. Why did the government need money?
3. What means were used to raise money?
4. Describe the paper money issued by the Republic.
5. Did Houston approve the issuance of paper money? Why?
6. What was the debt of the Republic at the time of annexation?
7. What troubles with the Indians did Texas have during Lamar's administration?
8. Describe the "Council House Fight."
9. What was the Homestead Law of 1839?
10. What progress in education was made while Texas was a Republic?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
expenditure  destitute  documents
proportionate archives  resistance
agent  issuance  homestead
DO IT YOURSELF

1. Many records of early land transactions speak of *varas* and *leagues*. Find other words that measure land. Compare the units of measure you find with the units we use today.

2. Can you find stories about what early Texans did for amusement? Describe a quilting party. What kind of dances were popular? Can you find accounts of patriotic celebrations?

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE


Schmitz, Joseph, *Texas Culture*. This fine little book explains in detail how the early colonists in Texas lived. The story is told largely by those who lived in early Texas; that is, it is an eyewitness account.

You have seen in this brief chapter how Sam Houston, the greatest of the leaders of the Republic, wished to pursue a peaceful policy toward the Indians. He used kindness and genuine affection to subdue the tomahawk of the red men. He did this because he sincerely believed that kind treatment could do more than cruelty in the establishment of peace between the white men and the Indian tribes. He had lived among the Indians and loved them.

How he felt about them is shown in a letter written to an Indian tribe when its chief died. It was a message of love and sympathy to a childlike race, who mourned the death of its leader, Flaco. It is given below, and we will call it “The Death of Flaco.” He addressed them as his brothers:

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"My Brothers: — My heart is sad! A dark cloud rests upon your nation. Grief has sounded in your camp. The voice of Flaco is silent. His words are not heard in council. The chief is no more. His life has fled to the Great Spirit. His eyes are closed. His heart no longer leaps at the sight of the buffalo. The voices of your camp are no longer heard to cry: 'Flaco has returned from the chase!' Your chiefs look down on the earth and groan in trouble. Your warriors weep. The loud voices of grief are heard from your women and children. The song of birds is silent. The ears of your people hear no pleasant sound. Sorrow whispers in the winds. The noise of the tempest passes. It is not heard. Your hearts are heavy.

"The name of Flaco brought joy to all hearts. Joy was on every face. Your people were happy. Flaco is no longer seen in the fight. His voice is no longer heard in battle. The enemy no longer makes a path for his glory. His valor is no longer a guard for your people. The right of your nation is broken. Flaco was a friend to his white brothers. They will not forget him. They will remember the red warrior. His father will not be forgotten. We will be kind to the Lipans. Grass shall not grow in the path between us. Let your wise men give the counsel of peace. Let your young men walk in the white path. The gray-headed men of your nation will teach wisdom. I will hold my red brothers by the hand.

Thy brother,

SAM HOUSTON"
Chapter XII

Foreign Relations of the Republic

As you already know, the Mexicans refused to accept the Treaty of Velasco which the Texans had made with Santa Anna. Mexican officials said that Santa Anna had no right to make this treaty because he was a prisoner. They also tried to prevent Santa Anna’s troops from leaving Texas. When this failed, they planned an invasion in the fall of 1836 to punish
the Texans. They were unable to do this for many reasons.

RELATIONS WITH MEXICO

WHY THE MEXICAN TROOPS DID NOT RETURN. Mexico, it seems, was almost always in a state of revolution. At this time there was a group in Mexico known as the Liberal party. This party was unhappy under the dictatorship of Santa Anna. The Liberals were opposed to the government of Santa Anna, just as the Texans had been. Santa Anna, in order to keep his government from being overthrown by the Liberals, had to devote his time to solving his problems in Mexico. Then in the fall of 1839 Mexico became engaged in a brief but very costly war with France. These things kept the Mexicans so busy at home that they did not have time to think about far-away Texas. Houston saw that the Mexicans were unable to send troops back to Texas, so he gave strict orders that the Texans along the border should not fight the Mexicans. It was for this reason that Texas was at peace during his administration.

THE REPUBLIC OF THE RIO GRANDE. Some Texans had wanted to go across the Rio Grande to join the Liberals to fight against Santa Anna. General Houston was determined that this should not happen. However, President Lamar had an entirely different view of the matter. He did not try to prevent the Texans from going to Mexico to fight. As a re-
sult, hundreds of men joined in the fight. The purpose was to establish a republic in the northern part of Mexico. It was called the "Republic of the Rio Grande" because the states which were included in it bordered on that river. Many bloody battles were fought just below the Rio Grande. At one time the Texans even went as far as Saltillo, the old capital of Coahuila and Texas.

This situation existed from September of 1839 until the end of 1840. The only result of this was to anger the Mexican officials. It made them more determined than ever to send troops to Texas as soon as they could.

THE SANTA FE EXPEDITION. The First Congress of Texas passed a law which declared that the Rio Grande from its mouth to its source and thence north to the forty-second parallel should be the southern and western boundary lines of Texas. This placed the boundary as far north as the state of Wyoming and included within the Texas limits a large part of the present state of New Mexico with Santa Fe as its principal city. There were few Americans in this territory, and Texas made no effort in its early years actually to take possession of it.
When Lamar became president in 1841, he decided to send an expedition to extend the control of Texas over this area, particularly New Mexico. Congress refused to approve this plan, but Lamar was determined. There were two things this expedition could do. First of all, since there was some dissatisfaction among the Mexicans in New Mexico, the political control of Texas could be extended over the Santa Fe area. Secondly, there was a very profitable trade between Santa Fe and the city of St. Louis in Missouri. It was hoped that this trade could be turned toward Texas. The idea of extending the control of the Texas government over these millions of acres of unoccupied land appealed to many people.
The expedition was armed and was made up of two hundred seventy soldiers and about fifty merchants and adventurers. The plan was to ask the people of the Santa Fe region to renounce the authority of Mexico and to become a part of Texas. If the inhabitants did not wish to do so, then no force was to be used. In that case they were simply to try to establish trade with them and then return to Texas.

The expedition set out from Austin in June of 1841 under the command of General Hugh McLeod. They were late in starting, and the heat of the summer had already begun. The result was that these men suffered great hardships in their efforts to reach Santa Fe. They found the Indians hostile and troublesome. Their food gave out, they had no water, and they were often lost. One of the men on the expedition said that they had so little food that they were forced to eat prairie dogs and snakes. Men and horses alike suffered the pangs of hunger and thirst.

When they finally reached New Mexico, they were immediately arrested by the Mexican governor of the territory. They were taken on foot in small bands to Mexico City. Some of them were harshly treated, and when they got to Mexico they were separated and put into different prisons.

THE OUTCOME. It was a great mistake to send this expedition to New Mexico. Far from achieving any good, it actually cost the Texas government large sums of money, which it could not afford. Furthermore, many of the men died on the way to Santa Fe.
and on the two-thousand-mile trip from there to Mexico City. Most important of all, Mexican officials were angered at this invasion (as they called it) of Mexican territory; and they immediately resolved to make an expedition into Texas.

**MEXICAN SOLDIERS RETURN, MARCH, 1842.** In March, 1842, the Mexicans, angered by this expedition, sent troops into Texas. These troops took possession of Goliad, Refugio, San Antonio, and Victoria. The people all over the Republic became alarmed at the situation, for again the Mexican flag floated over Texas.

In the meantime President Houston ordered out the militia. In July the Congress of Texas voted to declare war on Mexico, but Houston vetoed the bill. He wished the Republic of Texas to defend itself but not to attempt war. Before the forces of Texas could be assembled, the Mexican troops hauled down their flag at San Antonio and retired to the Rio Grande.

**SAN ANTONIO AGAIN CAPTURED BY THE MEXICANS.** In September of 1842 the Mexicans again returned. This time they had an army of fourteen hundred Mexican troops. These troops marched into San Antonio under the command of General Adrian Woll. Court was in session at the time; and they captured the judge, the jury, the clerks, the lawyers, and many citizens.

Colonel Mathew Caldwell organized several companies of Texans at Gonzales and went to the aid of San Antonio. General Woll met these Texans at
Salado Creek about six miles east of town, but the Texans defeated his troops. In the meantime, about fifty Texans, on their way to the aid of San Antonio from La Grange and under command of Captain Dawson, were surrounded; and all of them were either killed or captured. After the engagement at Salado Creek, General Woll left San Antonio for Mexico. He took with him sixty-seven prisoners.

**THE MIER EXPEDITION.** These two expeditions in March and September of 1842 had served to put Texas on a war footing again. By November approximately a thousand Texans, determined to carry the war into Mexico, had gathered at San Antonio. President Houston was opposed to an invasion of Mexico, but he ordered General Alexander Somervell to take command of the Texans. Under his command, they marched to the Rio Grande, supposedly for the purpose of an invasion. When they arrived at the river, General Somervell ordered his forces back to Gonzales to be demobilized. About three hundred of these men refused to obey orders. They were determined to invade Mexico with or without authority from the government.

The three hundred elected Colonel W. S. Fisher as their leader. Immediately they pushed across the Rio Grande to the town of Mier. It was here on December 25 and 26 that they encountered a force of about two thousand Mexicans. Although the Texans did not know it, they had almost won the battle when they decided to surrender. They were immediately
marched off to Mexico City, where they became prisoners. At Salado the Texans mutinied and escaped. Under the leadership of Captain Cameron, these men started back to Texas, but they soon became lost in the mountains. Almost dying of hunger and thirst, they all were eventually recaptured. At this time they numbered about one hundred seventy-six men.

DRAWING THE BLACK BEANS. Because of the mutiny it was decided that every tenth man should be shot. In order to decide which of them should be shot, a hundred fifty-nine white beans and seventeen black beans were placed in a jar, and each man was made to draw a bean. Those who drew the black beans were to be the ones to suffer the penalty. The Texans were ordered to draw, and when the drawing was over the unfortunate seventeen were blindfolded, seated on a log, and shot to death by the soldiers. The others were taken to Mexico City and imprisoned in the Castle Perote. In July of 1843 Thomas J. Green and several others made a very daring escape from this
strong prison. The others, however, remained about a year longer, when on September 16, 1844, Mexican Independence Day, Santa Anna gave orders to release them.

There is a very interesting story about one of these Mier prisoners. His name was Orlando Phelps, the sixteen-year-old son of Dr. James A. Phelps, at whose home Santa Anna was held for a while during his imprisonment in Texas. While at the Phelps home Santa Anna had tried to poison himself, and Dr. Phelps saved his life. When Santa Anna found that Orlando was the son of the man who had saved his life, he released him, gave him money, sent him to school, and finally paid his way back to Texas.

WAR WITH MEXICO ENDS. In June of 1843, while the Mier prisoners were still held captive in Mexico City, President Houston received a proposal for peace with Mexico. Therefore, he ordered the fighting to cease at once and appointed commissioners to go to Mexico to negotiate a peace treaty.

The commissioners, however, were very much disappointed when they got to Mexico. They found that Santa Anna was not interested in any peace arrangement which would leave Texas outside of the boundaries of Mexico. He would not sign the treaty, so
the negotiations lasted for nearly a year. Soon thereafter Texas was annexed to the United States.

THE TEXAS NAVY. Texas had two navies, although neither one was very large. The first navy, which was bought in 1836, was made up of the Invincible, the Independence, the Brutus, and the Liberty. These vessels did valuable service to Texas by capturing Mexican vessels during the war and bringing supplies for the Texas Army from New Orleans. However, these ships of the original Texas Navy were lost by the end of the next year. One was sold, two were wrecked, and one was captured.

By the orders of President Houston, a second navy was purchased in 1839. There were in all eight vessels which were purchased from F. Dawson of Baltimore. These vessels were described as being “the equal of any that have sailed from this port, in beauty of model, strength and durability of materials and finished specimens of workmanship.” One of them, the Zavala, was a steamship. The others were sailing vessels, the most important being the Austin, which was the flagship.

Although the purchase was ordered by President Houston, it was not made until President Lamar’s administration. As a part of his program of annoying the Mexicans, President Lamar kept the naval vessels sailing from one port to another. In 1840 he loaned the navy to the people of Yucatan, who were carrying on a war with Mexico.

When Houston became president the second time,
he decided that the cost of the navy was greater than the services rendered. In January of 1843, therefore, he asked Congress to pass a law ordering the vessels to be sold. Commodore E. W. Moore was commander of the fleet, and he refused to bring the vessels into Texas harbors. In that way he prevented the sale of the navy. When Texas joined the United States in 1845, it still had four ships. These were the San Bernard, the Wharton, the Austin, and the Archer, all of which were transferred to the United States Navy.

RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES

ENGLISH INTEREST IN TEXAS. The United States and Mexico were the two nations most vitally interested in Texas. However, such European powers as Great Britain, France, Holland, Belgium, and some of the German states recognized the independence of the Republic.

England was especially interested in Texas. There were several reasons for this interest. In the first place, England did not wish to see Texas annexed to the United States because it would tend to make the United States a stronger power. Too, many Englishmen had loaned money to Mexico, and if Mexico lost Texas, it might be unable to pay these debts. England wished to have Texas remain as an independent nation or become a part of the British Empire for two reasons. England had been engaged for many years in the manufacture of cotton products, but it had no 250
area in all of its empire where cotton could be produced in large quantities. It had, therefore, to buy most of its cotton from the United States. If England could get possession of Texas, it could produce its own cotton and thus make the manufacturing business much more profitable.

Furthermore, the English people had for many years been very much opposed to slavery. All of the slaves had been freed in England and in all of its territories. England now was interested in trying to get other countries to free their slaves. If she could control Texas, she could not only free the slaves there, but she could promote the abolition of slavery in other parts of the United States.

The annexation of Texas to the United States, of course, brought to an end all such plans. Let us turn now to the story of Texas annexation.

**TEXAS ASKS FOR ANNEXATION.** You already know that the Texans voted on annexation in the election of 1836 and that only ninety-one votes were cast against it. It was very clear that Texas wished to be annexed to the United States. When Texas asked to be annexed, however, the United States refused. Mexico had declared that the annexation of Texas to the United States would mean war with Mexico. So, if the United States wished to avoid war, it must not annex Texas. Then, too, there were many people in the United States who were bitterly opposed to slavery. On this basis, they opposed the annexation of Texas, a slave state. The Texans, an-
gered at this refusal, withdrew their offer in October, 1838.

**ENGLISH INTEREST IN TEXAS SPURS UNITED STATES TO ACTION.** For two or three reasons the people of the United States began to change their views on the matter of annexation. In the first place, during all these years and particularly after 1840, immigrants moved into Texas in great numbers. As the population increased, the businessmen of the United States began to see how valuable the trade with Texas might become. Also, the rumor was spread around that England was planning to take possession of Texas.

Now, some people of the United States might object to annexation, but they much preferred annexation to having Texas fall into the hands of England. Toward the end of 1843 the government of the United States showed an interest in Texas by asking Texas officials if Texas still desired annexation. Houston was president at this time, and he pretended to show no interest in annexation, telling President Tyler that it might be better for Texas to remain independent and thus remain in the good graces of England. This made the president and other officials of the United States government more eager than ever to have Texas annexed.

**ANNEXATION OF TEXAS.** The tide was running in favor of annexation in the United States. The number of people there who were opposed to it was
growing, but they were not influential enough to stop the movement.

In 1844 a treaty was completed and presented to the U. S. Senate for approval. By this treaty Texas would come in as a territory, the United States would pay the debts, and Texas would give up her public lands. This treaty was rejected. (A treaty requires a two-thirds vote of the Senate for ratification.)

Congress then decided to try a joint resolution, which would require only a majority vote of each house. Such a resolution was introduced on March 1, 1845. This time it was the United States asking Texas to be annexed, rather than Texas asking the United States for the privilege. In view of the great importance of this joint resolution or law of Congress, it seems that we should note here its many provisions. They were as follows:

1. Texas was to be annexed as a state.
2. It was to retain its public lands.
3. It was to pay its own public debts.
4. It could divide itself into as many as five states, if it wished to do so.

Anson Jones had succeeded Houston in 1844 and was president of the Republic at this time. He called a convention to meet in Austin on July 4, 1845, to make the great decision as to whether or not Texas should accept the offer of the United States.
tin, the Mexican government had offered to recognize the independence of the Republic, provided Texas would refuse annexation. This seemed to have had little influence on the convention, as it voted almost unanimously to accept annexation.

The convention wrote a constitution and called for an election of officers. On February 16, 1846, President Jones turned the office of president over to the newly elected governor, J. Pinckney Henderson. The Republic was at an end.

TEXAS KEEPS ITS PUBLIC LAND. There was one unusual provision of this annexation agreement. It was the practice of the United States to take the vacant lands when the states were admitted; but according to the annexation agreement, Texas was allowed to keep her lands. This was done to enable Texas to pay her debts.

Within a very few years after annexation Texas sold a part of its lands to the United States for ten million dollars. This was enough to pay all of her debts, and she had a large quantity of land left. A great deal of it has been used to endow our public free schools. This vast land has been used to support the University of Texas and the Texas Agricultural
and Mechanical College. Resources from three million acres of it were used to pay for the granite capitol at Austin. Likewise, many of the first railroads built in Texas were built largely from proceeds of lands given to railroad companies by the state.

THE FIFTH FLAG FOR TEXAS. There is scarcely another example in all history of an independent nation voluntarily giving up its independence. You can understand, though, how weary the Texans had become of their many problems—none of which they could solve. They welcomed the Stars and Stripes as their fifth flag. However, they did not give up their Lone Star flag, adopted in 1839, but kept it as the state flag.

TEXANS AGAIN TO FIGHT MEXICO. Texas was annexed to the United States just in time to participate in a new war against Mexico. Mexico had warned the United States that the annexation of Texas would be considered a cause for war. Unfortunately, this matter of the annexation of Texas and other things did bring on war between the two powers. The details of the part Texas played in the Mexican War will be given in a later chapter.
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Why did Mexico refuse to accept the Treaty of Velasco?
2. Why did Mexico fail to send troops to retake Texas?
3. What was the Republic of the Río Grande?
4. Tell of the Santa Fe expedition. Why was it made?
5. Tell of the invasion of 1842.
6. Discuss the Mier expedition.
7. What valuable service did the Texas Navy perform?
8. What disposition was made of the navy?
9. What interest did England have in Texas?
10. Why did the Texans wish to be annexed to the United States?
11. Why did Lamar approve annexation?
12. What were the terms under which Texas was annexed? How did these terms differ from the Treaty of 1844?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
eventual, commissioners, ratification
demobilized, negotiate, transactions

DO IT YOURSELF
1. Imagine that you are a member of Congress. Make a speech or write a paper against annexation. For annexation.
2. Suppose that you are a member of the Mier expedition. Tell about your capture at Mier. After imprisonment in Mexico, write a letter telling of prison life or of the hardships endured on your way to Mexico City.
3. Draw one of the numerous capitol buildings of Texas.
4. Draw a picture of the captain and his men drawing the beans.
5. Draw two scrolls. Write the terms of the Treaty of 1844 on one and those of the Joint Resolution on the other.
6. Debate this question: Who had the best policy toward the Indians, Houston or Lamar?
We have seen how the capital of the Republic was moved to Austin in 1839. In that frontier town, which is today a large city of 186,545 people, took place the momentous events described in this chapter.

Austin was on the frontier and subject to Indian attacks; it was an Indian trading post; there were no roads or streets in the strict sense; and nearly all its dwellings were made of logs. An immigrant there in 1840 wrote the following description of the now-thriving town:

"About two or three o'clock we came in sight of the city of Austin, the new capital of the Republic. The first object that attracted our attention was a white house, designated as the resi-
dence of the president. 'On that spot,' said a traveler on horse-
back by our side, pointing to the president's house, 'I, for the
first time, saw a buffalo. It was in May last, and he was feeding
in perfect quietness.'

'The city commands from its front a fine view of a beautiful
prairie, extending to the Colorado on the south. On the prairie
extending more than half a mile from east to west, are seen
clusters of small houses, mostly of logs, and timbers either in
heaps or just begun to be laid as foundations of future dwellings
and places of business.

'In a beautiful valley, extending at nearly right angles from
the river, some distance towards the extreme north part of the
city, is a broad street, called Congress Avenue, passing through
the whole extent of the contemplated city. On this street are erected temporary accommodations for the several secretaries and heads of departments. At a little to the westward and nearly opposite the mansion of the president, stands a neat white building, at present occupied by the two houses of congress. Farther south on the same street, and not far from the center, are found the hotels, stores, and most densely built part of the town.

"At this time the population is estimated at about one thousand souls [the census of 1850 gives only 629 inhabitants for Austin], and is rapidly increasing. Some idea of the mushroom rapidity of its growth may be formed from the fact that, less than six months since, not a stone was laid, or a blow struck upon a piece of timber, nor even a tent spread.

"Scattered through the town we discovered a number of Indians who seemed to have visited the place for purposes of trade, as some of their horses carried packs of buffalo and other skins. Their dress and appearance betokened little resembling refinement or civilization. Numbers of the men seemed to possess no other clothing than a slight cloth girdled about their waists. They were said to be Tonkawas and Lipans, two small tribes who are generally hostile to the Comanches, and of course
friendly with the whites. They seem to be regarded with but little respect as enemies, but are very valuable as guides and scouts in searching for the trails and hiding places of foes. The friendly relations and small numbers of the Indians prevent any fear from them, and hence they come and go at any of the towns and settlements without awakening fear or suspicion.”
When Texas was annexed to the United States in February of 1846, the settled area of the new state was still exceedingly small when compared to the present boundaries. A frontier society existed within the far-flung boundaries of the new state and would continue to exist for at least six more decades. To a large extent, therefore, this section of the story is a continuation of the growth and expansion of the frontier line of settlement. Of course, this progress received a severe setback with the coming of the Civil War and reconstruction.

In many respects the years following the Civil War represent the adolescent years of the young state. Texas was growing, and foundations were being laid for industrial and agricultural maturity. While these factors are covered briefly, the section that follows is primarily a political history of the state.
Chapter XIII

Early Statehood, 1846-1860

On July 4, 1845, a constitutional convention called by Dr. Anson Jones assembled at Austin to approve the joint resolution of annexation to the United States and to write a constitution for the new state. Often described as the ablest group of its
kind ever to assemble in Texas, the convention included Thomas Jefferson Rusk, Isaac Van Zandt, Hardin R. Runnels, Abner S. Lipscomb, Nicholas H. Darnell, R. E. B. Baylor, and José Antonio Navarro. When these men finished their labors, the result was the Constitution of 1845, described by many political experts as the best constitution that Texas has ever had.

**THE CONSTITUTION OF 1845.** The new plan of government provided for a Senate and a House of Representatives, a governor elected by the people for a term of two years, and a judicial system consisting of a Supreme Court and any lower courts that the legislature might establish. No one person could hold office as governor for more than four years in any six-year period. The governor should be at least thirty years of age and a resident of Texas for at least three years before his election. He could appoint the attorney general, secretary of state, and supreme and district court judges—all subject to the approval of the Senate. The governor could convene the legislature and adjourn it, and he was the commander-in-chief of the military. His veto could be overruled by a two-thirds vote in both houses of the legislature. This Constitution was approved by the people in October and remained in effect until the Secession Convention of 1861.

**THE ANNEXATION OF TEXAS.** On February 19, 1846, on the lawn in front of the capitol building in Austin, the Republic of Texas became
the state of Texas. Dr. Anson Jones presided as the last president of the Republic, and J. Pinckney Henderson became the first governor of the state. President Jones addressed the rather small audience. He closed his remarks by declaring, "The final act in this great drama is now performed. The Republic of Texas is no more." Then the Lone Star flag was lowered from the flagpole, and the United States flag was raised in its place. Texas became the twenty-eighth state of the United States.

THE WAR WITH MEXICO

REASONS FOR THE WAR. The government of Mexico had threatened war with the United States because of the annexation of Texas. Texas had been a state only a few months when war began between the United States and Mexico. The annexation of Texas was the chief cause of this war but was not the only one. Mexico and the United States had quarreled for years over claims made by Americans for damages to their property during the many Mexican revolutions of the time. A war might have been fought eventually over these claims, but no fighting took place until after the annexation of Texas. Too, the critics of President James K. Polk pointed out that the president wanted to gain California and the American Southwest from Mexico.

There was also a dispute over the southwestern boundary of Texas. Since the close of the Revolution the Texans had claimed the Rio Grande as their true
boundary. The Mexicans, on the other hand, claimed the Nueces River as the boundary between Mexico and Texas. Each nation had some basis for its claim. Thus, the land lying between the Rio Grande and Nueces rivers was disputed territory all during the days of the Republic. The American government inherited the problem when Texas became a state.

**THE ARMY OF THE RIO GRANDE.** During the winter of 1845-1846, General Zachary Taylor and the United States Army landed at Corpus Christi, then a small trading post on the Texas coast. After a wet winter there, Taylor and his troops moved into the disputed territory between the Rio Grande and the Nueces rivers. General Taylor established a camp on the Rio Grande opposite the Mexican town of Matamoros. He set up his supply camp at Port Isabel. During the long march from Corpus Christi to present Brownsville, the soldiers made many comments about the wildflowers, the singing birds, the mesquite thickets, the level lands and open prairies, and the richness of the soil. It is quite apparent that these soldiers, all far away from home and in a strange state, were impressed with the beauty of the vast lands along the Texas coast.

In April, 1846, the Americans built a large earthen fort and prepared for action. The fighting began when the Mexican Army under General Arista crossed the river to attack the Americans as they brought supplies from Port Isabel to their fort. The battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma were fought on
May 8 and 9, 1846, and the war was on. Major Jacob Brown was killed during a bombardment of the American fort. He was buried within the fortifications, and on May 17 the post was named Fort Brown in his honor.

When news of the fighting reached Washington, President Polk asked Congress for a declaration of war on Mexico. In his war resolution the president remarked that “Mexican forces invaded our territory and shed American blood on American soil.” On May 13, 1846, the United States declared war on Mexico.

TEXAS AND THE MEXICAN WAR. When they heard that war had been declared, many Texans rushed to join the army. This was natural, since Texas was the nearest American state to Mexico and since many Texans viewed the war as a continuation of the Texas Revolution. Military records show that a total of 8,018 Texans enlisted in the army for service in Mexico. Even Governor Henderson left his office to become a major general in charge of the Texas volunteer troops with General Taylor’s army at Fort Brown. They fought with this army during the campaign across the desert lands of northern Mexico.

After a delay of several weeks Zachary Taylor, known to his men as “Old Rough and Ready,” led the American forces into Matamoros. After a victory in the border town, they drove the Mexican army toward Monterrey, where the Americans captured the city in a furious battle. Then another delay resulted as the Mexicans played for time.
The United States forces finally met their foe again. This time the site of the battle was Buena Vista, south of Saltillo. Again a furious battle took place. Santa Anna, who commanded the Mexican forces, withdrew to the south after battling the Americans to a draw on the first day of the fight. The fighting in northern Mexico ended with the American victory at Buena Vista.

A number of Texans played a leading role in this northern campaign. James Pinckney Henderson and Albert Sidney Johnston served on Taylor's staff. The most famous Texas unit, however, was the detachment of Texas Rangers commanded by John C. (Jack) Hays. Armed with Colt revolvers and mounted on fast horses, the Rangers were used as
advance scouts. They roamed far and wide in advance of the main army and rendered valuable service. Later in the war Hays and his Rangers were transferred to General Winfield Scott's army. They marched from Vera Cruz to Mexico City to become the only Texas unit to see service on both the northern and southern fronts.

**THE TREATY OF GUADALUPE HIDALGO.**

In March, 1847, General Winfield Scott landed at Vera Cruz with a force of about 10,000 men. His army captured Vera Cruz and then marched over the rugged mountains of southeastern Mexico to Mexico City. In September, 1847, Mexico City surrendered to the American invaders. Meanwhile, fighting had taken place on the outskirts of the city and at Chapultepec Castle, where young cadets of the Mexican Military Academy defended the famous landmark until all were killed.

The Mexican Army had fought bravely, but they had been poorly supplied and poorly led. The Mexican people were divided on the issue of war, and a large section of the nation gave no support to the military effort. As a result, the American Army won every battle of the war. In the end the American flag flew not only over all of southern Mexico, but also over New Mexico and California. These two southwestern territories were taken by General Stephen Kearney, who took an army from Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, to southern California.

The treaty ending the war was signed on Febru-
ary 2, 1848, at Guadalupe Hidalgo, a small village near Mexico City. Nicholas Trist represented the United States at the peace conference. By the terms of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, (1) Mexico recognized the independence of Texas, (2) the Rio Grande was established as the boundary between Texas and Mexico, and (3) the United States acquired the vast southwestern region, extending north from the Gila River to the forty-second parallel and from the Rio Grande westward to the Pacific, in return for a payment of $15,000,000. This large tract of land included the present states of California, Arizona, Nevada, Utah, and a part of New Mexico and Wyoming. Later, in 1853, the United States bought an additional 45,535 square miles from Mexico in a transaction known as the Gadsden Purchase. Thus the present boundary between the United States and Mexico was established. Truly the Anglo-Americans were spreading out "like oil upon a cloth."

TEXAS SOLVES HER PROBLEMS

THE COMPROMISE OF 1850. The ink scarcely had dried on the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo when the question of slavery in the newly conquered territories arose to bother the political framework of the nation. Shortly after the close of the war with Mexico, David Wilmot introduced a resolution to the United States Congress that would have prohibited slavery in any of the territories gained by the United States as a result of the Mexican War. Al-
though the Wilmot resolution was defeated in Congress, the congressmen from the states of the South united in opposing any limitation on the slave system.

The question of the true western boundary of Texas was linked to this problem of national control over the new territory. Since the Treaty of Velasco in 1836, Texas had claimed the Rio Grande as the western boundary of the state. However, the Texas government, as you know, had failed to take over the New Mexican territory. Governor George T. Wood (1847-1849) attempted to control the region around Santa Fe, New Mexico. He demanded that all United States troops be withdrawn, and under the administration of Governor Peter Hansborough Bell these demands were renewed.

During 1850 the United States Congress passed a series of laws proposed by Henry Clay of Kentucky, which were known as the Compromise of 1850. Among other things, the terms of the compromise offered Texas $10,000,000 for the part of New Mexico lying east of the Rio Grande and the narrow strip of land, which Texas also claimed, running into Colorado and Wyoming. Governor Bell called a special session of the Texas Legislature, and they accepted this offer. Thus the western boundaries of Texas were fixed as they are today. Texas had lost about one-third of her territory as a result of the compromise agreement.

By the terms of the Compromise of 1850, one-half of the $10,000,000 paid to Texas for her western
land was to be used by the United States to pay Texas debts. When the time came to settle these debts, however, it was discovered that the $5,000,000 would not be enough. Furthermore, the Texas citizens presented the federal government with a bill calling for the payment of an additional sum to people who had suffered damages from Indian raids on United States soil. After some debate, the United States Congress appropriated an additional $2,750,000 to take care of all of the Texas claims. This final settlement took place from 1855 to 1856.

THE PUBLIC LANDS OF TEXAS. The public lands of Texas that were kept by the state in its annexation agreement became very valuable to the state. During the early years of statehood, Texans were faced with the problem of conserving their public lands and, at the same time, using the lands to develop business and encourage immigration. The rapid growth of the population during these years shows that a plentiful supply of land drew many newcomers to the state, for the pioneer settler could obtain land in return for developing it.

When Texas became a state, land holdings acquired under previous laws were of three kinds: headrights, bounty, and donation grants. A headright consisted of land granted to original colonists under Spanish and Mexican land laws and the land granted to settlers by the Provisional Government and the Republic. These headrights were generally of four classes: (1) grants made before the Declaration of In-
dependence or to soldiers who served in the Army of the Republic between March 2 and August 1, 1836; (2) grants made to newcomers entering the state between the Declaration of Independence and October 1, 1837; (3) land certificates issued to settlers arriving between October 1, 1837, and January 1, 1840; and (4) land grants made to settlers arriving between January 1, 1840, and January 1, 1842.

Donation grants were made to the families of men who had lost their lives in certain battles of the Texas Revolution. A league and a labor of land, or 4,605 acres, were granted to each such family. The surviving veterans received 640 acres each. Finally, the bounty land certificates comprised grants to all veterans of service in the Army of the Revolution. The size of the bounty grant depended on the length of army service.

PRE-EMPTION LANDS. In addition to the regular land grants, pre-emption land titles were created by the last Congress of the Republic in 1845. The pre-emption law provided that any person who would settle on and improve any portion of the unsettled and unclaimed public land could claim 320 acres surrounding his area. The settler had to prove his claim, survey the land, and apply for a patent within three years from the date of settlement. The pre-emption system continued, with modifications, until all pre-emption laws were repealed by the legislature in 1880.

While most of the land of Texas was awarded...
to pioneer settlers, a great portion of it was used to aid railroad construction, to help finance the public school system and the University of Texas, and to aid in the construction of public buildings. During the early years of the history of the state, it can be said that land was one item that existed in a plentiful supply, hence it was cheap. Later the public lands proved to be one of the most valuable of all Texas resources.

**POLITICS IN TEXAS.** During the period between Texas annexation to the Union and its secession convention, governors and other public officials were chosen mostly because of their popularity rather than for their political parties. In fact, there was little strife between the major political parties of that time—a sharp contrast to the situation in other sections of the United States.

Since the Democratic party sponsored the annexation of Texas to the United States, an overwhelming majority of Texans voted as Democrats. Before 1861 the Democrats won all elections in Texas. The Whig party, strong in the states east of the Mississippi, was never popular in Texas. In 1855, the Know-Nothing party, neutral on the question of Negro slavery but opposed to foreign immigrants, gained considerable strength in parts of Texas.

We have seen that the first governor of Texas was J. Pinckney Henderson. Other officers elected with him in 1846 included A. C. Horton as lieutenant governor, David G. Burnet as secretary of state, and
John W. Harris as attorney general. The state Supreme Court was made up of John Hemphill, Abner S. Lipscomb, and Royal T. Wheeler. Sam Houston and Thomas J. Rusk were elected to represent Texas in the United States Senate.

**THE GOVERNORS OF TEXAS, 1846-1861.**
In addition to Henderson, the governors of Texas in the fifteen years between annexation and secession included George T. Wood (1847-1849), Peter Hansborough Bell (1849-1853), Elisha M. Pease (1853-1857), Hardin R. Runnels (1857-1859), and Sam Houston (1859-1861). Except for Henderson and Houston, who were active in the Republic, the list of governors includes names that may not be familiar. It would be well, therefore, for us to review briefly their lives.

James Pinckney Henderson was born in North Carolina. He received his education at the University of North Carolina, where he studied law. He came to Texas in 1836 to join the Revolutionary Army. Henderson held various offices during the days of the Republic; probably his most important service was as foreign minister to England and France. He was elected governor of Texas in 1845 and took office in February of the next year. He resigned to serve in the Mexican War, after which Henderson resumed his duties as governor but refused to run for a second term. He returned to a private law practice at San Augustine, Texas. In 1857 Henderson was elected to
the United States Senate, but died in Washington, D. C., on June 4, 1858.

George T. Wood was from Georgia. He came to Texas in 1839 and settled on the Trinity River in present San Jacinto County. Like Henderson, George T. Wood served in the Mexican War with the Second Texas Mounted Volunteers. As a result of distinguished service in the battle of Monterey, Wood became a hero in East Texas. Governor of Texas, 1847 to 1849, Wood was defeated in re-election attempts in 1851 and 1852. Frontier defense, the public debt, and claims to the New Mexican territory east of the Rio Grande were the major problems of his administration as governor.

Peter Hansborough Bell, a native of the state of Virginia, came to Texas to fight in the Revolution. After seeing action in the Battle of San Jacinto as a private, Bell held minor offices in the government of the Republic. He joined John C. (Jack) Hays' Texas Rangers in 1840 and later went on the famous Mier expedition. During the Mexican War, Bell was active in General Taylor's army. After being elected governor of Texas in 1849 and 1851, he resigned to enter the United States Congress. He then served as a colonel in the Confederate Army during the years of the Civil War.

Elisha M. Pease was born in Connecticut. Early in 1835 he came to Texas, settling at Bastrop, where he began to study law. Pease was outspoken in favor of Texas independence. He took part in the battle of
Gonzales but held non-military positions during the rest of the Revolution. After holding various minor offices during the period of the Republic and serving in the state legislature, 1849 to 1850, Pease was elected governor in 1853 and again in 1855. Railroad construction and public education were the issues he pushed. On January 31, 1854, Texas established by law its first public school system. During the Civil War, Elisha M. Pease remained loyal to the Union.

Hardin R. Runnels came to Bowie County, Texas, in 1842 from Mississippi. He served in the state House of Representatives as a member from Bowie County before his election as lieutenant governor in 1855. Two years later Runnels became governor by defeating Sam Houston. He thus gained fame as the only person ever to defeat Houston in a political battle. In 1859 he was defeated for re-election by Houston.

Sam Houston, the last governor of Texas before secession from the Union, is familiar to us by now. In 1859 Houston was nearing the end of his long and distinguished career of service to Texas. As will be noted later, he was a bitter opponent of secession in 1861.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Outline the major features of the state government after the Constitution of 1845.
2. List the causes of the Mexican War.
3. Describe the fighting along the Rio Grande and in northern Mexico.
4. What were the terms of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo?
5. Define pre-emption lands. What is meant by the term head right?
6. List the governors of Texas from annexation to the Civil War and give the state of their birth.

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

vehicle, geology, unpretentious, bombardment, majority, parallel, compromise, meridian, pre-emption

DO IT YOURSELF

1. Draw a map of southern Texas and northern Mexico. Using colored pencils, trace the route of General Taylor's army from Corpus Christi to Buena Vista. Bring Santa Anna up from San Luis Potosi to the south of Buena Vista. Mark all battles along the way with the date of the fight.

2. Draw a map of the western part of the United States after the Compromise of 1850. Locate the boundary of Texas as fixed by the compromise and show the extent of land lost by Texas to the United States. Locate the major rivers and settlements of the American West.

3. Debate the question: Was the Mexican War necessary?

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE


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When General Zachary Taylor’s army moved from the mouth of the Nueces River to the north bank of the Rio Grande, the soldiers threw up earthworks there in March of 1846 and established what General Taylor called “The Camp on the Left Bank of the Rio Grande,” and “The Camp Opposite Matamoros.” The new location was soon named Fort Taylor, but when Major Jacob Brown of the Seventh Infantry died there of wounds from a skirmish with the Mexicans, the new fort was renamed Fort Brown. A description of early Fort Brown points out, “Original fortifications were earthworks in the form of an irregular six-pointed star. Protecting an 800-yard perimeter were six bastion walls 9½ feet high, with parapets 15 feet wide. Only a remnant of the old walls remains today, marked by an inscribed stone and a cannon barrel, thrust muzzle-up toward the sky.”

Fort Brown was made a permanent post in 1849 and was a military establishment until deactivated in 1944. Two years later the land comprising the historic army post was deeded to the city of Brownsville as a civic and educational center; the old hospital post was soon converted into Texas Southmost College. As a result, “Tall royal palms look down today upon a parade ground turned into a college campus—upon a scene little different from any college campus anywhere. But no one can reflect even briefly upon the history of Fort Brown without remembering the men who passed that way and made it great: ‘Old Rough and Ready’ Taylor, the distinguished Indian fighter who became president of the United States; the gallant Major Brown, who died in battle there; Robert E. Lee, the gentlemanly ‘Marse Robert,’ who visited there in the 1850’s; Col. John S. (Rip) Ford, Confederate commander of Fort Brown during the War Between the States; his successor, the great cavalry leader,
Gen. Phil Sheridan, who took over in 1865; Gen. Gorgas, stout-hearted surgeon with a soldier's courage and a researcher's determination; Gen. Jonathan Wainwright, who reviewed troops there in 1940 and soon after became the hero of Corregidor.

"These and many others left a part of their name and fame behind at Fort Brown. Theirs is a story of devotion to duty that follows the best traditions of the service. Beyond doubt, if they had their choice, none would suggest a better use than is now being made of the place they served so well."
Chapter XIV

Westward Expansion, 1845-1860

During the years between annexation and the Civil War the population of Texas grew rapidly. The wagon roads and sea routes into the state were crowded with new settlers bound for the uninhabited grasslands and wooded river valleys. As these newcomers arrived, the frontier line of settlement moved westward. From the region just north and west of the Old San Antonio Road, new settlements sprang up in Central and North Texas. When Texas seceded from the Union in 1861, the western frontier followed a rough line that curved slightly westward from Clay County on the Red River to Camp Verde.
in Kerr County, and thence to Eagle Pass on the Rio Grande. For a distance of fifty to seventy-five miles east of this line, however, the country was thinly populated.

**EXPANSION OF THE FRONTIER: LAND CONTRACTS.** The introduction of settlers by the contract system did not end with the Mexican period of Texas history. During the days of the Republic, immigration contracts formed the basis for the expansion of the frontier during the first period of statehood. Of these immigration contracts and grants of land, three are worthy of special attention. These are (1) the Peters Colony, (2) the Mercer Colony, and (3) the Castro Colony.

**THE PETERS COLONY.** The Peters Colony was the name of a grant of land by the Republic to W. S. Peters and Associates. The grant was located immediately south of the Red River and northwest of present Dallas. The colonists were to come from outside Texas and were to receive 640 acres of land per family or 320 acres per single man. In 1848 the Peters contract expired, and the lands were thrown open to the state. Although the company had introduced 435 new colonists by the year 1845, Peters and his associates had experienced difficulty in securing settlers.

**THE MERCER COLONY.** The Mercer Colony was the name given to a grant of land made by the Republic in 1844 to Charles F. Mercer, who assumed
the responsibility of settling one hundred families during the next five years on any of the unclaimed lands belonging to the Republic. The colony was located mainly to the south and east of the Peters Colony. Mercer met with great difficulty in securing settlers, and in 1848 his contract was declared null and void.

"THE CASTRO COLONY. The most successful colonization project of this period was the one headed by Henri Castro, a Frenchman. In 1842 Castro received a contract from the Republic of Texas for two grants of land on which he was to establish six hundred families. One grant was located west of San Antonio; the other was along the lower Rio Grande. Castro recruited his colonists in France, especially in Alsace. He brought the first colonists to his grant beyond the Medina River in 1844, where the name of Castroville was adopted for the new settlement. During the first year Castro introduced 2,134 settlers to his colony. In spite of suffering from Indian raids, drought, and sickness, the population had increased enough by 1848 for the creation of Medina County.

"THE CENTRAL TEXAS FRONTIER. During the last years of the Republic and the early years of statehood, the Central Texas frontier expanded in a northwesterly direction. In this region the pioneers pushed north along the Brazos River and its tributaries to found new settlements and to establish foundations for new counties. In 1849 the future town of Waco was surveyed in the wooded bottoms along
the Brazos and Bosque rivers. Both Bell and McLennan counties were created in 1850.

**THE GERMAN SETTLEMENTS.** The first large-scale German immigration to Texas came in the mid-1840’s. In 1845 Prince Carl of Solms-Braunfels established the settlement of New Braunfels on the Comal and Guadalupe rivers. The growth of this new village was rapid as settlers heard of the excellent water supply and its nearness to cedar and cypress timber.

Fredericksburg, in the Pedernales River Valley in present Gillespie County, was founded in 1846, when John O. Meusebach led a wagon train of some 120 settlers from New Braunfels. This settlement was on the Indian frontier, but the Meusebach-Comanche Treaty of 1847 established a lasting peace between the German pioneers and the Indians. Fredericksburg grew rapidly. By the close of 1847 the frontier town had eighteen stores and a hotel. Other German settlements were made at Sisterdale, Boerne, Comfort, and elsewhere in the Texas hill country.

**FRONTIER DEFENSE**

**DEFENSE FROM INDIANS.** As the frontier expanded to the west and north, defense of the settlements from Indian attack became one of the major problems facing the state government. Defense from Indian attack, always a problem, had still not been solved. In the 1840’s and 1850’s the western reaches of Texas resounded to thundering hoofbeats of In-
Comanche mustangs on the great Comanche War Trail. This path of Indian attack has been described as more than a trail. It was a broad highway, in some places plainly visible as far as the eye could see, extending from Oklahoma down through western Texas into northern Mexico. The Comanches and their allies, the Apaches and Kiowas, resented the invasion of their homelands by the settlers. But more than that, they were seeking slaves and horses as they thundered out of the northwest.

These Indians were some of the most expert horsemen in the history of the world. They liked to ride by the light of the moon. Therefore, each month during the approach of a full moon small bands of volunteer white settlers would gather all along the Texas frontier. They would proceed to a hilltop, or knob, where they could scan the western horizon. There, by the light of smoldering campfires, they would
establish and maintain an “Indian lookout.” Despite these heroic efforts, the frontiersmen were ill-equipped to defend themselves against a savage foe that killed and burned at will, plundered entire countrysides, and carried captives northward into slavery.

**THE BORDER FORTS.** The first military posts to be established on the Texas frontier by the United States were the Rio Grande outposts in the Mexican War. As noted previously, Fort Brown at present Brownsville was constructed early in the year 1846. Other posts soon followed.

Fort Ringgold, another cavalry post, was established in 1848 by Captain J. H. La Motte. La Motte chose a location on the river near Davis Landing, named for a pioneer rancher, on the north bank of the Rio Grande. Later, Rio Grande City grew up near the site of Davis Ranch and Fort Ringgold.

On March 3, 1849, an army post, Fort McIntosh, was established at Laredo on the Rio Grande. At this time Fort McIntosh was a star-shaped earthwork, covering about one acre. It was located on a bluff about fifty feet above the Rio Grande.

**DEFENSE, A PROBLEM FOR THE GOVERNMENT.** By the terms of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the United States agreed to protect Mexico from American Indians. A few years earlier the United States government had also assumed the task of protecting the West Texas frontier; the discovery of gold in California and the famous gold rush to the Pacific in 1849 added to the government’s
burdens. As a result, frontier defense became a major problem for the federal government in the decade before the Civil War.

THE FIRST LINE OF DEFENSE. Partly to live up to its treaty obligations and partly to expand westward quickly, the United States government began to construct military posts across the Texas frontier. San Antonio was to be the headquarters of this frontier defense system. In 1848 Fort Martin Scott was built at Fredericksburg. In quick succession during 1849 came the following forts—the first line of frontier defense for Texas: Fort Worth, the forerunner of a great city; Fort Graham, on the Brazos River west of present Hillsboro; Fort Gates, on the Leon River near present Gatesville; Fort Croghan, on Hamilton Creek near present Burnet; Fort Lincoln, on Seco Creek near present D’Hanis; Fort Inge, on the Leona River in Uvalde County; and Fort Duncan, on the Rio Grande near Eagle Pass. Fort Mason was built in 1851 and became a part of this first defense system.

THE SECOND LINE OF DEFENSE. The efforts of the army to make the frontier safe in this new and big area met with only partial success. Soon these early posts had outlived their usefulness. In 1849 Captain W. H. C. Whiting made an inspection trip along the frontier. He recommended more forts and heavier garrisons of troops. Beginning in 1851, a second line of defense was begun. Most of these forts were to be completed by 1856; however, three
important ones were not added until 1867. The second line extended from present Jacksboro, in north central Texas, to Brackettville, near the Rio Grande.

The forts in the second line of defense included Fort Richardson (1867), near Jacksboro; Fort Belknap, in Young County near present Newcastle; Fort Griffin (1867), about twenty-five miles north of present Albany; Camp Cooper, in Throckmorton County on the Clear Fork of the Brazos; Fort Phantom Hill, about fourteen miles north of present Abilene; Fort Chadbourne, on Oak Creek in Coke County; Fort Concho (1867), on the site of present San Angelo; Fort McKavett, in Menard County; and Fort Clark, near Las Moras Springs in the vicinity of present Brackettville.

ADDITIONAL FORTS. In order to protect the wagon roads running from San Antonio west to El Paso, a third line of forts was constructed during the 1850’s. Among this group were Fort Lancaster (1855), in Crockett County on the military road between San Antonio and El Paso; Fort Stockton (1859), in Pecos County near the famous Comanche Springs; Fort Davis (1854), in the Davis Mountain region; and Fort Bliss (1848) at El Paso. Fort Davis troops were engaged in almost constant war with the Comanches and Apaches. Fort Bliss was of great importance because of its location astride the famous old Paso del Norte.

THE CAMEL EXPERIMENT IN TEXAS. The use of North African camels in an attempt to
solve the transportation problem in West Texas and the southwestern territory was the idea of Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, who served as secretary of war under President Franklin Pierce. Knowing that camels had been used in desert lands of the Middle East to move heavy loads over long distances, Davis managed to get Congress to set aside $30,000 to import camels from North Africa for use by the military in western areas.

During the Civil War, the stately camels were widely scattered over Texas. They were used by both the Union and Confederate armies. Some carried cotton bales from points in Texas to Matamoros on the Rio Grande. In the decades following the war the camels gradually disappeared from the Texas scene.

**THE BUTTERFIELD OVERLAND MAIL.**
The Butterfield Overland Mail was an interesting fea-
ture of the years just before the Civil War. In 1857 the United States government awarded John Butterfield a contract calling for semi-weekly delivery of the mail between St. Louis, Missouri, and Memphis, Tennessee, and San Francisco, California. A forerunner of the railroads, the mail was to be delivered twice weekly, both directions, by four-horse coaches or spring wagons capable of carrying passengers. The trip was to be completed in twenty-five days.

In addition to the mail, the Concord coaches used by Butterfield had room for five or six passengers. The average fare was $200, and the passengers were usually armed with six-shooters so they could fight off any surprise Indian attacks. The passengers made the long, rough trip without rest; if a traveler stopped overnight, he lost his seat on the stage and might wait a month for another chance.

**THE SAN ANTONIO TO SAN DIEGO MAIL ROUTE.** In 1857 the San Antonio-San Diego mail route was established by James E. Birch. As was the case with the Butterfield Overland Mail, four-horse Concord coaches were used on the trip. Twenty-five of these coaches were purchased by Birch for the opening of his enterprise. Pack mules were used to carry the mail from Yuma, Arizona, to San Diego, California; as a result, the line was dubbed the "Jackass Mail."

The first mail left San Antonio in July, 1867. The long distance was covered in about twenty-seven days, and the average fare was $200.
JUAN CORTINA AND THE CAPTURE OF BROWNSVILLE. On the eve of the Civil War the relations between the residents of South Texas and the Mexican people south of the Rio Grande suffered a severe strain. While the Cart War between Texan cart drivers and Mexican freighters along the road from Indianola to San Antonio contributed to ill feelings, the main reason for serious trouble was the activities of Juan N. Cortina, or Cortinas.

Juan Cortina was a native of Camargo, a small town on the south bank of the Rio Grande. His father was a rancher, and his mother was heiress to great Spanish land grants surrounding Brownsville. Juan Cortina had little or no education, but he was a born leader of men. He became the idol of both the poor, humble, and the wealthier Mexicans living on both sides of the Rio Grande. After serving in the army of General Arista during the Mexican War, Cortina moved to a ranch near Brownsville and drew around him a great following of admirers.

After some trouble with the local law enforcement authorities of Brownsville in the year 1859, Cortina moved to Matamoros and emerged as the champion of Mexican rights. In September, 1859, he and his followers entered Brownsville, shot at least four persons, took the barracks at Fort Brown, and held the city for several days. Returning to his Texas ranch, Cortina announced that he was a Texas citizen defending the property rights of Mexicans from conquest by Anglo-Americans. In October of the same year, the Brownsville Tigers, a local military out-
fit, attacked Cortina at his ranch home and were repelled in a headlong flight toward the city. He was now in control of a large area outside Brownsville.

In November, 1859, Cortina gained additional fame by defeating the Texas Rangers under Captain W. G. Tobin. Finally the United States Army entered the picture. Combined with a group of Rangers, the army troops defeated Cortina at Rio Grande City. Cortina then retired into the mountains of northern Mexico. He continued to raid the Texas settlements along the Rio Grande from time to time and was declared governor of the Mexican state of Tamaulipas for a time during the 1860’s. Always interested in cattle stealing, Cortina was finally taken into custody by the Mexican government and paroled to the vicinity of Mexico City for the rest of his life.

TEXAS AND SECESSION

THE SLAVERY QUESTION. In the state election of 1859, you recall, Sam Houston had been elected governor of Texas. He was faced with many problems, but none loomed larger than the threatened breakup of the United States. One of the many complex causes of secession and the Civil War was the question of slavery. The southern section of the United States was an agricultural section with large plantations, farms, and ranches. Cotton was the principal crop, and the Gulf Coast states of the lower South were the “cotton kingdom.” Negro slavery, introduced into Virginia in 1619, was necessary to the plantation system.
In the North, on the other hand, large cities and thriving industry were distinct factors of society. The farms were small, the climate severe, and there was no need for slaves. In the rising division between the North and the South, the North became the "free state" section, as opposed to the slaveholding South.

SOUTH CAROLINA SECEDES FROM THE UNION. In 1854 the Republican party was organized with the freedom of the Negro as its only goal. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln in 1860 as their presidential candidate. In the November election Lincoln was chosen president, and the abolition of slavery had been promised in his campaign speeches. South Carolina's political leaders, in turn, had promised secession if the "black Republicans" were successful. At a state convention held at Charleston, South Carolina, on December 20, 1860, it was declared that "the Union existing between South Carolina and the other States under the name of the United States of America is hereby dissolved." The South Carolinians had made good their promise.

Other southern states followed South Carolina's lead. In Texas, however, Governor Sam Houston was bitterly opposed to secession. When he refused to take the necessary steps to call a state convention, leaders of the secession movement issued a call for a convention without his approval. On January 8, 1861, delegates were elected to a convention to be held in Austin on January 28. In the meantime,
Houston sought to delay the apparent result by calling a special session of the state legislature to meet on January 21.

The state convention assembled in Austin on January 28, 1861, and was recognized by the legislature as representing the will of the Texas people. By an overwhelming vote of 136 to 8, the convention adopted an Ordinance of Secession. Among the eight delegates who voted "no" was J. W. Throckmorton who said, "In the presence of God and my country; unawed by the revolution around me, I vote no." A hiss and applause followed his vote, to which Throckmorton made the memorable reply: "Mr. President, when the rabble hiss, well may patriots tremble." Shortly after the decision to secede had been approved by a popular vote, the reassembled convention ac-
cepted membership in the Confederate States of America.

**QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS**

1. List and locate three colonies established by contractors during the days of the Republic of Texas.
2. Explain the problem of frontier defense in early Texas.
3. Account for and give the details of the “camel experiment” in Southwest Texas.
4. Trace the steps leading to the secession of Texas from the Union.

**CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY**

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**DO IT YOURSELF**

1. On an outline map of Texas, locate (a) the border forts along the Rio Grande, (b) the several forts of the first and second lines of defense, and (c) the routes of the San Antonio-San Diego and the Butterfield Overland mail.
2. Pretend you have just returned from a journey on the Butterfield stage. Describe your trip, telling what you saw and what hardships you encountered.

**FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE**

As the frontier of Texas expanded to the north and northwest, Nashville-on-the-Brazos and Port Sullivan (both in present Milam County) became frontier outposts of considerable significance. These two Brazos River settlements, resulting from earlier efforts at colonization on the part of Sterling C. Robertson,
served as temporary stops for many families on their way to settle other sections of the Brazos and Colorado river drainage basins. During the 1840's several hundred people lived at Old Nashville. Port Sullivan was smaller but equally significant. These two Brazos villages marked the head of navigation on this important Texas river. J. McThompson, a pioneer resident of Nashville and Milam County, recalls the coming of the first steamboat:

“I remember very little more that happened until we all reached the river bank where we found people gathering for ten miles around to see the first steamboat. Ample time was afforded all that had heard of it to gather, for my recollection is that she was about six hours in presenting herself with the current being so swift. But when she did come she came with imposing colors and charming music. Besides her gaudy trappings there were, arrayed on her bow, a colored string band that sang and played an old plantation song, 'Round the corn, Sallie,' in regular and old southern darky style. The landing was in crescent shape around which all the spectators had circled, and when she approached within ten feet of the bank a rope was thrown out and I remember that Mr. Albert Chalmers . . . in his eagerness to board her, grasped it and in an attempt to land her was dragged into the water waist deep. . . . Notice was given by the captain that in one hour she would leave for Port Sullivan where she would load cotton and return.”

Nashville and Port Sullivan flourished for more than a decade and then declined. At the present time they are “ghost towns,” and their location is marked only by ancient cemeteries, crumbling foundations, and the inevitable historical markers.
Chapter XV

The War Between the States

There was great excitement in Texas when the convention adopted the Ordinance of Secession and when the people adopted it on February 23, 1861. The Confederate government had already been organized at Montgomery, Alabama, with Jefferson Davis as president. Many Texans and others throughout the South hoped that they would be allowed to secede peacefully. The northern states, however, were determined to force the states to remain in the Union. This was the immediate cause of the war.
TEXANS ANSWER THE CALL. Jefferson Davis soon issued a call for volunteers. To succeed, however, each state must use all of its men, and the South could not depend on volunteers alone. The Texas Legislature, therefore, ordered all Texans to serve either in Texas or out of it. Also, the Confederate Congress passed a law to force men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five into the service. This was called the Conscription Law. About fifty thousand men from Texas served the Confederacy. This was the largest number, in proportion to population, furnished by any state.

OFFICERS AND FAMED COMPANIES FROM TEXAS. Texas furnished many distinguished officers for the Confederate Army. The long list was made up of one general, one lieutenant general, three major generals, thirty-two brigadier generals, and ninety-seven colonels. Albert Sidney Johnston, the one general furnished by Texas, was killed at the Battle of Shiloh in 1862. This was a severe loss for both Texas and the Confederacy. Among the units which won fame for Texas and their commanders were Hood’s Brigade and the Eleventh Texas Cavalry. Texas sent eighty-eight regiments and nineteen battalions of infantry and cavalry, and thirty-one batteries of artillery to the Confederate armies. In addition, a large force was kept in Texas for frontier protection. Texas also sent two regiments and several companies to the Union Army.
TEXAS BATTLES. There was great suffering in all of the Confederate States during the war, but there was less in Texas than the others. This was because there was not much fighting in Texas. The northern armies made only four significant attempts at an invasion of Texas. These were the attack on Galveston, the attack on Sabine Pass, and the attempts to invade Texas by the way of the Rio Grande and the Red River. Even these battles did not affect very many people in Texas. There was no fighting in the interior of the state.

FIGHTING AT GALVESTON. One of the tasks the North faced was to set up a blockade of the trade of Confederate States with the outside world. Furthermore, the armies of the North could not get to Texas as long as Confederate troops were in the possession of the Gulf ports.

The United States Fleet, in the Gulf to block this trade, was given the task of taking Galveston from the Texans. Galveston was weakly defended, and many of the guns were not guns at all but were dummies placed there to scare the Federals (as the Union soldiers and sailors were called). These Federals did not scare easily, and on October 4, 1862, they attacked and captured Galveston.

The Confederates were forced to give up the island, but not for long. There were two reasons why the Texans needed to retake Galveston. First, it was their chief seaport. Secondly, as long as it was in enemy hands, danger existed that the Federals might use this
point of entry for the invasion of Texas. General J. B. Magruder was given the task of recapturing the city.

**RECAPTURE OF GALVESTON.** Magruder's plan of attack was simple, but it proved effective. Two cotton steamers at Houston were fitted out as gunboats, with the decks lined with bales of cotton to protect the gunners. There was much talk at that time about "iron-clads," but these were called "cotton-clads." They were to move quietly down Buffalo Bayou, steam across Galveston Bay, and attack the United States vessels in the harbor. At the same time, a force of about one thousand men would attack the garrison by land.

This combined sea and land attack took place on the night of December 31, 1862. By daybreak of New Year's Day the city had been recaptured. The defenders of the fort surrendered, and the "cotton-clads" captured or destroyed all except a few vessels which managed to escape. Major General Magruder gave the following account of this battle: "This morning, the first of January, at 3 o'clock, I attacked the enemy's fleet and garrison at this place. I captured the garrison and the steamer Harriet Lane and two barks and a schooner of the fleet.

"The rest of the fleet, some four or five in number, escaped ignominiously under a flag of truce. I have six hundred prisoners and a large quantity of valuable stores, arms, etc."

It was a great victory, but the Federal fleet con-
continued to blockade the Gulf so that little trading could be done. On January 2, the next day after the recapture of Galveston, three hundred fifty-nine of the prisoners were sent by train to Houston.

**THE FIGHTING AT SABINE PASS — DICK DOWLING.** It was nearly nine months after the Federals were driven out of Galveston before another attempt was made to invade Texas, this time at Sabine Pass. In September of 1863 an army of five thousand Federals was sent by sea from New Orleans to Sabine Pass. This army intended to take the pass and advance to Beaumont and Houston.

Lieutenant Dick Dowling held the small fort, called Fort Griffin, at Sabine Pass with only forty-
seven men. The pass had practically no fortification. The five gunboats and twenty-one transports of the Federals made a spectacular sight as they steamed up to the pass, but Dowling and his men were ready. They not only drove them off, but without losing a man they captured two Federal gunboats and took more than three hundred fifty prisoners. The Federals returned to New Orleans. Their second attempt to invade Texas was a failure.

**FIGHTING AROUND BROWNSVILLE.** The greatest means the Confederacy had of obtaining money to carry on the war was the cotton trade, particularly with Mexico. The Federals wanted to stop this trade. They also wanted to make sure that the South did not get help from the French, who had just taken over the government in Mexico. To accomplish their goals they decided to invade Texas, this time by the way of Brownsville at the mouth of the Rio Grande.

There were very few Confederate troops in Brownsville, and when General Banks with six thousand troops attacked in November, 1863, the town quickly surrendered. Several towns around Brownsville were also taken. This made the cotton trade very difficult but did not stop it.

In the summer of 1864 most of the Federals were withdrawn to aid in another attempted invasion by way of the Red River. They went by sea to New Orleans, and their plan was to use the Red River as the route of approach. Happily for Texas these troops
were defeated by Confederates in Louisiana and never reached the border of Texas.

THE END OF THE WAR. Although there was little fighting in Texas, the very last battle of the War Between the States was fought on Texas soil. The last blood that was shed in this terrible war was at Palmito Ranch, near Brownsville. Here Colonel John S. Ford met a large Federal force, defeated it and captured eight hundred prisoners. Here it was, too, that the Confederates learned the sad news that General Lee had already surrendered. The war was over.

HARD TIMES AT HOME

HOME LIFE DURING THE WAR. Nearly every able-bodied man in the state was either fighting for the Stars and Bars or in defense of the state as a state trooper. Old men and boys, who did not have to serve, were busy taking care of things at home. The government was very weak, since governmental officials gave their whole attention to problems of the war.

The usual elections were held, and three governors served from the beginning of the war to its end. You will recall that Houston did not serve his full term; and the lieutenant governor, Edward Clark, served in his place. In the election of 1861 Francis R. Lubbock was chosen governor. He served for two years. Pendleton R. Murrab succeeded Lubbock and served to the end of the war. He fled to Mexico a little while.
before his term expired; and Fletcher S. Stockdale, lieutenant governor, finished out the term.

**THE LEGISLATURE.** Things were bad from the beginning, but it is hard to see how the members of the legislature could work at all during the last years of the war. An eyewitness in late 1864 said that the members had no money and that some took tobacco and another a keg of nails for exchange. He said these articles proved to be as good as money; a few of the members made some profits as well as paid their expenses. Finding places to stay was difficult, and one reporter said, "Some of the members camp out in their wagons. It is ludicrous to see an eloquent representative, in the Senate Chamber all day, mixing up corn dodgers in camp in the evening."

**STATE GOVERNMENT BREAKS UP.** In the government, as on the battlefield, things went from bad to worse. The governors tried to work with the Confederacy in every way, but the people did not like the conscription laws. Local affairs were neglected, particularly frontier defense. The debt mounted, and taxes became higher. The Indians became more troublesome. When the outlaws saw how weak law enforcement was, they became bolder. Thieves looted the treasury at Austin, and an attempt was made to rob the state penitentiary. All laws were disregarded, and Governor Murrah said, "The voice of the law is hushed in Texas. It is a dead letter."

There was practically no government in Texas when in May, 1865, General Lee surrendered the Con-
federate armies. This, however, destroyed the last bit of control the government had. Because of the hopelessness of the situation and for their own safety, Governor Murrah and most of the state officials fled to Mexico. Thus, from May to July, 1865, Texas was practically without a government of any kind, even with the efforts of F. S. Stockdale, the lieutenant governor who became governor.

THE WAR BRINGS CHANGES. The war brought a change in farming in the South. Much of the cotton could not be sold, and the need for food increased. The people were urged everywhere to plant more corn and wheat. Food was reasonably plentiful in Texas throughout the war, though, as crops were good.

Many small factories were established in the state to manufacture blankets, shoes, hats, cloth of many kinds, and tents for the soldiers. The penitentiary was changed into a factory mainly to make military supplies. A small factory to manufacture cannon and a cap and cartridge factory were established in Austin. One of the big changes which the war brought was the increase in the output of wagons, ambulances, harness, and saddles. The people willingly changed their mode of life to meet the new situation.

MANY THINGS WERE SCARCE. Among the scarce items was salt. The salt mines were worked feverishly. The frontier people got some salt from salt-works near Albany, the salt flats on the upper Brazos, and from the salt lakes near El Paso. Salt supply was
a problem not only for Texas, but for all the South. Medicines, hospitals, and hospital supplies were always short. The people were urged to grow poppies for opium and certain plants and shrubs which had healing qualities. Coffee was soon a thing of the past. The people, however, found that a substitute for coffee could be made from parched sweet potatoes, rye, or okra.

The ashes of corncobs were used for soda. Women used shucks and straw to make hats and fans. There was a spinning wheel in every home, and homespun garments became very popular. In 1861 Governor Lubbock wore a homespun suit at the inaugural ceremonies.

Another thing which became very scarce was hard money, especially in the later years of the war. By 1863 the paper money of the Confederacy was worth only five cents on the dollar.

Goods of all kinds, calico, shoes, and stockings were scarce. When a shipment came in, there was a wild scramble to be the first to purchase some of it. One woman said that she "went and stood wedged up and swaying about till 12." She went away with "one bolt of domestic cloth, one pair of shoes and one dozen candles for $180.00."

One of the scarcest of all items was paper. Many newspapers were forced to stop publication because of this shortage. People could not find paper on which to write letters. They were forced to make their own envelopes, sometimes out of wallpaper torn from the
wall. At first there were no stamps. Instead of putting a stamp on the letter, they took the letter to the postmaster and paid him the amount he required, and he stamped the letter “paid.”

GRIEF AND TEARS. Most of the people thought these things were of minor importance. In fact, they were proud that, in spite of all the hardships, they could provide for themselves. Yet there was much sorrow at home. Almost every home had sent someone to serve the Stars and Bars. In practically all homes, as the sad war went on, tears were shed for loved ones killed in battle. Even though news of death did not come, imagine how fearful you would be, knowing that at any moment such news might come. Worry and fear were not the least of their troubles. One woman wrote, “My dear, dear brother we are filled with anxiety for him! When and where can we see him again? This is a cruel war.”
THE WORK OF THE WOMEN. The women showed no less bravery or heroism than did the soldiers. They did what they could at home to make the soldiers as comfortable in the field as possible. They knitted, kept the farms going, and organized Sunday school classes and ladies' aid societies to help the cause. They did everything, except the fighting. Nothing, it seems, would stop them as long as the Confederate flag could be kept aloft.

SLAVES LOYAL. The slaves, for the most part, remained loyal to their masters while the men were on the battlefields. They helped to keep the farms, and their labors were of great assistance to the whole Confederacy. They guarded the homes and protected the families of their masters.

UNIONISTS IN TEXAS. Those who did not believe in the war were called Unionists. Among these were Sam Houston and James W. Throckmorton. Most of the Unionists in Texas later joined the Confederate Army. Some, however, joined the Federals, some left Texas, and some stayed in hiding during the war to avoid being hanged by vigilante mobs or to keep away from recruiting officers.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Give a brief summary of the activities of Texas troops in the Civil War.
2. Describe the location of and the events surrounding battles fought in Texas during the months of the war.
3. What were some of the difficulties faced on the homefront during the years 1861-1864?
4. What is meant by the term “unionist” or “unionism” as applied to Texans during the war?

**CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY**

- ordinance
- ignominiously
- invasion
- looting
- distinguished (adj.)
- fortifications
- surrender
- homespun
- enforcement
- ludicrous
- conscript
- suspend

**DO IT YOURSELF**

With the aid of additional sources in your school library, trace the campaigns and battles participated in by J. B. Hood's Texas Brigade. Hood commanded this fighting unit as a part of General Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. The Texans saw a great deal of the combats in this area of the war. The history of this unit is interesting but tragic.

**FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE**

Wiley, Bell I. (Editor), *William Andrew Fletcher, Rebel Private Front and Rear.*

Since the days of the Republic of Texas, state officials have been interested in higher education. In 1871 the legislature
created the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas under provisions of the federal Land Grant College Act of 1862. Texas A & M opened its doors in October, 1876, with six teachers and forty men students. The large campus in Brazos County near Bryan was occupied by two college buildings and five homes for the faculty. Thomas S. Gathright was chosen as the first president of the school.

The University of Texas was established in Austin in 1881 when Ashbel Smith was named president of the board of regents and A. P. Wooldridge was appointed secretary. The cornerstone of the first main building was laid in 1882, and the University was formally opened with classes in the new building on September 15, 1883. Leslie Waggener, Sr. served as chairman of the faculty from 1884 until he became the first president in 1895. The old Main Building of the University was built in three stages and finally completed in 1899. Because of its size and location on the top of a hill in the center of the original forty acres, Old Main dominated all of north Austin.

The first tax-supported teacher-training institution in Texas was Sam Houston Normal Institute, located at Huntsville and opened on October 16, 1879. This early school served as a model for the later state normal schools.

In another chapter the establishment of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, the University of Texas, and Sam Houston Normal Institute is discussed.

After the turn of the century, the state college system was expanded:

1. The College of Industrial Arts and Sciences was established at Denton in 1901. Later this school became known as the Texas State College for Women. In 1957 the name was changed to Texas Woman's University.

2. North Texas State College was also established at Denton in 1901 and for many years was a part of the state teachers' college system.
3. Texas Technological College was established at Lubbock in 1923.
4. The Texas College of Arts and Industries was established at Kingsville in 1923 as a teachers' college and was given its present name in 1929.
5. A total of five additional teachers' colleges (most of them have now dropped the word "teachers") were created. This list includes Southwest Texas State College at San Marcos, East Texas State College at Commerce, Stephen F. Austin State College in Nacogdoches, West Texas State College in Canyon, and Sul Ross State College in Alpine.
6. Lamar State Institute of Technology was established in 1951 in Beaumont.
7. Texas Western College was established in 1913-1914 in El Paso as the Texas School of Mines and Metallurgy; this was part of the University of Texas system.

In addition to the older institutions already mentioned, the denominational colleges of Texas include McMurry College, Abilene Christian College, and Hardin-Simmons University at Abilene; Southern Methodist University in Dallas; Texas Wesleyan College in Fort Worth; Trinity University, Incarnate Word, St. Mary's University, and Our Lady of the Lake in San Antonio; and St. Edward's University in Austin.

During the last half of the nineteenth century, the private and denominational schools in Texas included Salado College, established at Salado, Texas, in 1860 with seventy-five students in attendance; Austin College, established at Huntsville by the Presbyterian Church in 1852 and moved to Sherman in 1878; Add-Ran College, first constructed at Thorp Spring in 1878, moved to Waco in 1895, and renamed Texas Christian University in 1902; Baylor University, established by the Baptist Church at Independence in 1846 and moved to Waco in 1887; Howard Payne College, opened in 1890 by the Baptists in Brownwood; Daniel Baker College, established by the Presbyterian Church
at Brownwood in 1889; and Southwestern University, opened by the Methodist Church at Georgetown in 1873. Mary Hardin-Baylor College, the oldest college for women west of the Mississippi, was established at Independence in 1845 as a part of Baylor University. In 1886 the school, then known as Baylor Female College, was moved to Belton by the Baptist State Convention.
Chapter XVI
Rebuilding Texas: Reconstruction

On April 9, 1865, Robert E. Lee, the great commander of the Army of Northern Virginia, surrendered to the United States Army commanded by General U. S. Grant. Just five days later the president of the United States, Abraham Lincoln, was shot and killed by John Wilkes Booth. Vice-President Andrew Johnson succeeded to the presidency, and a serious struggle began concerning what should be done with the defeated Confederate States.

THE STRUGGLE BEGINS. It soon became evident that the South was not to be left alone to recover
from the effects of the war. In fact, many southerners had become so embittered by the war that they could not be trusted to carry out the reconstruction measures of the national government. As will be seen later, southern state governments and southern political leaders quickly let it be known that they intended to defy the United States government in its reconstruction program.

The leaders in the United States Congress were correct in thinking that the ex-Confederates would not obey the laws and that they would continue to treat the Negro people as semi-slaves. Texas was no exception to this general rule. The great question in the minds of northern leaders was how this could be prevented.

**GORDON GRANGER BEGINS MILITARY OCCUPATION.** On June 18, 1865, General Gordon Granger and a detachment of the United States Army arrived at Galveston. The following day Granger proclaimed the laws of the United States to be in effect in Texas. He also declared that the slaves were free. Although President Lincoln had declared all slaves free on January 1, 1863, this proclamation had not been carried out in Texas. As a result, the Negroes of Texas have celebrated June 19 as their day of freedom.

A few troops were sent to the interior of Texas to preserve order and restore the authority of the United States. In July, 1865, the federal government sent A. J. Hamilton, a Texas Unionist, to act as governor until regular government could be restored. This was the beginning of what some historians call the
“tragic era” in the history of Texas and the southern states. The period lasted for five years — from July, 1865, to April, 1870, when Texas was readmitted to the Union. Regular government was restored then, but there was no harmony in state politics for four more years — almost nine years in all.

For convenience, let us divide these nine years into three parts as follows: (1) presidential reconstruction, which lasted from the time A. J. Hamilton became provisional governor to the removal of J. W. Throckmorton as the regular governor; (2) congressional reconstruction, beginning when Congress took over the management of the southern states from the president — this lasted to April, 1870; (3) radical rule and its overthrow, 1870 to 1874.

THE PRESIDENT’S PLAN. Andrew Johnson, a native of Tennessee, had much of the southern viewpoint. He had faith in the southern people, and he thought they would return to the Union and obey the laws. Because of this he devised an easy plan for the South and its people. He said that each state should call a convention and do three things. They should declare secession illegal, recognize the Negroes as free, and declare that debts of the state contracted in carrying on the war were illegal. When the states had done this, they would be restored to the Union. To get these things done in Texas, Johnson sent A. J. Hamilton as governor.

HAMILTON’S TASK. How would you like to have had Hamilton’s job in 1865? It was a difficult
one. First of all, there had been little government in Texas for two months before he came. Nearly all of the state officials had fled, some of them to Mexico. Hamilton himself had been a Unionist and had left Texas during the war. Furthermore, to add more confusion, the armies were breaking up, and the soldiers were returning to their homes. Also, the slaves had been set free at the very beginning of the cotton-picking season. Hamilton was an able man, however, and he was fair in every way.

HAMILTON ORGANIZES A GOVERNMENT. Hamilton set about his task with determination and intelligence. He called for all qualified voters to register and elect delegates to a convention to be held at Austin on February 7, 1866. The convention met on that day, and the president's plan was presented. You can imagine that it would be a bitter dose for some of the Texans to accept some of the requirements. After long, weary, and sometimes bitter discussions lasting for two months, they proceeded to swallow their medicine.

The convention did what President Johnson had asked them to do. The Secession Ordinance was declared null and void; they refused to grant the Negro the right to vote, but they did declare him to be free and to have the same rights in the courts as white people; and, finally, all state debts made during the war were canceled. The convention then called for an election in June.
J. W. THROCKMORTON ELECTED GOVERNOR. The election was held as planned. There were two candidates for the governorship, E. M. Pease and J. W. Throckmorton. Pease had served twice as governor and was now the candidate of the Unionists. Throckmorton had been a Unionist before secession, but he became a Confederate soldier and rose to the rank of brigadier general. He was now the Democrats' candidate.

Throckmorton was elected. The president then ordered Governor Hamilton to turn over the reins of government to the newly-elected governor and legislature. Hamilton had served well, but he was happy to comply with the order. Accordingly, Throckmorton was inaugurated in August, 1866, and the members of the new legislature were sworn in at the same time. The legislature proceeded to elect David G. Burnet and O. M. Roberts as senators.

On August 20 President Johnson declared the insurrection in Texas ended and proclaimed that peace and order had been restored. There was great rejoicing among the people. They believed that reconstruction had ended. In some circles, however, there was fear that greater troubles were in store for Texas and the South — and this was no idle fear.

MILITARY RULE AGAIN. It is only natural that Unionists did not like the idea of a former Confederate general presiding over the state government, which had few men in it supporting the congressional program. By this time certain members of Congress,
led by Thaddeus Stevens of Pennsylvania, were certain that the presidential plan of reconstruction was too easy on the southern states. These Radical Republicans, as they were called, desired to punish the southerners for their actions during the period of secession and war. Their first move was to deny seats in Congress to the newly-elected members from the "reconstructed" states; thus the Texas congressional delegation was unseated, and Burnet and Roberts were refused their places in the United States Senate.

In the meantime, the Texas Legislature had refused to ratify the Thirteenth and Fourteenth amendments to the Federal Constitution. Such action was correctly interpreted by the Republican leaders in Congress as an attempt to keep the southern Negro in a state of slavery. Therefore, the congressional leadership refused to recognize the newly-established state government in Texas. To insure the success of its program in the South (and this included Texas, of course), Congress did the thing that southerners hated the most — by the Reconstruction Acts of 1867 military government was established in the southern area. The former Confederate States, with the exception of Tennessee, were divided into five military districts, with a general of the United States Army in command of each district.

Texas and Louisiana were in the Fifth Military District, with General Phillip H. Sheridan in command. Sheridan's duty was to keep order, to see that the Negroes received their rights, and to guide the
state in setting up a government which Congress would approve.

To do this required the election of delegates to another convention. To make certain that secessionists were not elected, Congress required that every voter take what was called the “Ironclad Oath.” This oath required the voter to swear that he had not aided the Confederacy voluntarily. Thus the southern leaders, who could not take the oath, could not vote. Only the northern Republicans (called carpetbaggers), the native Texas Unionists and Republicans (called scalawags), and the Negroes could vote.

GOVERNOR THROCKMORTON’S REMOVAL. Throckmorton tried hard to enforce the laws and carry out General Sheridan’s orders. Sheridan, however, was very harsh in discharging his duties. He did not like Governor Throckmorton because he had served in the Confederacy. Sheridan began by setting aside certain previous laws which he did not like. From there he proceeded to dismiss state and even
county officers. It was an easy step from this to the removal of Governor Throckmorton, the highest officer of the state. The governor was removed on July 30, 1867, on the charge that he was "an impediment to reconstruction." In his place Sheridan appointed E. M. Pease whom Throckmorton had defeated in the election nearly four votes to one.

The choice of Pease was a good one. He was not very popular, however, for he was a Unionist; he had become a Republican, and now he replaced a man who had been elected by a vote of the people.

**THE FREEDMEN'S BUREAU.** When the news of the proclamation freeing slaves was made known, the Negroes were not sure how to use their freedom. The problem was two-fold. The former slave-holders could find no help to harvest the crops, and the ex-slaves did not know how to provide their own food and shelter.

To advise the Negroes was the chief purpose of the Freedmen's Bureau, which was organized by the United States government and administered by the army. The bureau helped the ex-slaves make labor contracts with their former masters and established schools where the Negroes could learn to read and write.

**THE UNION LEAGUE.** When it was known that the Negroes would have great influence at the ballot box, some men began to plot to control their votes. To do this, Negroes were organized into what were called "Union Leagues." In these leagues they
were taught to take an active part in politics. They were told how to vote and for whom to vote. They were even sometimes organized into military companies and furnished guns and ammunition. The Union League became the basis of the Republican party in Texas.

**THE KU KLUX KLAN.** Opposed to this Union League was the Ku Klux Klan. The Klan was made up of men who thought it a mistake to allow the Negroes to vote or to have any part in the making of laws. The Ku Klux Klan aimed mainly to keep the Negroes out of the Union League and to keep them away from the polls on election days.

**THE PROBLEM OF A NEW STATE GOVERNMENT.** When Throckmorton was removed and Pease inaugurated as governor, it was understood that he would serve until a new government could be formed. You will recall that in 1866 the people of Texas had declared secession illegal, the Negroes free, and debt created during the war null and void. But Congress was not pleased with this, so it established military rule in Texas and all the South. This law also required Texans to hold another convention to write a new constitution which would give the Negro the right to vote. The federal government presented three amendments which set the slaves free, gave them full citizenship, and finally granted them the right to vote. Now Texas had the job of bringing its Constitution into line with the ideas of the United States.
government. When those things were done, regular government would be restored again.

NEW CONSTITUTION. In order to change the Constitution, a convention had to be held. Delegates to this convention were elected in February, 1868. Most of the white men who had fought in the southern armies were not allowed to vote. They could not take the "Ironclad Oath," so about half of the voters were Negroes, and a majority of the delegates elected were scalawags, carpetbaggers, and Negroes. These delegates could not agree on important matters; they quarreled among themselves until February, 1869, when they adjourned.

At an election in November, 1869, the people of Texas adopted the Constitution written by this convention. At the same time the Constitution was adopted, new officers were elected. A. J. Hamilton and E. J. Davis were candidates for governor. Both were Unionists. Hamilton had gone north during the war, and Davis was an officer in the Union Army. Davis was favored by the military authorities who supervised the elections, and after a bitter contest he was declared to be the winner by only a few votes.

TEXAS READMITTED TO THE UNION. The legislature elected under the new constitution met in February, 1870. It very promptly adopted the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States. The Fourteenth Amend-
ment gave certain citizenship rights to the Negro, and the Fifteenth Amendment gave him the right to vote.

The state legislature elected two senators and then asked the Congress to accept them and its representatives. Texas had now done all that was required of it to be restored to the Union. In the Constitution of 1868, which Negroes had helped to write, they were given the same rights as white men in civil and political affairs, and the legislature adopted the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments. Texas was then re-admitted to the Union with all the rights of other states; the day was March 30, 1870.

THE E. J. DAVIS GOVERNMENT. Again the people rejoiced, but again they were to be disappointed. The government was still in the hands of men who had not suffered from the war and who had no sympathy for the people they governed. Chief among these men who had no interest in the state's welfare was E. J. Davis. The others followed his lead.

Davis, a native of Florida who had lived in Texas since 1848, was district judge for five years at Corpus Christi. During the war he commanded a regiment
of Texas Unionists and was a brigadier general. He was a member of the Convention of 1866 and was president of the Convention of 1868. He was now to serve as governor from 1870 to 1874. This was the worst period of reconstruction, and, in many ways, this period of history was worse than the war years. The Constitution of 1869 gave the governor more power than any governor had ever had. Davis made use of all the powers granted and many more not granted.

**OPPRESSIVE ACTS OF DAVIS.** The people soon came to hate the governor. Let us list some of the things Davis did to cause their hatred:

1. He appointed sheriffs, judges, and even city officials who should have been elected by the voters.
2. He organized a police force of three hundred officers and men, called the state police. These state police helped to curb the acts of outlaws in the state, but they were a reckless gang themselves, treating the people as if they had no rights.
3. He sent soldiers into many towns and communities to take over civil affairs. There was nothing the people hated more than military rule.
4. He stationed troops at the polls on election days. Elections were not free in the real sense of the word.
5. In violation of the right of trial by jury, he allowed military courts to try men for offenses committed. Trial by jury had been sacred to all Texans.
FOOLISH ACTS OF THE LEGISLATURE. In addition to his oppressive measures, the governor approved the bad measures passed by the legislature. You will recall that this legislature was made up of ex-slaves, scalawags, and carpetbaggers. These men (who had had no experience in government, who owned little or no property, and who were not afraid of debts and taxes) raised taxes, spent the money recklessly, and then raised taxes again. When tax money ran out, the legislature issued bonds.

PROTESTS FROM THE PEOPLE. Protests by the thousands poured into Austin. Finally, in September of 1871 a group of men representing ninety-four counties met in Austin to register their objections to the high-handed Davis government. This was called the Tax-Payers’ Convention. The Davis men called it a “convention of soreheads.” Even the Republicans had joined in the protest. Among the well-known Republicans who attended were E. M. Pease, A. J. Hamilton, and Morgan C. Hamilton, who was a United States senator.

The Convention adopted some very strong resolutions, mainly against the Davis government. These resolutions said that this government was trying to place all the power in Davis’ hands. They said that in all its acts they could not find even one that was “based on an honest desire to accomplish good” for Texas.

THE LAST OF THE SCALAWAGS. This convention stirred up much opposition to Davis and
was the beginning of the downfall of the radicals. The next step came in the elections of 1872, when Davis lost control of the legislature. It was only a matter of time now. The Thirteenth Legislature which assembled at Austin in January, 1873, repealed all the basic laws of the radicals; it repealed the hated police act, removed the power of the governor to declare martial law, and reduced the appointive powers of the governor. This legislature also provided for a general election for December, 1873.

**TEXANS HAVE CAUSE TO REJOICE.** The election was held, but Davis was again a candidate for the governorship. His opponent was Richard Coke. The campaign was very exciting, yet Coke was elected by a vote of 85,549 to 42,663. R. B. Hubbard was elected lieutenant governor.

Davis was angered by the election returns. He declared the election illegal and said he would not give up the office. He tried to hold onto the first floor, while inaugural ceremonies were in progress on the second. He appealed to the president of the United States to send troops to help. President Grant refused, and Davis gave up peacefully on January 7, 1874.

Coke was a Democrat who had served in the Confederate Army. In a real sense, the people of Texas had cause to rejoice not so much because of Coke's election, but because the radicals had been overthrown. A great era of self-government, prosperity, and happiness had begun.
THE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION OF 1875. The Constitutional Convention of 1875 was the result of an effort by the Democrats of Texas to destroy the "radical" Republican Constitution of 1869. In August, 1875, the voters approved a convention to prepare a new constitution, and three delegates were elected from each senatorial district. The convention met in Austin on September 6, 1875, to draw up the new constitution for the state. The new document was submitted to the people in an election on February 15, 1876, and, as a result, the Constitution of 1876 was adopted by the voters. A majority of the members of this convention stressed economy in government. Thus the Constitution of 1876 provided for short terms of office, low salaries for state officials, and limited powers for state officers. In spite of the people's distrust of government, mirrored by the document, our state's Constitution of 1876 is still in effect.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. What was the significance of General Gordon Granger's occupation of Galveston in June of 1865?
2. Outline the presidential plan of reconstruction and trace A. J. Hamilton's role in the operation of the plan in Texas.
3. Discuss the election of J. W. Throckmorton as governor of Texas and show the significance of Throckmorton's brief rule.
4. Explain in full the details of military government in the southern states and in Texas.
5. List the major activities of the Union League and the Ku Klux Klan.
6. Explain the attempt to form a new constitution for Texas in 1868 and 1869.
7. Discuss the significance of E. J. Davis and his so-called "oppressive acts."
8. Explain the terms *carpetbagger* and *scalawag* as they are applied to the reconstruction period in Texas.
9. Show the difficulty that Texans experienced in getting Governor Davis out of office after Coke's victory in 1873.

**CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY**

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**DO IT YOURSELF**

1. Draw up a chart showing President Johnson's plans to reunite the South with the North. Include small illustrations appropriate to each point.
2. Dramatize the election for the first convention to change the constitution in 1868. Be sure to show the problems involved—the voters, the differences of opinion, the bitter rivalry.

**FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE**

Elise Waerenskjold was a Norwegian-American resident of the small settlement known as Four Mile Prairie, or Prairieville, in Kaufman County, Texas. In the early summer or late fall of 1865, she wrote a rather lengthy letter to friends back in Norway. This letter, taken from C. A. Clausen (Editor), *The Lady with a Pen*, reveals a side of the Civil War and reconstruction that is often overlooked in the South. Mrs. Waerenskjold wrote:

"During the war we always had plenty of money, but it was not worth much. The rate was 20 paper dollars to one in gold; but usually we bartered goods. Wool was my best medium of exchange. We now have 278 sheep. All retail trade came to a stop during the war. Toward the end, to be sure, some goods came in from Mexico, but at exorbitant prices. One yard of cotton cloth cost from 15 to 20 paper dollars; 1 pound of coffee, $20; 1 pound of sugar, $10, etc. Our products sold at the old prices: one pound of wool, $.20, 1 bushel of wheat (1/4 tonde), $1 in gold or twenty times as much in paper money. Everyone had to spin and weave because not only the family at home, but also the relatives in the army, had to be supplied with clothes, as the government did not provide for them. Sometimes soldiers in the service went about barefoot and in their underpants when their relatives did not have a chance to send them clothes.

"The states where the war was fought suffered terribly from our own armies and from the armies of the enemy. But, God be praised, our part of the country escaped this double visitation, and consequently endured far less. To be sure, we have been left with many widows, orphans, and cripples; and those
families that did not have slaves endured great hardships, as women and children had to do all the work because they could not hire Negroes at the exorbitant wages demanded by their owners. (I hired a man for $1,600 and three yards of woolen cloth, besides clothes for him: that is to say, three pairs of pants, two pairs of underpants, three shirts, three pairs of socks, a coat, a hat, and shoes. These clothes would have cost at least $750 if I had bought them.) But we were spared all plundering, and seeing our houses and fences burned by the soldiers, calamities which befell numerous families in other states. It is with reason, therefore, that we count ourselves lucky for being in Texas — so long as we had to be in a slave state. Since the war broke out I have frequently regretted that we settled in slave territory."
Chapter XVII

Years of Growth

The years that followed the Civil War represent the "wild and wooly West" at its height. A little later you will read of other political and social developments in Texas during the years following 1870, but right now you will enjoy learning why Texas Rangers were first organized.

THE TEXAS RANGERS

Common crimes of the lawless period immediately following reconstruction included cattle rustling, horse theft, "shooting up" a town, stagecoach and train robberies, and petty theft. Frequent murders along the Texas frontier were a result of the many violations of the law. Of all the police agencies in Texas dur-
ing the 1870's and 1880's, the Texas Rangers was the most effective agency.

The term ranger indicates that the Texas Ranger differed from the local peace officer, such as a sheriff or marshal, in that the Ranger was a person who moved about and operated throughout the state. Not a military man, the Ranger’s main duty was and is to restore order in situations beyond the control of local officers but not serious enough to require military aid.

EARLY HISTORY OF THE RANGERS. In 1823 Stephen F. Austin employed ten men to serve as Rangers, but there is no record of their operation. Later in the colonial period there is mention of a company of Rangers, but not until the Texas Revolution was it officially organized. During the Revolution companies of Rangers patrolled the frontier and protected the settlements from Indian raids.

The Rangers continued to serve during the Republic. During this period such leaders emerged as Ben McCulloch, Samuel H. Walker, W.A.A. (Big Foot) Wallace, and John Coffee Hays. As noted earlier, John C. Hays’ Texas Rangers took part in the Mexican War of 1846 to 1847 as scouts for the armies of Zachary Taylor and Winfield Scott.

In the years of the Civil War there was an absence of Ranger action, but they were needed more than ever in the years immediately following reconstruction. The Rangers were called on to break up the Horrell-Higgins feud in Lampasas County, to put down a
private war in Kimble County, and to kill the notorious train robber, Sam Bass, in 1878. The same year they broke up the Salt War near El Paso.

Life in the Rangers is described by James B. Gillett in *Six Years With the Texas Rangers*. Part of this description is found in the Appendix. If your school or community library has the book, you may wish to read more about the Rangers.

By 1880 the Texas frontier had been cleaned up by the Rangers, and they had become a well-established institution. Since 1880 the organization has had an unbroken existence, under varying laws, to the present time.

**SAM BASS.** One of the most infamous outlaws to roam the Texas frontier during the 1870's was Sam Bass, a native of Indiana who came to Texas at an early age. On his arrival in Texas, Bass became a cowhand and teamster in Denton County. In 1874 he took to horse racing and quit work to reap the gains of the race track. Then in 1876 Sam Bass rode up the cattle trail to Nebraska. After the sale of the herd, he and his companions went to the gold-mining town of Deadwood. They lost their money in the gambling halls of Deadwood and, in their desperation for funds, robbed a Union Pacific train and seven stagecoaches. Led by Joel Collins and Bass, the robbers took $60,000 in gold from the baggage car of the Union Pacific and several thousand dollars more from the passengers on the train.

Bass returned to Texas to form a new outlaw
band in the river bottoms of Denton County. He held up two stagecoaches and in the spring of 1878 robbed four trains within thirty miles of Dallas. By this time, Bass was hotly pursued by the Texas Rangers. He avoided capture, however, until one of his discontented companions informed on him. At Round Rock, where the Bass gang planned to rob the local bank, Bass was wounded in a battle with local peace officers and died two days later. Although a group of Texas Rangers was riding night and day to reach Round Rock, it missed the fight.

According to Jim Gillett, Sam Bass went into Round Rock on a Friday evening to look over the bank he planned to rob the next day. The deputy sheriff saw Bass and noticed that he carried a pistol. The battle in which Bass was wounded followed. You can read Gillett's full account of this event in the Appendix.
THE SALT WAR. Later in the year 1878 the Rangers were called on to break up the Salt War in the region near El Paso. The origins of the Salt War go back to the late 1860's, when several leading Republicans of El Paso attempted to gain title to the salt deposits at the foot of Guadalupe Peak. As a result, two factions grew out of these efforts.

Charles Howard, a Missouri lawyer and Democrat, in 1872 joined with Louis Cardis, a native who controlled a large Mexican vote, to break the Republican control. After Howard's election as district judge, Howard and Cardis became political enemies. Their trouble became serious when Howard tried to gain control of the salt lakes. The Mexican population considered these deposits public property. Riots broke out in 1877; Cardis was killed by Howard in an El Paso store; and serious trouble threatened.

Major John B. Jones organized a group of Texas Rangers and hurried to the scene. Mob violence flared at the small town of San Elizario as Howard was cornered in the village. After a four-day siege, Howard and his companions surrendered to the mob. They were promptly shot by a firing squad of men from Mexico, who then looted San Elizario. Several days later detachments of troops and a posse of citizens rode into San Elizario; the mob fled; and the town grew quiet.

POST-WAR POLITICAL EVENTS

THE STATE CAPITOL AND THE XIT RANCH. In November, 1881, the capitol building in
Austin was destroyed by fire. Governor O. M. Roberts reported the "burning was accidental and was caused by a clerk having a stove put up in one of the rooms with the top of the stove-pipe inserted in a hole in the partition wall"—the hole being mistaken for a flue.

The following year the Sixteenth Legislature appropriated approximately 3,000,000 acres of public land to finance the construction of a new capitol. Mattheas Schnell of Chicago accepted the contract and received the land in payment. He gave three-fourths of it to a group of investors, who organized the Capitol Syndicate, among whom were Charles and John Farwell, Colonel A. C. Babcock, and Abner Taylor. Elijah Meyers, the architect, drew the plans for the building, which was constructed of granite. The task of building it began in 1883, and on May 16, 1888, the new capitol of Texas was opened to the public.

In the meantime the Capitol Syndicate had established the XIT Ranch on the western side of the Texas Panhandle. This huge enterprise originally covered nine Texas counties. It was decided to ranch the 3,000,000-acre tract of land until farmers moved into the plains area.

Beginning in 1901, the Capitol Syndicate began to sell the lands of the XIT. George Littlefield was among the first buyers. Much of the land was divided into small tracts and sold to farmers.
POST-WAR GOVERNORS. This era of changes in Texas was made possible by the new political situation in the state. After the turmoil of reconstruction, the Democrats returned to power in Texas. As noted, Richard Coke was elected governor in 1874 and served for two years. He was followed by Richard B. Hubbard, 1876-1878, and Oran M. Roberts, 1878-1883. Governor Roberts, an East Texas lawyer and Civil War veteran, became professor of law at the University of Texas after his term as governor ended. On the campus of the University he was popularly known as "the Old Alcalde." John Ireland and Lawrence Sullivan Ross followed Roberts into the governor's office in that order.

JOHN IRELAND AND THE FENCE CUTTERS WAR. John Ireland, a lawyer from Kentucky, moved to Seguin, Texas, and became very well known in politics. In the state legislature he opposed land grants to railroads, and his work in opposition to the grants to the International and Great Northern Railroad won him the title of "Oxcart John." Ireland was elected governor of Texas in 1882 and again in 1884. We remember him by the fence cutting war of 1883 and the labor strikes that came a few years later.

The fence cutting of 1883 was due to conflict between the cattlemen who wanted to keep the open range and those who fenced their property with barbed wire. The drought of 1883 hurt the small cattlemen because adequate grass and water were hard to find.
Most of the ranchers owned or leased the land they fenced, but often small farms and public lands were enclosed. Frequently the fences blocked public roads, cut off schools and churches, and interfered with mail delivery. As a result, many farmers and ranchers joined in the fence cutting, even though they were not directly involved. This activity soon attracted the rougher men of the area, and after a time no barbed wire fence was safe.

Fence cutting was reported in over half of Texas, being most common in the central section of the state — the rancher’s frontier of 1883. Most of the cutting was done at night by armed bands. Fences were de-
stroyed, with warnings left about what would happen if they were rebuilt. Sometimes even the pastures were burned.

The owners fought back. Gunshots and pistol duels grew frequent. By 1883 the damage from the wrecking of fences was an estimated twenty million dollars. Politicians did not want to get involved in the fight.

Deciding to act, John Ireland called a special session of the legislature to meet in January, 1884. After a long, hot debate, fence cutting was made punishable by imprisonment. At the same time, knowingly building a fence around someone else's property was made a misdemeanor, and such fences had to be removed within six months. The law also provided that when fences crossed roads, gates would be built. Most of the troubles from fence cutting ended with these laws.

**LAWRENCE SULLIVAN ROSS.** Ross came to Texas from Iowa with his parents in 1839. The family settled first in Milam County and later moved to Waco. After his education at Baylor University and Wesleyan College in Alabama, he served in the Confederate Army for the entire Civil War.

Ross was well-known as an Indian fighter. He attacked a large Comanche village, killed the notorious Peta Nocona, captured the long lost Cynthia Ann Parker, and broke the power of the Comanche Indians. In 1886 Ross was elected governor and became the first to occupy the new capitol building.
POLITICAL DISCONTENT. James Stephen Hogg began the first of his remarkable two terms as governor of Texas in 1890. Although Texas politics after the Civil War were rather quiet, there was some discontent from time to time. Demand for reform came from the farmers of the state — the need for regulated railroads, worthless currency, and easy credit were three of the factors behind this discontent. Since the Civil War, farmers' lives had been difficult. The old Greenback party and the National Grange were expressions of farmer discontent during the 1870's and early 1880's. The Farmers' Alliance was founded in Texas in 1875 and soon became a national organization. The People's party grew out of this alliance. Among the demands made by the alliance were (1) that school lands be sold in small amounts to real settlers; (2) that railroad property be taxed at its full value; and (3) that an effective interstate commerce law be enacted. In 1890 the farmers supported James Stephen Hogg for governor.

JAMES STEPHEN HOGG. James Stephen Hogg was a native of Tyler in Smith County. As Jim Hogg went only to elementary school, we can call him a self-made man. He worked in a print shop before studying law. This man well understood the problems of the common people. After a few years in a private law practice, Hogg was elected attorney general under the Ross administration.

Governor Hogg, elected by farmers, continued the reform program he began as attorney general. He
paid the greatest attention to railroad companies in Texas. He solved the problems of the farmers when the Railroad Commission of Texas was established by law in 1891. In 1895 Hogg was succeeded by his own attorney general, Charles A. Culberson. Culberson carried on in Hogg’s liberal tradition. So for more than a decade Hogg helped to determine the way of Texas government.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR. When war broke out between the United States and Spain in 1898, Texans responded to the call for help with their usual enthusiasm. It has been estimated that about ten thousand Texans enlisted in the army during this short conflict. The famous regiment of Rough Riders was organized and trained at San Antonio by Colonel Leonard Wood and Lieutenant Colonel Theodore Roosevelt. This colorful cavalry regiment was made up of men from the rugged West, as well as the elite of New York City.
TWENTIETH CENTURY POLITICS

As the new century dawned, many changes were evident in Texas. During the last years of the nineteenth century (1) most of the public land passed into private ownership; (2) graveled public roads were built; (3) the public school system was bigger and better; and (4) the foundations of industry had been laid by "colonial type" mills and factories, close to the source of raw materials and serving a limited market. Before studying the highlights of the past half century in Texas, it would be well to take a brief look at the political leaders of the state from 1900 to 1914.

EARLY TWENTIETH CENTURY GOVERNORS. The last governor of the nineteenth century was Joseph D. Sayers. Sayers, a native of Mississippi and a Confederate veteran, had been a resident of Bastrop, Texas, since 1851. After serving several terms in the state and national legislatures, he was elected governor in 1898 with the support of Colonel E. M. House. During his term of office, Texas experienced disasters in the form of the burning of the prison at Huntsville, the Brazos flood of 1899, and the Galveston storm.

S. W. T. Lanham succeeded Sayers in 1903 and served until 1907. His administration proved uneventful. T. M. Campbell of Rusk, Texas, was elected governor in 1906. Taking office the following year, Campbell served until 1911.

Campbell was succeeded by Oscar Branch Col-
quitt, who began a two-term administration in 1911. A native of Georgia and Daingerfield, Texas, Colquitt had been a newspaper editor before embarking on a study of law and a career in politics. His administration featured reform of the prison system, an advance in the educational system, and legislation designed to improve the lot of the laborer. Colquitt was pro-German during the early years of the First World War and was defeated in a race for the United States Senate by Charles A. Culberson in 1916.

JOSEPH WELDON BAILEY. One of the most controversial figures on the Texas political scene during the early years of the new century was Joseph Weldon Bailey. Born in Mississippi and educated at Cumberland University, Bailey moved to Texas in 1885 to begin a practice of law at Gainesville. Entering politics during the early 1890's, he was elected to the United States Congress in 1890 and served in the House of Representatives until 1901. In March of 1901 Bailey became United States senator from Texas. He soon became a power in the national councils of the Democratic party.

Investigated in 1907 by the Texas Legislature, Bailey was declared innocent of all charges brought against him. He continued to serve in the United States Senate until he resigned in January, 1913. He lived in Washington until 1919, when he returned to Texas to campaign for governor against Pat M. Neff. Defeated in the election, he moved to Dallas and practiced law there until his death in 1929.
EDWARD M. HOUSE. One of the powers behind the scenes in the deliberations of the Democratic party of Texas and of the nation was Edward Mandell House of Austin. Born in Houston, Texas, on the eve of the Civil War, Edward M. House inherited considerable wealth from his father. He moved to Austin in the early 1880's so that he could be near the center of state politics, and he established wide personal relationships and came into close touch with many aspects of the economic and political life of Texas.

House never desired an elective office and sought none. On the other hand, he preferred to be the man behind the elected politicians. He managed the campaign of James S. Hogg for governor in 1892 and as a reward was commissioned a colonel by Governor Hogg. His political skill continued to be apparent in the political campaigns of C. A. Culberson, Joseph D. Sayers, and S. W. T. Lanham.

A leader in the affairs of the Democratic party, House in 1911 searched for a candidate to support for president of the United States. He became interested in the record of Thomas Woodrow Wilson, who was introduced to House in the autumn of 1911. A close friendship developed between the two men, and House was the central figure in the campaigns for Wilson's nomination by the Democrats in 1912 and for his election to the presidency in November of that year. From 1913 to 1919 House served as Wilson's most trusted advisor; the president consulted with him on all matters of importance.
THE TERRELL ELECTION LAW. Before the election of 1906 the political parties of Texas used the convention method to select candidates for the general election in November. In 1905 the Texas Legislature passed the Terrell Election Law, named for Judge A. W. Terrell, who introduced the bill in the legislature. This law established the direct primary system for all state, district, and county elective offices. It provided that any party whose candidate receives 100,000 votes for governor in the preceding election must hold a direct primary in the next election. In 1945 the law was amended so that 200,000 votes in the preceding election is the number required to make a direct primary mandatory. (A primary election is a nominating method where all the voters who claim to be members of one of the major parties go to the polls to select their party candidates. The winners in the primary appear on the ballot in the general or national election every second November.)

Although changes have been made, the Terrell Election Law remains the basis of the body of laws that governs Texas elections today. Under these regulations the Democratic party holds a primary election on the first Saturday of May of even-numbered years. As a general rule, there are several candidates for each state and local office.

A second primary election, called a run-off primary, is held the first Saturday in June. At this election members of the Democratic party vote for those offices in which no candidate received a majority of the vote in the first primary. The names of only
the two leading candidates for each post appear on the ballot in the run-off primary. The winner of the second or run-off primary is the person whose name is put on the ballot for the Democratic party in the general election held on the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November. The vast majority of voters in Texas profess membership in the Democratic party. Thus, with few exceptions, the person chosen by the party in the primary elections is elected to the same office in the November election.

As the result of two Supreme Court decisions of the 1930's and 1940's, the party primary in southern states, where victory in the primary means election, has been held to be the same as an election. Therefore, if a person is denied the right to vote in a primary, he has been denied the right to vote. Thus, the Negroes of Texas have voted in Democratic party primaries since the election of 1946.

JAMES E. FERGUSON. In 1914 there appeared in Texas politics a candidate for governor who was destined to wield a powerful influence over Texas for a generation. It can be said that this man controlled the administration of the state longer than any other man in the history of the state. The man was James Edward Ferguson. He was twice elected to the office of governor. After his removal from office in 1917, he continued to influence many of the policies of the state through his wife, Miriam A. Ferguson, who served as governor from 1925 to 1927 and again from 1933 to 1935.
Ferguson was born on August 31, 1871, near Salado, Bell County, Texas. When he was four years of age, his father died. Young Ferguson went to work on his mother's farm just as soon as strength would permit. When sixteen, he left home and held various jobs until he began to practice law in Belton in 1897. While a young lawyer, he showed an interest in local political problems. In the election of 1914 Ferguson ran for governor. The chief plank in his platform appealed to the tenant farmers and won him the nickname "Farmer Jim." Governor Ferguson served one term and was elected for a second.
FERGUSON'S IMPEACHMENT. At the beginning of his second term, those who were opposed to Ferguson brought impeachment charges against him. Shortly before, the governor had been engaged in a serious quarrel with the University of Texas. The argument grew out of the refusal of the board of regents to remove certain faculty members to whom the governor objected. As a result of the controversy, Ferguson vetoed practically the entire appropriation for the university. Charges of corruption were first whispered during the election campaign of 1916. Investigations were made, but nothing was uncovered. In 1917 interest in the matter was renewed. Ferguson was charged with misapplication of funds and embezzlement. A special session of the legislature was called; the House of Representatives brought the charges, with the Senate sitting as a High Court of Impeachment. The governor was convicted on ten of the eleven charges and removed from office by a vote of twenty-five to three. Lieutenant Governor William P. Hobby became governor.

MIRIAM A. FERGUSON. Ferguson's impeachment made him ineligible for any office of trust, but the legislative decision did not remove the Fergusons from Texas politics. After W. P. Hobby served as governor until 1920, he was followed by Pat M. Neff, who served for two terms. Meanwhile, James E. Ferguson had been a Democratic party primary candidate for governor in 1918, a presidential candidate on the Know-Nothings party ticket in the national election.
of 1920, and a candidate for the United States Senate in 1922. In 1924 he conducted a campaign for governor for his wife, Mrs. Miriam A. Ferguson. Mrs. Ferguson was victorious over nine other candidates and became the first woman governor of Texas. In fact, nowhere else in the United States have a man and his wife both served as governors of a state. Miriam Ferguson sought re-election in 1926 but was defeated. In 1932, in the midst of the great depression, Mrs. Ferguson again sought the governorship and was elected for the second time over Governor Ross Sterling. In 1940 Mrs. Ferguson ran for governor again, and "Farmer Jim" made his last appeal to the Texas voters. This time, as in 1926, Mrs. Ferguson lost. In their long careers in Texas politics the Fergusons were controversial figures.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Explain the origin of the term, "Texas Ranger."
2. Trace the problems associated with the building of the new state capitol.
3. Trace the origin and development of fence cutting in Texas.

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
emerged
faction
contract
investor
syndicate
institution
decade
indispensable
appropriated
felony
misdemeanor
alliance
DO IT YOURSELF

1. Write a theme on the several state capitals of Texas with special attention to the construction of the present capitol building at Austin. Do you know the difference in the meanings of capital and capitol? If not, look up the words before you begin work on this project.

2. Draw a cartoon about the fence cutters.

3. Find a book about the Rough Riders. After you have read it, write a letter as if you were a Rough Rider writing of your experiences.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Holden, W. C., Alkali Trails.
Wortham, Louis J., History of Texas, V, 87-134.

You will recall the hurricane "Carla," which lashed a broad area of the Gulf of Mexico coastline in September of 1961. Because of modern warning systems, thousands of people were evacuated from the area that lay in Carla's path. As a result, only forty persons perished, although property damage was estimated at $400,000,000.

Texans were not so fortunate when other storms struck. Here are accounts of some other disasters of similar nature.

The years around the turn of the century saw two great rainstorms fall upon widely separated areas of Texas. Both of these resulted in floods that proved costly in terms of loss of property and life. During the third week of June, 1899, a storm, which centered over the Brazos River watershed, progressed inland from the Texas coast. The rainfall averaged 8.9 inches over 66,000
square miles of Central Texas. As a result, the Brazos River overflowed its banks to flood an estimated 12,000 square miles. Damage to property was fixed at about $9,000,000; 284 persons were known to have lost their lives in the floodwaters. Thousands of others were left homeless. The flood’s highest recorded stage was at Hearne. During the height of this storm, thirty-three inches of rainfall were recorded over a three-day period at Turnersville in Coryell County.

During the first week of June, 1900, rainstorms originating in Val Verde County on the Rio Grande and in Swisher County in West Texas converged on Travis County in Central Texas. A disastrous flood resulted in the Guadalupe, Colorado, and Brazos rivers. There was a property loss of several millions of dollars. The Austin Dam on the Colorado was destroyed by the floodwaters. Twenty-three or more lives were lost.

Early in September, 1900, the United States Weather Bureau posted warnings that a tropical hurricane was moving westward through the Gulf of Mexico. By September 7 the surf at Galveston became too dangerous for bathing, and the storm broke over the city with high winds and heavy rain on the morning of September 8, 1900. By late afternoon the entire city was under from four to five feet of water. The wind gauge at the weather bureau registered a velocity of 96 miles an hour. All connections with the mainland had been severed by nightfall.

The climax came about 8 o’clock in the evening. The wind, blowing at an estimated 120 miles per hour, changed from east to southeast, and a tidal wave four to six feet high swept over the city. After midnight the wind slackened. Half of the city had been destroyed, and an estimated six thousand persons had perished. Corpses were gathered, placed on barges, and towed out to sea. When the barges drifted back to the mainland, a large-scale cremation was ordered. A fifteen-foot sea wall was built to protect the city from another such disaster.

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Chapter XVIII

Contemporary Texas

The first great World War of the present century started in the summer of 1914 between Austria and Serbia, two nations of southeastern Europe. Within a few days all of the major nations of Europe were involved in the bloodiest conflict that the world had then known. The Central Powers consisted of the nations of Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria. The Allies consisted of France, Russia, England, Serbia, and Belgium. Later Italy and the United States joined the Allied nations, while Russia
quit the war because of the Communist Revolution of 1917.

TEXAS AND NATIONAL PROBLEMS

THE FIRST WORLD WAR. After a noble attempt to remain neutral, the United States entered the First World War on the side of England and France in April, 1917. The declaration of war by the United States was welcomed with great joy by the battle-weary Allies. Texans took an active part in the preparedness campaign of 1916 and approved the declaration of war in 1917. There was little opposition in the state to the selective service system, and approximately 989,600 men registered. As a result of the draft and volunteer service, a total of 198,000 Texans saw military service during the course of the fighting.

Military training camps were established at several Texas locations. Camp MacArthur was constructed at Waco; Camp Logan was built at Houston; Camp Travis was established at San Antonio; and Camp Bowie was constructed at Fort Worth. An officers' training school was established at Leon Springs in Bexar County. Training schools for the Army Air Service included Hicks Field at Fort Worth, Call Field at Wichita Falls, Ellington Field near Houston, and Kelly Field on the outskirts of San Antonio. The 36th (Texas) Division, composed mainly of National Guard troops from Texas, was organized in July, 1917, and arrived in France in May, 1918. The division entered combat the following October and spent
twenty-three days in action. The 36th Division was demobilized at Camp Bowie after the war.

The second Texas infantry outfit to see service in France was the 90th Division, also called the "Alamo Division." The 90th was organized at Camp Travis in August, 1917, under the command of Major General Henry T. Allen. Texas and Oklahoma furnished the men of the original division. After the armistice, the 90th Division moved into Germany as a part of the army of occupation. It was sent home for demobilization in May, 1919.

THE PROHIBITION AMENDMENT. Long before the turn of the century the prohibition of alcoholic beverages became an issue in Texas politics. In 1887 a prohibition amendment was defeated at the polls. Again the question became an issue in the campaign of 1910. Prohibition came on a statewide basis when the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified by the states in 1919. The Texas Constitution was amended to provide for statewide prohibition.

THE DEPRESSION DECADE. The stock market crash of the autumn of 1929 brought a national and world-wide economic depression. This economic crisis, which lasted until the eve of the Second World War, was the most severe in the history of the United States. Texas felt the full impact of this depression. In brief, by the end of 1930 about six or seven million workers in the United States were out of work; by 1932 this figure had doubled. Hundreds of thou-
sands of hungry men wearily walked the streets of America in search of jobs that did not exist. Where employees were not released, their wages and salaries were slashed.

As the winter of 1932-1933 approached, misery and gloom hung over the land. Over five thousand banks collapsed during the first three years of the depression. The life savings of tens of thousands of people were wiped out. Countless thousands of hard-working farmers lost their farms as mortgages were foreclosed. Bread lines were formed, soup kitchens handed out food, and apple sellers stood on the streets of the cities trying to peddle their wares.

As Thomas A. Bailey points out in his general American history, by 1931 the depression had become a national calamity. Through no fault of their own, many American citizens had lost everything. They wanted work, but they could find no work. The depression had a profound effect on the American spirit. In the earlier period of our history, American pioneers had grappled with Indians, trees, stones, and other natural barriers to progress. But the depression was like a ghost; it was a thing that could not be grasped. Shanty towns, called “Hoovervilles,” sprang into being all over the nation, as a wandering, homeless crowd of men took to the roads and railroads in search of something they could not find. Many persons lost all of their self-respect as they begged for food.

In Texas the worst years of the depression fell during the governorships of Dan Moody (1927-1931), Ross Sterling (1931-1933), and Mrs. Miriam
A. Ferguson (1933-1935). The severity of the depression in the state was just as real as in the nation as a whole. As if to add to the difficulties, the years of depression were also years of drought. In large sections of the state, crops and pastures withered under the heat of a burning sun in a cloudless sky. In the northern and western sections of the state, spring winds brought dark clouds of dust ("black blizzards") from western Oklahoma and Kansas.

During the Sterling administration, a proposal for a state bond issue to relieve the suffering was defeated in the legislature. During Mrs. Ferguson's administration, $20,000,000 in state bonds was issued to aid Texans who were in need as a result of the depression. But the problem was too big for the state government. Federal aid seemed to be the answer. In the election of 1932 Franklin Delano Roosevelt was chosen president and John Nance Garner of Uvalde, Texas, vice-president; thus the Democrats swept into power in Washington, D. C. Roosevelt had campaigned for the presidency in 1932 on the theme of a "new deal for the forgotten man."

**THE NEW DEAL IN TEXAS.** The depression resulted in a number of new laws designed as a part of Franklin D. Roosevelt's program of relief, recovery, and reform. The Roosevelt program was known as the New Deal. From 1933 to 1937 federal money poured into Texas in the form of direct relief from the Federal Emergency Relief Administration and work relief from such agencies as the Works Progress Administration,
the National Youth Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, the Public Works Administration, and other New Deal programs. By 1936, when Texas celebrated the Centennial, the worst of the depression was over. After a temporary recession in 1937, the war crisis in Europe hastened the return of prosperity.

THE SECOND WORLD WAR. In September of 1939 global war came to the world for the second time within the memory of living men. The fascist states of Germany and Italy, ruled by Adolf Hitler and Benito Mussolini, respectively, declared war on France, England, and Poland. In the spring of the following year Holland, Belgium, and Norway were drawn into the conflict. Meanwhile, the war in the Far East between Japan and China continued unabated.

The United States again followed a policy of neutrality. Our neutrality, however, was half-hearted from the early days of the war. Americans of all ages voiced their contempt for the dictators and sympathy for the "democracies" of Europe. After the German Army crushed France in June, 1940, and drove the English into the sea at Dunkirk, a fear for the fate of England swept the United States. As the year 1941 progressed, America was drawn nearer and nearer to war. On December 7, 1941, the Japanese Navy and Air Force launched a surprise attack on our military installations in Hawaii. Within two days the United States was at war with the Rome-Berlin-Tokyo powers.

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TEXAS IN THE WAR. No other state had such a wide range of military activity as did Texas in World War II. An estimated 1,250,000 men, representing all branches of the military service, trained in Texas. The headquarters of the huge Fourth Army was at Fort Sam Houston. The national headquarters of the Army Air Force Training Command was in Fort Worth. Naval bases were not so numerous, but the Naval Air Training Base at Corpus Christi became the world's largest naval air training activity. Other Navy activities were centered about the Naval Air Station at Dallas and the Marine Air Station at Eagle Mountain Lake, north of Fort Worth.

It has been estimated that about 750,000 Texans served in the armed forces during the course of the war. A total of 155 army generals were either natives of Texas or residents of the state for a considerable period of time, and twelve admirals of the Navy were from Texas. As was true during the First World War, the two infantry outfits composed of the greatest
number of Texans were the 36th Division and the 90th Division. As a result of the Selective Service Act of 1940, the Texas National Guard was again mobilized into the United States Army as the 36th Division. Units of the division reported at new Camp Bowie at Brownwood in November, 1940. The Division landed at Salerno, Italy, on September 9. After a year of fighting in Italy, highlighted by the costly attempts to cross the Rapido River, the Division took part in the invasion of southern France on August 14, 1944. After fighting through southern France into Germany, the Division was in Austria when the war ended. The men of the 36th spent nineteen months in combat and had the third highest casualty list of any American division in World War II.

During World War II, the 90th Division was reactivated. The Division sailed for Europe on March 23, 1944, landing in England on April 4, 1944. On June 6 the Division saw action on the beaches of Normandy; later it took part in the campaigns in Normandy, northern France, Ardennes, and the Rhineland. After the war ended, the Division was on occupation duty in Germany until November, 1945.

THE HOME FRONT. As the nation turned its attention to problems of national defense, Texas newspapers and the citizens of the state looked with favor to the programs advanced by the Roosevelt administration. Congressmen from Texas supported the selective service law and the lend-lease bill. Industry boomed in Texas during the war years. Steel mills, chemical
plants, aircraft manufacturing plants, shipyards, high-octane gasoline refineries, synthetic rubber plants, and many other war industries began operation in the state. Many civilians were employed in defense industries; these residents also contributed time to Red Cross work, bought bonds, and took part in home defense projects. Although a discomfort, rationing was accepted without protest. Countless other changes were made in the normal routine of life.

TEXAS AND STATE PROBLEMS

POPULATION. The war years changed the pattern of life in Texas. A trend was apparent prior to the war, but its development was hastened.

The editors of The Texas Almanac report that in 1960 the population of Texas was 9,579,677. In the same census report the population of Houston is given as 938,219; Dallas, 679,684; San Antonio, 587,718.

THE RURAL TO URBAN POPULATION SHIFT. In recent years the most important trend in the population of Texas has been a rapid movement from the rural areas of the state to the cities. A brief study of percentages will illustrate this trend. When the first census was taken in Texas in 1850, shortly after annexation, only 3.6% of the people lived in the city or town, while 96.4% of the people lived in rural areas of the state. By 1900, 17.1% of the people were city dwellers, while 82.9% resided on the farm or ranch. The balance swung in favor of the urban resident about 1920, and this trend has con-
continued down to the present time. In 1950, for example, 62.7% of the Texans lived in towns or cities of more than 2,500 population. Only 37.3%, on the other hand, remained in the rural areas. In 1960 the rural population was only 25% of the total for the state. These figures represent a significant change that resulted from factors that forced people to move to the towns and cities. The decline of the cotton industry and farm tenancy destroyed the means of a livelihood for many rural dwellers. The growth of industry in the city areas, especially during and since the years of the Second World War, opened new opportunities for employment.

**URBAN POPULATION BELTS.** The urban population of Texas, while scattered widely across the state, can be described as being located in two major and two minor population belts. The first major belt is the one found along the Gulf Coast, where port facilities, agricultural resources, and the presence of great oil and gas fields have built such cities as Houston, Galveston, Beaumont, Port Arthur, Orange, Freeport, Corpus Christi, and Brownsville.

The second great population belt lies along the line of the Blackland Prairie belt from San Antonio on the south to the Red River on the north. Included within this region are the cities of San Antonio, Austin, Waco, Dallas, Fort Worth, and a number of smaller cities. The fertility of the blacklands has been the primary factor responsible for the population growth of this region.

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One of the minor population belts lies in the region of the East Texas oil field. The second minor belt stretches from Amarillo to the Midland-Odessa region of the South Plains. This belt contains the intermediate cities of Lubbock and Plainview and is an area supported by oil, gas, livestock, and manufacturing. El Paso is the only large city in Texas located outside these four belts. Three successive discoveries have brought about the population of a great part of the area once known as the “Great American Desert.” They were (1) the actual fertility of the soil combined with characteristics for holding moisture, (2) the discovery of oil, and (3) the discovery of great underground water resources along the extent of the Great Plains region.

THE WATER PROBLEM. The longest drought in Texas history made itself felt over all the state in 1950. It continued unbroken until the spring of 1957. By 1956 the effects of the “dry spell” were serious in the plains states from Nebraska to the Rio Grande. The large area affected included all of the non-irrigated agricultural land of Texas. High temperatures from April to October were also important factors in the severity of the drought. Pastures were parched as the grasses died; surface water resources were depleted as tanks and ponds dried up; creeks stopped running and springs stopped flowing; and the underground water level lowered, causing shallow water wells to fail. The Dust Bowl of Northwest Texas, western Oklahoma, and Nebraska returned.
The “dry northers” of the late winter and early spring brought dust-laden winds into Texas. The drought continued unabated into the first part of 1957. Some rain fell in February. By May the drought-stricken areas of Texas had turned into regions of swollen streams and flooded farm lands as rains came once again. The long drought, however, reminded Texans that the water problem of the American West had not been solved. This remains one of the major problems of the region.

IRRIGATION. Irrigation has been used for agricultural purposes in various parts of the world for four thousand years or longer. In the United States irrigation possibly had its origin in West Texas or New Mexico. There is some evidence of a prehistoric desert agriculture in some West Texas communities.

The Spaniards found the Indians of New Mexico and Arizona growing crops by collecting and directing water to their planted fields. Brush dams were used to catch the flow of a dry canyon or ravine when flushed by a thundershower. The water was then used to soak thirsty plants. The records of the Coronado expedition and the accounts of other Spanish explorers indicate that the Indians used irrigation as an aid to agriculture near present Presidio, El Paso, and Pecos.

The Franciscan missionaries were the first Europeans to practice irrigation in Texas. Between 1714 and 1744 they constructed canals and ditches to supply water to the missions in the San Antonio area. Large-scale irrigation in Texas began with the Ric
Grande projects at Del Rio and in the lower valley, in the Fort Stockton area, and along the Texas Gulf Coast. All of these projects were carried out between 1875 and 1920.

Modern irrigation systems in Texas fall into two classes: (1) those supplied by water from surface streams and (2) those supplied by water pumped from deep wells. The stream class is featured by the irrigation systems in the Lower Rio Grande Valley, the Colorado River basin, and the Pecos River basin. These sections include about two-thirds of all the irrigated lands of the state. The deep wells of the High Plains region, the Winter Garden district, and the Gulf Coast comprise the second class. While irrigation has been successful in widely scattered and isolated regions of Texas, only a small portion of the total acreage of the state can be irrigated.

TEXAS POLITICS AND LEADERS

Texas and Texans came into the limelight in national politics during the memorable presidential administration of Woodrow Wilson. As noted earlier, Colonel E. M. House of Austin became Wilson’s most trusted advisor. Two other Texans, Albert S. Burleson and Thomas Watt Gregory, held cabinet positions as postmaster general and attorney general, respectively. Former president of the University of Texas and of Texas A & M, David F. Houston, went from Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri, to become Wilson’s secretary of agriculture and later secretary of the treasury.
STATE POLITICS, 1935-1954. As Texas came out of the pre-war depression, James V. Allred served as governor of the state from 1935 to 1939. During his first administration, the old age pension law was adopted by the legislature. In 1938 a colorful flour salesman by the name of W. Lee O'Daniel began his brief but sensational career in Texas politics. Campaigning with his hillbilly band, O'Daniel swept the Democratic primary election of 1938 without a runoff. He served as governor from 1939 to August, 1941, when he resigned to enter the United States Senate. Lieutenant Governor Coke Stevenson succeeded O'Daniel in August, 1941, and held the office until January, 1947.

Beauford Jester came into the office in 1947 after a bitter campaign with Dr. Homer P. Rainey, who had been recently ousted as president of the University of Texas. During Jester's first term the explosion of the French freighter Grandcamp at Texas City set off a fire and other explosions that took the lives of 512 people; another 3,000 were injured in one of the worst disasters in Texas history. Jester was re-elected in 1948 as Lyndon B. Johnson won the race for a seat in the United States Senate over Coke Stevenson by an 87-vote majority. The Fifty-first Texas Legislature (1948) set a landmark in Texas educational history by passing the Gilmer-Aiken Law, reorganizing the public school system of the state.

Following the sudden death of Governor Jester in July, 1949, Allan Shivers became governor of Texas. He was re-elected in the elections of 1950, 1952, and
1954 to become the first governor chosen for three full terms.

**THE TIDELANDS CONTROVERSY.** As will be noted in the chapter on the oil industry, in recent years a major legal battle has raged between Texas and the United States government over ownership of the coastal tidelands. These oil-rich, water-covered lands represented quite a prize for either the state or the federal government. Texas lawyers based their claim on the fact that Texas had retained her public lands when the state entered the Union and that the tidelands adjacent to the coast were a part of these public lands. In 1950 the Supreme Court, by a vote of 4 to
decided that Texas did not have title to these submerged offshore lands. Two bills were introduced in Congress to restore the tidelands to Texas, but both were vetoed by President Harry S. Truman.

The tidelands became an issue in the presidential campaign of 1952. Dwight David Eisenhower reportedly favored state control, while Adlai E. Stevenson favored federal control. In May, 1953, President Eisenhower signed a bill restoring the tidelands, or the submerged coastal lands, to state ownership. Ownership was extended to the "historic limits." Since Texas based the state argument on Spanish law, this meant that the Texas claim was valid for a distance of three leagues (10.35 miles) out to sea. In other states involved in the tideland controversy, the three-mile limit was fixed as the state boundary.

SCHOOL INTEGRATION. In the spring of 1954 the Supreme Court of the United States handed down its decision in the famous Public School Segregation Cases. By this legal decision, the "separate but equal" doctrine with regard to white and Negro education was declared unconstitutional. The Court urged that desegregation, or integration of Negro students in white schools, should be effected "with deliberate speed." A few Texas schools, located mainly in West and Southwest Texas, integrated immediately. Integration had been accomplished in 65 counties, with 123 school districts as of September, 1960. There are 1,646 school districts in all. In 1957 the state legislature enacted a law providing that a school district
could integrate only after a majority vote within the district.

POLITICS, 1956-1957. The political history of Texas during 1956 and 1957 centered about the continuation of a sharp conflict between the liberal and conservative factions of the Democratic party. This conflict has brought a renewed demand for the two-party system.

In 1956 Dwight D. Eisenhower, the Republican presidential candidate, carried Texas over Adlai E. Stevenson for the second consecutive time. Price Daniel defeated Ralph W. Yarborough in the run-off primary and in November, 1956, was elected governor. When Daniel resigned from the United States Senate to take his seat as governor, Ralph W. Yarborough won the Senate seat in a special election that saw eighteen candidates seek the position.

THE ELECTION OF 1960. When the Democratic party assembled in their national convention for the year 1960, on the first ballot the convention gave the party nomination to John F. Kennedy; Senator Johnson placed second in the vote tabulation. The following day Senator Kennedy chose Lyndon B. Johnson as his vice-presidential running mate, and the Texas senator accepted the assignment. In the weeks that followed, the Republican party nominated Vice-President Richard M. Nixon; Henry Cabot Lodge, the ambassador to the United Nations, received the vice-presidential place on the ticket.

The 24 electoral votes of Texas went to Ken-
nedy and Johnson, who carried the state over Nixon and Lodge by a vote of 1,167,932 to 1,121,699. Thus, after two consecutive Republican victories in previous elections, Texas returned to the Democratic fold. On January 20, 1961, John F. Kennedy and Lyndon B. Johnson were inaugurated as president and vice-president of the United States, respectively.

Lyndon Johnson, the new vice-president, was born near Stonewall, Gillespie County, Texas, on August 27, 1908. He graduated from Southwest Texas State College in 1930 and taught school in Houston for two years before becoming secretary to Congressman R. M. Kleberg. While in Washington, Johnson studied law at Georgetown University. He was appointed Texas state director of the National Youth Administration in 1935 and served in this capacity for two years. In 1937 Johnson was elected to the House of Representatives, where he served six terms.

In 1948 Johnson won election to the U. S. Senate over former governor Coke Stevenson. Johnson won a second term in the Senate easily in 1954. He had already served two years as Democratic minority leader, but his responsibilities became greater in 1954, when he became majority leader of the Senate. In 1957 he obtained passage of the first civil rights bill in more than eighty years, and in 1960 another civil rights bill was passed in spite of a full-scale southern filibuster.

Under a Texas election law originally designed to accommodate John Garner in 1932, Johnson won re-election to the Senate while running for the vice-presidency. In a special election to choose Johnson's
Inauguration Ceremonies, 1961
successor to the Senate, John Tower was elected, becoming the first Republican senator in the history of the state.

SAM RAYBURN, "MR. DEMOCRAT." Sam Rayburn was born in Roane County, Tennessee, on January 6, 1882. This distinguished statesman graduated from East Texas State College at Commerce and studied law at the University of Texas. He practiced law, ran a farm, and served six years (1907-1913) in the Texas Legislature. In 1912 Rayburn was elected to the first of twenty-five consecutive terms in the U.S. House of Representatives. Referred to as "Mr. Democrat" during his late years, Rayburn served his party as majority leader, 1937-1940. On September 16, 1940, he became speaker of the House. For the rest of his career — except for four years as minority leader — he held the position of speaker. This was more than twice as long as any other man in history. Rayburn’s long service to Texas, the nation, and his party came to an end in August, 1961. Fatally ill, "Mr. Sam" returned to his home in Bonham, Texas, where he died on November 16, 1961.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Name some Texans who have been prominent in national politics in this century. Tell what they have done.
2. Discuss the effects of the "great depression."
3. How did the New Deal help the needy in Texas?
4. Name the major nations involved in World War II.
5. Name several industries that came to Texas as a result of World War II.
6. How can you account for the population shift from rural to urban areas?

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

contemporary  prohibition  precinct
depression     crisis       mortgage
drought       unabated    infamous
submerged     adjacent    comprises

DO IT YOURSELF

1. Does your community have a unit of the National Guard? Can you find out how many from your area were in the 36th Division, either in World War I or II? Do you know anyone who was in the 90th Division?

2. Find pictures of people during the depression. Perhaps you can draw some pictures showing “Hoovervilles” or bread lines.

3. If you can find an outline map of Europe and Africa, show where the 36th Division participated during World War II.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

The Handbook of Texas. Read biographies of men who interest you. You will also find interesting accounts of the early military installations in Texas.

In the age of crisis Texas has continued to play an important role in the national defense system. The United States Army

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maintains the headquarters of the Fourth Army at historic Fort Sam Houston in San Antonio. Located about three miles north of the business district of San Antonio, Fort Sam Houston comprises some 1,900 buildings situated on more than 3,000 acres. This includes Brooke Army Medical Center, the world's largest military medical establishment. It is significant to note that San Antonio has been a military center since 1718, when it was an isolated Spanish presidio. You may wish to look for more information about Fort Sam Houston.

The Army also maintains the Texas Military District headquarters in Austin, where the activities of more than 86,000 army reservists and ROTC students are supervised. Other Army posts in Texas include Fort Bliss at El Paso, the U. S. Army Air Defense Center; Fort Hood near Killeen; and the Red River Arsenal at Texarkana.

The United States Air Force maintains twenty-one bases in Texas; these are too numerous to mention individually. The Texas National Guard has a present strength of 33,558 troops, divided between the 36th Infantry Division, the 49th Armored Division, the Texas Air National Guard, and smaller units. The governor of Texas serves as its commander-in-chief. Major General K. L. Berry, the Adjutant General, represents the governor as active head of the Guard.
FREE LAND TO SPACE AGE
A Changing Order
In the concluding section of this narrative, the chronological (year by year) account gives way to the topical arrangement as you become familiar with the highlights of the three basic industries that have made Texas what it is today: farming, cattle, and petroleum. These three essential elements in the personality of Texas will be traced from their early origins to the present. To understand the role of agriculture, the cattle industry, and the petroleum industry is to understand modern Texas—much of our wealth and many of our problems stem from these three basic activities. By the time that the introduction of barbed wire ended the range cattle industry and began the “big pasture” ranch of more recent times, the frontier had passed. A settled society had arrived. Then, as the golden age of the cattle baron neared its natural limitations, the discovery of oil at Spindletop inaugurated a new era in the history of the state. This last factor brings us to the eve of the space age and an even greater future. As the past blends with the present, Texans should look forward to the future with confidence and without fear.

In this section are some facts about the size of Texas and the variety of its natural characteristics. In learning these facts you will be gaining an understanding of the reasons for the development of industries in specific areas. Once you have separated the truth from tall tales, you will be able to speak with authority about, as well as pride in, your state.
Chapter XIX
The Influence of Geography on Farming

By 1835 there were between twenty-five and thirty thousand Americans in Texas. The people came because they were attracted by the advertisements in the papers of the United States and the generous invitation of Mexico. One writer said that the kinds of people who came were "the wealthy open-handed southern planter, with a band of slaves to dig a second fortune from the fertile bottoms of the Trinity, Brazos, and Colorado; the frugal northern farmer, wealthy in the possession of a family of sturdy sons;"
the 'poor white,' with hardly more than the shabby clothes upon his back; bridal couples on their honey-moon journey; young adventurers; lawyers, doctors, merchants — all sorts and conditions of men."

The geography of the region influenced the early American settlers far more than the writer knew.

**THE NATURAL REGIONS OF TEXAS.**

There are five natural regions of Texas. They are: (1) the Coastal Plain, (2) the Central Hilly Region, (3) the Central Plains, (4) the Great Plains, and (5) the Trans-Pecos Region. All of these regions had certain characteristics which made life difficult for the early settler. The most favored region, however, was the Coastal Plain. This region extends approximately three hundred miles up the Rio Grande to where Del Rio is today. From Del Rio the boundary runs almost in a straight line to San Antonio, thence to Austin, and in an irregular line north to the Red River. This region is itself divided into five areas known as (1) the coastal prairie, (2) the timber belt, (3) the black prairie, (4) the grand prairie, and (5) the Rio Grande plains. The coastal prairie lies largely between the Sabine and the Nueces rivers and within approximately one hundred fifty miles of the coast. It was within this coastal prairie that most of the early settlements were made.

Furthermore, few settlements were made at first on the coast. The reasons for this are easy to find. The first Mexican government contracts prohibited settlement closer than twenty-five miles of the coast.
This area was not so inviting because of the shallowness of the coastal waters, the unhealthful conditions on the coast, and because a settlement there would be exposed to the attacks of pirates or others from the sea. The presence of the hated Karankawa Indians menaced the settlers on the coast and even the mosquitoes were troublesome near the Gulf—so much so that the Karankawas used a malodorous oil to keep them away.

WHY THEY SETTLED ON THE COASTAL PRAIRIE. It was quite natural that the first Spanish and French explorations and settlements were made along the coast. At first the approach was from the Gulf. The Americans chose the rivers of the inland coast area for several reasons:

1. River navigation was available, and supplies were easily transported. There were few roads.
2. The bottom lands of these rivers provided fertile farming areas.
3. There was an abundance of game.
4. The forests furnished building materials to build new homes.
5. The colonists were reasonably safe from Indian attacks. This region was between the dreaded Karankawas to the south, and the fierce Comanches and Apaches, north and west.
6. Important among the reasons why the coastal prairie was suitable for pioneer life was its mild climate. The rainfall was sufficient for farming.
pecially in the eastern part. The growing season here was long, and good crops could be grown. The mild winters made frontier types of homes or shelters satisfactory.

7. The surface of the region was nearly level and thus invited early settlement. Over this level land the first roads were built, notably the Old San Antonio Road.

GEOGRAPHY DETERMINES PLACE OF SETTLEMENT. Geography played its part in determining where the earliest settlements would be made. Because of geographic conditions the first towns were in the Coastal Plain. Goliad, Gonzales, Columbus on the Colorado, San Felipe, and Washington-
on-the-Brazos are examples of this. The nearness of
hostile Indians and the extremes of climate of other
regions directed the colonists to South and Southeast
Texas. It was the coastal area which Santa Anna in-
vaded, and it was there the battles of the Texas
Revolution were fought.

**GEOGRAPHY OF WEST TEXAS.** As the early
pioneers left the central Texas counties on their way
west, their trails carried them through the Western
Cross Timbers, extending from the Red River south-
ward as far as the Colorado River in Central Texas.
This wooded area is bordered on the east by the Grand
Prairie and on the west by the rolling prairies of the
North Central Plains. The Western Cross Tim-
bers generally represents a wooded region of stubby
tree cover of blackjack, post oak, and other small
hardwoods but with scattered spaces of prairie land.
The rough features of the Cross Timbers present a
contrast to the smooth outline of the lands to the
east and to the west.

In pioneer days the timber of this region supplied
firewood for the settlers and wood for the log houses.
In later times oil, gas, and clays became the chief
minerals of this region which now supports small-
scale ranching, and stock and crop farming.

Immediately west of the Western Cross Timbers
and extending westward to the Cap Rock Escarpment
are the rolling prairies of the North Central Plains.
This region represents an extension into Texas of the
lower part of the Great Plains and extends from the
Red River boundary on the north into the Edwards Plateau section of Southwest Texas. The West Texas Rolling Plains are a part of this larger region. They extend from the Western Cross Timbers to the foot of the High Plains. The region is rough and hilly in most parts and has many low mountain ranges and single peaks, formed by the erosion of the ages. Red soils are characteristic of the area, and the very red soils of the northern part are sometimes known as the "redlands." The North Central Plains became a part of the cattle kingdom during the early years. Years later, oil and gas were discovered in the area. It is today mostly a ranching-farming area, centered around Wichita Falls, Abilene, and smaller cities.

The southern portion of the North Central Plains includes the Texas hill country and the Edwards Plateau. This region is bounded on the southeast by the Balcones Escarpment and the blackland prairies, and on the north by the middle course of the Colorado River. On the west the Edwards Plateau extends to
the Pecos River and beyond. The surface of the lands of the Edwards region is usually rolling in the central and western parts, but it is hilly and canyon-cut on the south and east where streams flow down to the level of the Coastal Plain. The limestone base results in thin soils. The western section is generally open prairie with a gradual thickening growth of mesquite, dwarf oak, cedar, and other small trees as the Balcones Escarpment is approached. From pioneer days this country has been primarily a cattle, sheep, and Angora goat area. The population has remained rural. There is no large city in the interior, and rail service is inadequate. Commercial services are supplied from San Antonio and Austin on the east and southeast, San Angelo on the north, and Del Rio on the south. In recent years a series of dams on the Colorado River has formed two large and four small lakes. This region has come to be known as the Highland Lakes Country. The lakes extend along the deep, mountain-rimmed valley of the Colorado River from Austin to the Burnet-Llano county boundary line.

Moving northward again, the line of demarcation between the North Central Plains and the High Plains to the west is the abrupt Cap Rock Escarpment. The Cap Rock represents an increase in elevation varying from 100 feet in the south to nearly 1,000 feet near Palo Duro and Tule canyons. The Cap Rock in actuality is a mineral layer that underlies the High Plains of llano estacado (yā’no ās.tâ.că’do) and protects the region from erosion. Bounded on the east by the Cap Rock Escarpment and extending westward...
into New Mexico, the High Plains dominate the landscape of the Texas Panhandle and nearby areas. In *The Handbook of Texas*, H. Bailey Carroll has described the High Plains as "one of the most perfect plains regions of the world. . . . The area may be described as a giant, irregularly shaped mesa which appears to have been thrust out of the surrounding lands." The protective Cap Rock is visible for many miles.

The name *llano estacado* originated with the Spanish. Translated into English, the term means "staked plain," but there is no general agreement in Texas concerning the original meaning of the word. You can read an explanation of the name in *The Handbook of Texas*.

Though the *llano estacado* is an extension of the Great Plains of the western United States, it has distinctive characteristics of its own in its Texas setting.
This region possesses all three characteristics of a plains area: treeless, arid, and level land. Because of a scarce water supply, the llano estacado was shunned by both the buffalo and the Indians until pressure from the settlers drove them on to it. Settlement of the region followed the buffalo slaughter and the evacuation of the Indian tribes.

Since the Staked Plains were covered with a dense growth of grass, it was natural that the area should develop into a great ranching country. When the farmer arrived, however, he found the soil excellent for agriculture. In recent years agriculture has been encouraged by deep-well irrigation. As a result, the
Staked Plains have become one of the greatest wheat, cotton, and grain sorghum producing areas in the nation. Still more recently, oil and gas discoveries have brought large-scale industry to the region. Perhaps it should be explained that the northern section of these plains is known as the Panhandle Plains, and the southern region is often referred to as the South Plains.

**THE TRANS-PECOS REGION.** Southwest of the High Plains and west of the Pecos River, the Trans-Pecos Region extends to the western boundaries of the state. The central and western portions of this region are bounded by the eastern ranges of the Rocky Mountains, which extend on into Mexico as the Sierra Oriental. The rainfall in this region varies from less than twenty inches in the mountains to less than ten inches in some areas. Most of the people in the Trans-Pecos live in the city of El Paso.

The area can be divided into several subdivisions. The Stockton Plateau, a rolling, broken plain, extends from the Davis Mountains eastward to the Pecos River. The Big Bend is the rough area located within the southward wing of the Rio Grande. The Davis Mountains represent a small geographical region, ranging in elevation from 4,000 to 5,000 feet but including 8,382-foot Mount Livermore, the second highest peak in Texas. The Diablo Plateau is the name applied to the high plateau-basin east of El Paso, without drainage to the sea. The Diablo Plateau includes Guadalupe Peak, the highest peak in Texas (8,751 feet), on its eastern boundary. The Upper Rio Grande Valley is a
sub-region lying along the Rio Grande and includes the tip of Texas lying west of the Hueco Mountains and east of the city of El Paso.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF GEOGRAPHY. Geography was a great influence in the historical development of the West Texas area. It was quite natural that these grass-covered prairies should become the home of the range cattle industry before the
farmer moved into the region. Although cattle fattened on the rich grass, the farmers faced a multitude of problems. Eventually they found a solution to some of their problems, and the farmers' frontier in West Texas was the result.

**THE FARMERS' FRONTIER.** Prior to the Civil War agriculture was confined to the humid region of East Texas. Nevertheless, from 1850 to 1860 the biggest occupation in Texas was farming. The most important crop was cotton, but the most necessary crop in early Texas was corn. To a very large extent it provided the basic food for both the people and animals. In the normal advance of the American frontier, the farmers' frontier has always lagged behind that of the cattlemen. This again was the case in the 1800's in Texas.

In the chapter on the cattle kingdom it will be pointed out that in 1870 the extreme line of settlement in Texas ran from Henrietta southeastward to Junction in Kimble County and then to the Rio Grande near Del Rio. This was the cattlemen's frontier. At the same time the farmers' frontier was located about one hundred fifty miles east of this line. Beginning near the Montague-Cooke county line, the farmers' advanced settlements ran south through the west central Texas counties to Bandera and then southeast to the coast of Texas near Corpus Christi.

At this time the two frontiers were comparatively close together. We have seen how in a ten-year period, 1870 to 1880, the cattle kingdom
moved west in giant strides to occupy nearly all of the range lands from the trans-Mississippi westward. The farmers’ frontier was left far behind. While the farmers’ advance was slow, when they moved into West Texas they came in greater numbers than did the cattlemen. After the plains Indian tribes had been confined to reservations in 1874, the farmers’ migration westward gained speed. By 1880 they had settled by the thousands in the counties along the ninety-eighth meridian. With the coming of the railroads, the frontier ceased to be a solid line running from north to south. Wherever the rails ran, communities of farmers followed. It was at this time that several colonies of farmers were established in far West Texas. In many in-
stances these pioneer farmers were not acquainted with the soil nor the best methods of cultivation; plagued by water shortages and grasshoppers, most of these sturdy pioneers did not succeed. Those who came later, however, profited by the experiences of the pioneers.

The farmers had settled on most of the land east of the one hundredth meridian by the year 1890. After a temporary pause, the pace quickened in the late 1890's, and during the early years of the twentieth century farming was extended to most of the counties of the High Plains.

**FARM PROBLEMS.** The biggest problem in the extension of the farmers' frontier beyond the one hundredth meridian was dry weather. The Great Plains are treeless, level, and arid. In seasonable years the country looked inviting, and covered wagons would start the journey westward. The people entered this new land with high hopes, built dugouts, constructed flimsy boxlike frame cottages with lumber hauled long distances, or managed to find enough short logs along the river bottoms to enable them to build cabins. When two or three good years followed in a row, the settlers were fortunate. But the drought always came, and everyone had crop failures. After a second season of no rain and no crops, the farmers would be forced to return east to the more humid region.

The water problem was solved in part by the introduction of the windmill and methods of dry farming. The windmill was introduced into West Texas
in the 1870's and was of immediate benefit to both the rancher and the farmer.

The farmers soon discovered substitute crops that could be grown with less moisture than corn. Sorghum was raised on the Spur Ranch as early as 1880. Kaffir corn and milo maize were introduced to the plains region during the 1880's. Johnson grass and Sudan grass were also planted to afford substitutes for corn. It was discovered that the fertile lands of the Panhandle Plains would grow wheat. Within a comparatively short time the High Plains of the Texas Panhandle, together with other counties of northwest Texas, formed the "wheat belt" of the state. Cotton was not grown along the western frontier until the 1880's and then in limited quantities. After 1900, however, cotton became a major crop in the High Plains area.

**TEXAS LEADS THE NATION IN COTTON.** Cotton grew wild in great abundance along the Gulf Coast of Texas where Cabeza de Vaca landed in 1527. Later small patches of the plant were grown in the Spanish missions; thus the Spanish priests became the first cotton farmers in Texas.

Today Texas leads the nation in raw cotton production. Much progress has been made with mechanical pickers, which greatly reduce the cost of production. Also, cotton production has been increased through irrigation and improved farming methods. However, war constantly is waged against the boll weevil and other insects that destroy this valuable crop. Cotton
is grown in all parts of the state; it is a warm weather plant, needing much sunshine and dry, rich soil.

**IRRIGATION PROVES INVALUABLE.** As farmers advanced into the semi-arid lands of West Texas, they were forced to experiment with new methods of cultivation. By trial and error they learned the advantages of deep plowing, shallow and frequent cultivation, and other methods of dry farming. Although irrigation has been used in Texas since the era of the Spanish missions, the Anglo-Americans were slow to use this method for increasing their harvest. Not until the twentieth century did irrigation help the state's agricultural production.

While the first attempt to grow rice in Texas was made as early as 1850, the success of the effort was entirely dependent on rain and high tides. Rice acreage increased in the 1890's after an attempt was made to
grow the crop with the aid of irrigation in the vicinity of Port Arthur. During the years that followed, rice farming became an established part of the rural economy of the Gulf Coast region. By the 1940's the average crop was 15,588,000 bushels per year. The 1954 production totaled 34,928,677 bushels.

**THE RIO GRANDE VALLEY.** Extensive agriculture in the southern tip of Texas followed the introduction of irrigation in 1898 and the building of the railroad in 1904 and 1905. During the next few years, citrus fruit found a natural home in this semitropical region. Intensive agriculture was largely responsible for the growth of such towns as San Benito, settled by Anglo-Americans in the 1880's; Mercedes, founded by the American Rio Grande Land and Irri-
gation Company in 1904; San Juan, organized in 1909; Pharr, also established in 1909; Edinburg, founded in 1890 and renamed in 1911; McAllen, promoted as a town site in 1940; and Mission, a town that dates from 1907 or 1908. There are many other urban-farm communities in the lower Rio Grande area — one of the richest and fastest-growing regions of Texas.

To the northwest the citrus fruit industry in the Laredo-Winter Garden district is newer than that of the lower Rio Grande Valley. These two areas comprise, at the present time, an important part of the general agricultural picture in Texas.
QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Name the five natural regions of Texas.
2. Why did the early settlers choose the coastal prairie for their new homes?
3. Describe the geography of (a) the Western Cross Timbers, (b) the North Central Plains, and (c) the Edwards Plateau.
4. Locate and describe the Cap Rock Escarpment. Define \textit{llano estacado}.
5. Name and describe the geographical subdivisions of the Trans-Pecos Region.
6. Name the three characteristics of a plains area.

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
malodorous erosion
frugal
erosion
demarcation
escarpment
evacuation

DO IT YOURSELF
1. On an outline map of Texas show the five natural regions of Texas. Use your imagination and make drawings on the map to characterize each region.
2. Draw some pictures of wild flowers and indicate in which region of Texas they are found. If you prefer, make a collection of leaves from trees that grow in Texas. Give the names of the trees represented and tell where the trees grow.
3. If you like science, make a collection of insects for your region of Texas. This is a project for ambitious students, for you will have to work hard to classify your insects properly.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE
Bedichek, Roy, \textit{Adventures of a Texas Naturalist}.
Irwin, Howard S., \textit{Roadside Flowers of Texas}.
Vines, Robert A., \textit{Trees, Shrubs, and Woody Vines of the Southwest}.
Whitehouse, Eula, \textit{Texas Flowers in Natural Color}.
Sometimes after a forty-minute trip by jet from San Antonio to Houston or after a few hours of driving from El Paso to Austin in an air-conditioned automobile, we forget that our ancestors found traveling across Texas extremely difficult.

One of the great difficulties in the path of the settlement of all frontier areas was that of methods of travel. This problem was never solved in colonial times in Texas. There were four main means of travel used by the Texans. They were travel (1) on horseback, (2) by ox-wagon or wagons drawn by mules, (3) by riverboat, steam or otherwise, and (4) by stagecoach.

In emergencies or for fast trips the colonists rode horseback. This method of travel was not only the fastest, it was quite often the most comfortable. There were no delays because of breakdowns, nor were the muddy roads any great obstacle. When the horse became too tired to proceed, he could usually be exchanged for another. Although the horse had to have food, the problem of upkeep was not great.

The first Americans in Texas relied to a large extent on the navigable rivers. When large boats or steamboats were not available, crude rafts could be constructed to carry freight along the rivers. A few steamboats plied the waters of the Gulf and of the rivers at a very early date. These boats stopped in at Galveston, Corpus Christi, Indianola, Jefferson, and Brownsville. They carried passengers and freight as far as Liberty on the Trinity, Richmond on the Brazos, Austin on the Colorado, Victoria on the Guadalupe, and Rio Grande City on the Rio Grande. Occasionally boats would proceed much farther than these points when there was sufficient water in the streams. These numerous rivers were in the way of overland travelers, but Texas would have
developed much more slowly without them. They made life generally much better because the colonists could buy some of the necessities like salt, sugar, and coffee from traders and merchants who took their products inland along the rivers. The colonists sometimes had to go all the way to New Orleans to buy the things they so badly needed, if they didn't get them by boat.

Land travel was slow, tedious, and expensive. Ox-wagons found their way slowly across the country. It took weeks to go from the inland settlements to Galveston or any other port and return. Transportation on goods freighted in this manner cost about ten times as much as the cost today. Sometimes the freight cost more than the goods being shipped. As the population grew, stage lines began to operate in Texas. There were several before 1845, and by 1860 there were thirty-one such lines connecting most of the areas of Texas. These were all local lines. The first transcontinental line was organized in 1857. This was the famous Butterfield line which reached all the way west to California and east to St. Louis. This type of travel was very uncomfortable and expensive. The rates varied, but the cost was generally ten cents per mile.

Since the close of the Second World War, the Texas Highway Department and the Texas Highway Commission have pushed the construction of divided-lane super-highways. These new roads, often paralleling older two-lane highways, are known as expressways or freeways. The great increase in automobiles in the last ten or fifteen years, combined with a similar increase in highway accidents, accounts for the increased interest in the construction of the expressways. In Houston, the Gulf Freeway carries over 100,000 automobiles a day into the downtown area; on the southwest side of the city, newly-widened Buffalo Drive renders a like service. In Dallas the Central Expressway, a six-lane controlled access road, channels a heavy load of buses, commercial vehicles, and automobiles into the downtown section. In Fort Worth, multi-lane expressways lead into town from all directions. Other Texas cities also have expressways.

Divided highways are becoming common along the major
traffic routes through the rural areas of the state. These new roads have three significant safety factors: (1) traffic is divided by a center “island,” (2) the entry to and exits from these roads are well-marked and controlled, and (3) they are well-lighted during the hours of night.
Cattle Kingdom

In 1870 the western limit of Texas settlements would have been along an imaginary line running south along the ninety-eighth meridian from Henrietta on the Red River to Junction in Kimble County, and then southwest to the Rio Grande. Except for settlements near Presidio and El Paso on the Rio Grande, there were no white settlers west of this line. During the last years of the Confederacy there was very little defense against the plains Indian tribes. As a result, the frontier of settlement receded eastward. West Texas centers of population during the war years were three in number: (1) Fort Davis, a mesquite stockade in Shackelford County near present Albany, (2) Pickettville in Stephens County near present Breck-
enridge, and (3) Fort Brown, near present Brownwood in Brown County. In the quarter of a century that followed the Civil War, cattlemen occupied the level, treeless grasslands of the Texas plains. Before the cowboy became a feature of Texas life, however, the buffalo herds were slaughtered, and the Indians were removed from the region.

**THE BUFFALO SLAUGHTER.** The buffalo slaughter is one of the great episodes in the history of the American West. A hundred years ago the buffalo range extended along the western plains from the Rio Grande to the Canadian border. The herd numbered in the millions.

The plains Indians lived on the buffalo and depended on the beast for all of life's essentials. It is interesting that in hunting the buffalo (or the bison) the Indians used three methods: (1) They would stalk the animal from the down wind side, slip up on the herd, and actually spear the shaggy beast by hand. (2) They would build a grass fire around a group of buffalo, leaving a narrow path for the animals to stampede through; then they would kill them as they ran through the gap. (3) After the Indians discovered the horse, they would surround a group of buffalo, force the animals to run in circles, and then close in for the kill.

By 1871 buffalo hides were in great demand in the eastern United States. Hunters of all kinds came to the buffalo range. A typical hunting group usually consisted of three or four men. They had a team of

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horses and a wagon, in which they carried their food and equipment. The necessary equipment included a heavy gun (later a large .50-caliber rifle, which shot a bullet one-half inch in diameter for more than a mile, and a tripod on which to mount the gun), several good butcher knives, flour, cooking utensils, other camping equipment, and a Dutch oven. The hunting group also had one or more saddle horses.

One of the men acted as the hunter while the others were skinners. The hunting crew would move out onto the range and establish a camp near water. By daylight the hunter would be out looking for buffalo. When he spotted a group of the animals, he would ease up to within a half mile from the herd, set up his gun, and commence firing.

If the buffalo started to run, a well-directed bullet in front of them would stop the stampede. The animals would then stand in a confused state until all
were killed. The big gun would often get red hot, and it would take the marksman an hour or more to make the kill. The skinners would wait in camp until the shooting stopped. Then they would start out to complete the job. The hunter would return to camp, eat and sleep, and then scout the countryside for another herd.

The skinners had a large chain in their equipment. They would pull the buffalo over on his back and skin the animal. A good skinner could skin forty buffalo a day; a very good skinner could skin a hundred. The fresh buffalo hides were heavy, weighing a hundred pounds each. They would be brought into camp and tied down with the flesh side to the sun for drying and would then be baled for transportation.
Within a few years almost all the buffalo were gone. The slaughter certainly was not an example of good sportsmanship. Therefore, the question can be raised: could this rapid destruction of the buffalo herd be justified? There was some opposition to the hunt while it was in progress, but the buffalo hunters said that the Great Plains would never have been settled if the buffalo had not been destroyed. They also contended that they did more to rid the Great Plains of the Indians than did the United States Army, since the Indians were deprived of the basis of their subsistence. In any event, the buffalo were soon replaced by cattle.

The buffalo hunters entered Texas in 1874 along the Canadian River in the Texas Panhandle. As time passed, supply camps were established farther out on the plains. The great slaughter in Texas took place in 1877 and 1878, after which the buffalo herd was so depleted that only “mopping-up” hunters were active.

**THE INDIAN REMOVAL.** In the 1870’s the Indians were finally removed from the Texas frontier. This was done by several detachments of the United States Army. General Ranald S. Mackenzie was chosen to lead the campaign on the llano estacado. General Nelson A. Miles led a strong force southward from Camp Supply in the Indian territory. Major W. R. Price advanced down the Canadian River from Fort Bascom in the New Mexico territory.

In the fall and early winter of 1874 these army
groups attacked and rounded up the Comanche, Cheyenne, and Kiowa tribes in the Tule and Palo Duro Canyon area of northwest Texas. The Indians were then taken to Fort Sill, Oklahoma, and placed on reservations in the Indian territory. With the exception of later disturbances along the Rio Grande near El Paso, Indian troubles were over in Texas.

THE ORIGIN OF THE CATTLE INDUSTRY. The first cattle, aside from the buffalo, were brought to the New World by the Spanish. In 1540 Coronado gathered at least five hundred head of cattle (besides thousands of goats, sheep, and hogs) to supply food for the members of his expedition in search of the golden Seven Cities of Cibola. These were the first cattle to enter what is now the United States. Between 1520 and 1740 cattle multiplied rapidly in Mexico.

Wherever the Spanish went, they took horses and
cattle. When the first mission was established on the Neches River in 1690, Captain Alonzo de León left "a bull and a cow, a stallion and a mare" at each of the various rivers crossed. These early cattle were the forerunners of the wild cattle that in later years were found in various parts of the state. Because of the size of their horns they were known as the Texas longhorns, a type originating along the Rio Grande in southern Texas.

**THE SPANISH MUSTANG.** Horses, like cattle, were not native to the New World. The Spanish conquistador and the mission fathers brought the first horses into Texas and the Southwest. By the time the Anglo-American colonists arrived, the Spanish mustangs were native to the land and had multiplied rapidly. Wild horses were so numerous in 1829 that Stephen F. Austin marked "Immense Herds of Wild Horses" across his map of Texas. The Comanches and other western Indians had captured the horses and had become expert horsemen.
The Spanish pony proved to be a poor work horse but an excellent saddle horse. This mustang had "cow sense," as well as horse sense, and became the favorite mount of the American cowboy. It might be said that the horse was essential to the cattle industry. The famous Texas quarter horse has resulted from crossbreeding the English quarter horse and the Spanish ponies of the frontier.

**EARLY RANCHING IN TEXAS.** The records of the Spanish period show that, aside from the missions, there were several private cattle raisers in Texas. But ranching was an unprofitable enterprise during the Spanish period; there was simply no market for the hides and meat. Indian hostilities during the later years forced the *rancheros* (ran.chá'rōs) to return to the settlements for protection. Their herds declined in quality as the cattle returned to the wild state. During the period of Mexican rule, conditions improved somewhat, and many of the Spanish-Mexican *rancheros* returned to their ranges.

The first Anglo-Americans to arrive in Texas were not interested in cattle. They soon changed their minds, however, when they saw the lush pasture lands on which cattle thrived with very little care. Men who came to Texas to farm became cattle raisers instead.

**THE RANGE CATTLE INDUSTRY.** After the retreat of the Mexican Army, following the battle of San Jacinto, many Mexican residents of the land between the Nueces and Rio Grande returned to Mexico.
Anglo-Americans gradually entered the region between the two rivers. The range cattle industry spread from the "brush country" of South Texas into the vast prairie region, marked by such cities as Dallas, Fort Worth, Denton, and Waco. By the first year of the Civil War, the cattle range had been extended westward into the section of Texas between San Saba County on the south and Clay County to the north. The Civil War halted the westward march of the cattlemen; and in the years immediately following the war, hostile Indians stopped all movement westward.

In 1869 the western movement was renewed, and within a few years cattlemen had moved into the lands west of the one hundredth meridian, from the counties of the Edwards Plateau on the south to the eastern edge of the Texas Panhandle on the north.

**CHARLES GOODNIGHT.** The career of Charles Goodnight shows how the range cattle industry swung around the High Plains to the slopes of the Rocky Mountains. Goodnight came to Palo Pinto County in the Western Cross Timbers in 1857. In 1866 he and Oliver Loving drove a herd of cattle by the Concho-Pecos River route to New Mexico. This became the Goodnight-Loving Trail.

The two partners established a ranch in the Pecos River Valley of New Mexico. Goodnight soon drove cattle into Colorado and established his home at Pueblo. After a few years, business went bad, the range was crowded, and Goodnight turned again toward Texas.

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Goodnight started his herd southeast into the Texas Panhandle to the *llano estacado*, which he had come to know as a ranger and Indian scout. In 1876 he entered the Palo Duro Canyon and, in partnership with an Englishman, established the J A Ranch. The J A was the first ranch in the Panhandle Plains region. Soon, however, other cattlemen entered the region from the east. West Texas had become the "big ranch country."

*THE CATTLE TRAILS.* Texas cattle had never been easy to market. Prior to annexation of Texas, New Orleans, Louisiana, had been the principal market for Texas steers. A few cattle were driven to Chicago during the years just before the Civil War, for the war created a shortage of beef in the northern states and a surplus in Texas. In 1866 the spectacular years of trail driving had their beginning; an estimated 260,000 head of cattle were driven north during that year. T. C. Richardson has estimated in *The Handbook of Texas* that during the quarter of a century
beginning in 1866 "ten million cattle and one million stock horses requiring forty thousand men and three hundred thousand saddle horses went northward along the cattle trails from Texas to the railroads at Abilene, Ellsworth, Baxter Springs, Wichita, and Dodge City, Kansas."

All the names and routes of the great cattle trails would have to be studied in a separate history course. The best known, however, is the Chisholm Trail, named after a Cherokee Indian trader, Jesse Chisholm. This famous trail ran through the Indian Territory (Oklahoma) to Caldwell, Kansas, where it branched out to other Kansas rail centers. The Texas extension of the Chisholm Trail joined the main trail north of the Red River. It was never clearly marked and has remained the subject of much dispute through the years. The Texas section of the Chisholm trail began south and southeast of San Antonio and followed the grass-covered prairies of Central Texas through Austin, Georgetown, Waco, and the Dallas-Fort Worth area to the Red River.

When the farmers moved westward, the cattle-men were forced to move their northern routes farther west. As a result, the Western or Dodge City Trail was established in the mid-1870's. This trail ran through Mason, Coleman, and Fort Griffin to cross the Red River at Doan's Store north of present Vernon. After 1886 trail driving declined rapidly, and the "golden era" of the range cattle industry had ended. Before leaving the range, however, let's look at life
on a typical Texas ranch, with its roundup and trail drive.

RANCH LIFE. The details of life on a typical West Texas ranch, including a description of a ranch "outfit" at roundup time, were given by Harley True Burton in his "The History of the J A Ranch," which first appeared in the Southwestern Historical Quarterly. A portion of this article is found in the Appendix.

THE TRAIL DRIVE. After the spring roundup the trail herd was organized. During the roundup
the cattle that were to be driven to Kansas were cut out of the main herd and turned over to the trail captain or "boss." The trail captain then chose his cowboys — one man for about every 175 head of cattle. An even number of the best men on the range were selected. Sixteen to eighteen men working in pairs as the drive progressed could move a herd of 3,000 cattle. The herd would leave Texas early in the spring for two reasons: the green grass was then coming on, and the destination had to be reached before the cold weather set in. On the trail the cattle did not move as a herd, but as a long, winding line.

The most economical unit to drive up the trail was 2,500 cattle. Only two more cowboys were needed for 2,500 than for 1,500 head, and when the herd went beyond 2,500 it was too large to manage. A trail outfit had twelve or thirteen men — sometimes superstitious cowboys refused to work in outfits numbering thirteen men — a trail boss, the cook, eight or ten cowboys, and the horse wrangler. The best cowboys were selected as "point men" and guided the herd. These men worked in pairs and switched sides frequently to get relief from the dust. The cowboys near the middle of the herd were called the "flank" and the "swing" men. The "drag" men brought up the rear, taking care of the strays and sick animals. The horse wrangler and his remuda (a relay of horses) followed in the rear of the herd, while the trail boss and the cook with his chuck wagon rode ahead to select the camp and bedding grounds.
A DAY ON THE TRAIL. The cook got up about three o'clock in the morning to prepare breakfast. With the first streak of dawn, the trail riders were out of their bedrolls. They dashed cold water on their faces and ate breakfast; the pointers and the two who were to relieve the last night-guard ate first.

A little after daylight the cattle were started on the road. The morning drive lasted until about eleven o'clock, when the outfit paused for dinner. In the meantime, the cook, who had been the last to leave the previous camp, would have caught up with the herd, circled it in his chuck wagon, and completed his preparations for noon lunch.

The noon stop was made near a water hole. The herd was watered during the noon hour and allowed to graze until two o'clock in the afternoon. Then the drive began and lasted until about two hours before sunset.

The herd always had a chance to graze for some two hours before being bedded down. The camp site was selected with great care, for it needed to be a location near water and good grass. After the evening meal (the principal meal of the day), all of the trail riders turned out to bed the cattle down for the night. During the night that followed, the cowboys stood guard in relays of two.

DANGERS OF THE TRAIL. Never was danger far away from the trail rider. Even everyday-riding had its hazards. No trail hand knew when a big rattlesnake might strike his horse's leg. At night the
sleeping cowboy could not be sure that he would not wake to find a big rattler cuddled in his blanket or bedroll. On dark nights there was the danger that a galloping horse might step into a prairie-dog hole, stumble, and fall. Disease was another special dread on the cattle trail. Other hazards came in the form of thunderstorms, accompanied by lightning and hail; the spring blizzards that sometimes caught them unawares; the windstorms that caused wreckage to camp equipment; and the Indian troubles that were frequent. Of all the troubles of the trail, none brought more grief than the treacherous stream crossings, especially when the rivers ran at flood stage, and the stampede, the most dreaded of all the dangers of the trail.

**BARBED WIRE.** Barbed wire ended the open range in Texas, while improved breeds like the Durham, Hereford, and Aberdeen Angus ended the era of the Texas longhorn. Joseph F. Glidden of De Kalb, Illinois, generally receives the credit for inventing barbed wire in 1874. Ranchers were opposed to the idea of a barbed wire fence at first, but they soon discovered that barbed wire was the cheapest method of fencing their holdings. The Glidden wire was brought into Texas during the late 1870's, and by 1882 the era of the open range had closed. At the same time, the trail drive became a thing of the past.

**IMPROVED CATTLE BREEDS.** Shortly after the introduction of barbed wire and windmills, the history of the cattle industry in Texas passed from
the longhorn stage into the period of improved breeds. Thus, ranching became a good business. W. D. and George Reynolds of Shackleford County brought Durham cattle from Colorado to their Clear Fork Ranch in 1875. Charles Goodnight introduced the same breed in Palo Duro Canyon that year. In 1876 Captain William S. Ikard saw the Hereford breed at the Philadelphia Centennial celebration; he bought ten head and shipped them to his Clay County ranch. Within a few years, Ikard had the first herd
of registered Herefords in the state. In the 1880's and 1890's the Aberdeen-Angus and Galloway cattle were introduced into Texas. These cattle, raised for purposes of both milk and beef, came into the state before the turn of the century. The first shorthorns (Durhams) were of the dual-purpose variety. Of the many milk cattle in present-day Texas, the Jersey breed leads all others.

THE BIG RANCH COUNTRY. Modern ranching is a highly developed enterprise that involves many miles of good fencing, adequate water, and permanent corrals and loading chutes. This requires great expense—a contrast to the earlier days when a ranch usually was nothing more than a dugout or picket cabin that served as headquarters. Of the thousands of Texas ranches, past and present, many have played an important role in the history of the state. A few examples will help us see the ranch industry as a whole. Other than the J A and XIT ranches mentioned, the most typical of the "big ranch country" of Texas are the following:

THE KING RANCH. As the editors of *Humble Way* have remarked, "It is an impressive land, this King Ranch, an intriguing land where a keen brush eye and a good roping arm still rank high among the manly arts. No hills worthy of name break the flat expanse of the ranch. For miles around, all is smooth and level. Most of the trees seem small and scattered, except where thickets and jungles of mesquite hold tangled sway." Into this land, over one hundred years
ago, came Captain Richard King to form a partnership with Mifflin Kenedy to operate steamboats on the Rio Grande between Brownsville and the up-river towns. In spite of his interest in ships and water, Captain King’s ambitions lay on land. As early as 1852 he rode northward from the Rio Grande across plains and grasslands, looking over the vast stretches and choosing at last a tract of land in the bend of Santa Gertrudis Creek, some 120 miles north of Brownsville and about 50 miles southwest of Corpus Christi.

In the years that followed, the King Ranch empire expanded into a one and a quarter million-acre enterprise. Mifflin Kenedy bought half interest in the ranch in 1860, but the partnership was dissolved.
in 1868. The running W appeared in the 1860's as the official brand for the King Ranch.

The foundation stock for the ranch was the Texas longhorn. Later on, shorthorns and Herefords were brought to the ranch. Brahman cattle, especially adapted to the climate of the Texas Gulf Coast, were crossbred with the shorthorns, resulting in the famous Santa Gertrudis cattle. In addition to the development of cattle, some work has been done in horse breeding. In 1947 the King Ranch had 2,900 quarter horses and 82 race horses. Assault, the third largest winner in the history of the American race track, was a product of the King Ranch.

The lands of the four divisions of the present King Ranch have become wildlife preserves for deer, quail, duck, wild turkeys, and antelope. Fifteen hundred miles of fence enclose the ranch. In 1947 the Humble Oil and Refining Company was operating 390 producing wells on it, and more oil and gas developments have come in the past decade. This famous ranch, with Robert J. Kleberg, Jr. as manager and the King-Kleberg descendants as stockholders, has become a Texas landmark with the passing years.

THE CALLAGHAN RANCH. The Callaghan Ranch, located on the road between San Antonio and Laredo, was founded by Charles Callaghan as an eighty-acre homestead south of old Fort Ewell. After Callaghan's death, William R. Jones carried on the work for the heirs and built up the ranch by purchase and lease. At its largest extent the ranch pastured
100,000 sheep and 6,000 goats on 125,000 acres owned outright and another 100,000 acres under lease.

In 1908 the ranch was bought by David T. Beals, George D. Ford, and Thomas A. Coleman. The new owners converted the famous old ranch into a cattle empire and embarked on a new program of expansion. In 1946 the Callaghan Ranch consisted of 250,000 acres under ownership and lease, and 20,000 Hereford cattle were pastured on its lands.

The headquarters are located in Encinal, Texas. The Callaghan is one of the best improved ranches in the country. Many of the employees, chiefly people of Mexican descent, were born and have spent their entire lives on the ranch. Few of the motorists who travel the highway between Laredo and San Antonio dream that their route takes them through a great cattle kingdom that represents the best of the old West.

MATADOR RANCH. The Matador Ranch was organized in the fall of 1878 when A. M. Britton and H. H. (Hank) Campbell purchased a small herd of cattle and range rights from Joe Browning. Browning had made his headquarters in an abandoned dugout near Ballard Springs in present Motley County. The same dugout became the first headquarters of the Matador Ranch.

S. W. Lomax soon bought into the enterprise, and the Matador Land and Cattle Company was organized. In 1882 the Matador holdings were sold to the
Matador Land and Cattle Company of Dundee, Scotland. The sale involved 60,000 cattle and 300,000 acres of land in Motley, Dickens, Cottle, and Floyd counties. After the beginning of the twentieth century additional lands were added to the ranch property. Since 1910 an average of 50,000 cattle per year has been pastured on the Matador Ranch.

THE WAGGONER RANCH. The Waggoner (Three D) Ranch dates its origin from the early 1850's at Cactus Hill on the Trinity River in Wise County. Daniel Waggoner stocked his 15,000 acres with a few hundred longhorns and six horses. Forced to move east to Denton Creek because of Indian raids, Waggoner and his son, William Thomas Waggoner, drove a herd to the Kansas market in 1870.
They made a profit that became the basis of their ranch fortune.

As the frontier moved westward, the Waggoners moved their ranch to Clay and finally to China Creek in present Wichita County. Their range soon extended from China Creek to the Pease River, a distance of thirty miles. After extending their holdings across the Red River into Oklahoma, the Waggoners began buying Texas land as the open range closed. Between 1889 and 1903 the ranch was expanded to cover a block running thirty miles east to west and twenty-five miles north to south. This tract of real estate included over a million acres in Foard, Knox, Baylor, Archer, Wilbarger, and Wichita counties. By 1900 the well-watered and compact ranch had 60,000 head of cattle. The discovery of oil at Electra in 1911 caused the Waggoner family to combine ranching and oil production as their major interests.

THE SPUR RANCH. The Spur Ranch was at one time one of the largest and best known of the West Texas cattle kingdom. The ranch had 439,000 acres of land in Dickens, Kent, Crosby, and Garza counties. During the 1880’s and 1890’s the Spur property was owned by various land and cattle companies. In 1906 E. P. and S. A. Swenson and their associates purchased the land from the Espuela Land and Cattle Company of London, England. The land was bought not for ranching purposes, but with colonization in mind. The railroad was extended from Stamford into the Spur territory, where two towns were proposed. The Spur
herd of cattle (25,000 head) was put up for sale to colonists, and surveyors were sent to mark off the small tracts of land to be bought by the newcomers. The enterprise was well-managed and very successful. The lands were excellent, the prices reasonable, and the sales were made directly from the owners to the buyers. In 1942 the Swensons and the John J. Emery family, the owners of the remaining part of the ranch, entered into a division of the property. The Swenson portion came under the operation of the S M S ranches.

THE S M S RANCHES. In the 1830's young S. M. Swenson came to Texas from Sweden. He was a man of many interests and introduced the Colt revolver to the Texas Navy and to the army. Swenson settled in Austin and made money shipping Texas pecans to the North and East. By the time of the Civil War, he had become a prominent merchant and banker in Austin.

Swenson's greatest interest, however, was in acquiring land. He always carried extra boots, saddles, blankets, and many other supplies on his frequent trips into West Texas. These articles were traded for land certificates. Because he opposed secession, Swenson became unpopular in Austin during the Civil War. When the war ended he sold his Austin property and moved his family to New York City.

The four S M S ranches covered a large part of twelve West Texas counties: more than 300,000 acres were there. When Swenson died in 1896, his sons, E. P. and S. A. Swenson, continued the operation
of both the New York banking house and the four ranches in Texas. They have shown a great interest in the improvement of the S M S cattle.

These examples represent only a half-dozen of the hundreds of large ranches in Texas. The leaders of the Texas cattle industry have played a significant role in the economic and political history of the state. Before the development of the oil industry they were supreme in their local regions; and since the discovery of the oil industry, the cattlemen have often become oil men. Before we leave the ranges of Texas, it should be mentioned that the sheep and goat industries have often been allied with the cattle industry in many regions of Texas. Let us see what role these industries played in the history of Texas.

SHEEP AND GOAT RANCHING. Along with the cattle industry, the sheep industry was brought to Texas by the Catholic fathers who established the
Spanish missions in Texas during the last years of the seventeenth century. The pioneer Spanish settlers along the Rio Grande brought sheep with them as they moved into the states of northern Mexico and Texas. It has been said that a flock of French merinos driven from California were the first purebred stock on the Texas sheep range.

Texas sheep are bred for both wool and lambs. The Rambouillet is the most popular breed, especially in Southwest Texas. Other breeds raised by the ranchers of Texas include the Shropshire, Hampshire, Southdown, and Suffolk. At the present time, the sheep industry is centered in Southwest and far West Texas, especially in the hill-country counties of the Edwards Plateau and in the Rio Grande plain and Trans-Pecos regions of the state. The primary sheep and wool markets are located at San Angelo, Kerrville, Del Rio, Sonora, and other places in Southwest Texas.

Goats were also brought into Texas by the Spanish and Mexican colonists of the early colonial period. These animals were grown only for home consumption and milk until after the Civil War. The ordinary milk goat was brought into Texas by the Spanish settlers.

In 1849 the first Angora goats were brought into the United States from Turkey. Colonel W. W. Haupt of Hays County brought the first Angora stock into the state in 1857-1858. The limited number of purebred animals led to widespread crossbreeding with the common "slick-haired" Mexican goats.
After generations of crossbreeding, the American Angora goat was superior to the Angoras of Turkey. Angoras are admirably suited to the brushy pasture of the Texas hill-country. Their browsing destroys small shrubs and prunes others to a uniform height. Today Texas Angoras make up a large percentage of the total number of goats in the United States. The National Association of Angora Goat Breeders has had its headquarters at Rocksprings, Edwards County, since 1925.

RAILROADS. The colorful trail drives became a thing of the past when the transportation problem of Texas and the Southwest was solved by the railroads. Before the Civil War, only a few miles of railroad line in Texas were begun at Harrisburg, nine miles south of Houston. It was called the Buffalo Bayou, Brazos, and Colorado Railroad. Three years after the first construction, the line had been extended thirty-two miles from Harrisburg on Buffalo Bayou to Richmond on the Brazos. Five years later this little railroad reached Alleyton on the Colorado. Also prior to the Civil War, a railroad was built from Houston to Millican, in the Brazos Valley below Bryan, with a branch line extending to Brenham. This was the humble beginning of the Houston and Texas Central System. In the meantime, Houston and Galveston had been linked by a railroad, and the Texas and New Orleans line had been constructed from Houston to Orange on the Sabine River. Only eleven short railroad lines, totaling a little less than
five hundred miles, had been constructed in Texas before the Civil War.

The War Between the States left the Texas railroads bankrupt. The state government encouraged railroad building by liberal land grants, and in the 1870's a railroad building boom took place in Texas. By the time the land grant act was repealed in 1882, over 4,000 miles of railroad lines had been completed, and eight years later Texas had 8,710 miles of railroad.

In summary, the Houston and Texas Central line had reached Corsicana by 1871. The Missouri, Kansas, and Texas (Katy) was built south from the Indian territory and crossed the Red River into Texas in 1872. The International and Great Northern went
across the state from northeast to southwest. The Gulf, Colorado, and Santa Fe ran north from Galveston and finally connected Texas to the main system after a financial reorganization. The Southern Pacific was completed between San Antonio and El Paso in 1883. The Texas and Pacific was built across West Texas from Fort Worth to El Paso in the 1880’s. The Fort Worth and Denver laid its track across Northwest Texas and the Texas Panhandle in the late 1880’s.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Summarize the buffalo slaughter in Texas.
2. Trace the origins of the cattle industry in Texas.
3. Discuss the beginnings of ranching in early Texas.
4. What is meant by the term “range cattle industry”?
5. Summarize the major features of “the big ranch country.”
6. Trace the history of railroad building during the years following the Civil War.

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY
grasslands          shaggy          intriguing
species            utensils        slaughter
reservations       extension      crossbreed

DO IT YOURSELF
1. With the aid of a source, such as The Texas Almanac, draw and label on an outline map the major cattle trails leading out of Texas during the years following the Civil War. Show the final destination of each trail and gather some biographical information on the person or persons most clearly identified with the establishment of the trail.
2. On an outline map of Texas draw and label the routes of the major railroads of the state. Name each railroad represented and give the dates of its construction.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE
Gard, Wayne, *The Chisholm Trail.* If your library does not have this book, ask your librarian to order it.
Hastings, Frank, *A Ranchman’s Recollections.*

One of the best descriptions of life on a typical West Texas ranch is Harley True Burton’s *History of the J A Ranch.* This excellent narrative was published in the *Southwestern Historical Quarterly* in volumes XXXI and XXXII. A brief excerpt from this work appears in the Appendix. After reading this selection, you may want to read the entire work.
Chapter XXI

The Oil Industry of Texas

THE ORIGINS OF THE PETROLEUM INDUSTRY. Among the new industries of the nineteenth century, the industry that held the greatest interest for the American public was the production
of petroleum. During the late nineteenth century kerosene lighted most American homes, and oil was necessary for the new machinery. While oil had long been known, its usual use was as "snake oil" for sprains or as "Indian medicine" for all human ills. Colonel Edwin L. Drake drilled the first commercial oil well in western Pennsylvania in 1859. Within a short time many people rushed into the region with a wealth-hungry gleam in their eyes. These adventurers dotted the landscape with crude derricks as they drilled their wells in search of "black gold."

**OIL IN TEXAS.** Oil in Texas was first discovered by the Spaniards in 1543 when Luis de Moscoso used the seeping oil from springs near Sabine Pass as a calking for his ships. Long before the Spaniards arrived in the area, the Indians of East Texas had known and used the oil seepage from springs in the Nacogdoches area. The first Anglo-American settlers found oil seeps in a number of East Texas locations. Near Melrose, in Nacogdoches County, a small spring had furnished oil for lubrication of Spanish carts as early as 1790. It was near this place that L. T. Barrett dug the first producing oil well in Texas in 1866, but there was no market for the oil. Forty years later the Oil Spring area came into prominence again. Following the completion of a flowing well by the Petroleum Prospecting Company in 1886, four companies were formed, and activity in the Oil Spring region lasted until the little field was abandoned in 1890.
Other petroleum discoveries were made in Texas before the development of the Oil Spring area. Oil near Sour Lake was noted by Andrew Briscoe in 1847. Richard (Dick) Dowling had explored for oil in the Sabine Pass area after the Civil War. Gas wells were drilled at a number of locations in Texas during the last decades of the nineteenth century. Exploration began at Spindletop seven years after Colonel Edwin Drake’s first well in Pennsylvania. A prospector named B. T. Kavanaugh leased 1,114 acres of land near the Gulf Coast town of Beaumont from Matthew Cartwright in August, 1866. Kavanaugh was looking for oil and chose his site near Beaumont, where a curious mound swelled gently above the ground like a plate turned upside down on a table. The whole place looked and smelled of oil. One could punch a stick into the ground and light a flame from the escaping gas. Ponds and streams bore sour odors, and gas bubbled to the surface of the water. Even the earth had a strange, waxy feeling. It is not known whether or not Kavanaugh dug a well. We do know that he did not find oil.

Exploration began again at Spindletop in 1892 and at Sour Lake in 1893. At Spindletop, Patillo Higgins and the Gladys City Oil, Gas, and Manufacturing Company were responsible for the renewed interest. In the meantime the shallow field at Corsicana had been developed. In mid-1899 Anthony F. Lucas, an authority on salt dome structures, took over the operations at Spindletop. He exhausted his small capital in an unsuccessful attempt.
J. M. Guffey of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, finally came to his assistance with a grant of money, and Alfred and James Hamill of Corsicana contracted to drill the well. Beginning on October 27, 1899, the Hamill brothers pushed the well down to a depth of 1,160 feet. On January 10, 1901— a cold winter morning — operations were shut down to change the bit on the rotary rig. As the new bit was being lowered about mid-morning, the well broke loose. In one mighty roar and like a shot from a cannon, the four-inch pipe, swivels, blocks, and tackle were all blown up through the derrick. After a brief period of quiet, a large mass of heavy mud shot out of the well. This was followed by a terrific roar as a mixture of oil, gas, mud, and rocks erupted from the well. A 100-foot geyser of black oil gushed over the top of the wooden derrick, and the gusher was not capped for six days.

A new era had dawned in the history of Texas; a new way of life had begun for many of its people. The fabulous Lucas gusher can be listed as one of the most significant events in Texas history.

*THE SPINDLETOP BOOM.* The discovery of oil at Spindletop created a sensation. The Lucas gusher was described as a 100,000-barrel-per-day well, and a great lake of oil was formed around the site. More gushers were drilled during the weeks that followed. The railroads ran special trains from Galveston, Houston, and other cities to see "the greatest sight on earth." In *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly* on
Spindletop, Boyce House writes, "Beaumont looked like circus day, every day, with map vendors and peddlers of souvenir bottles filled with oil crying their wares; lease brokers shouted their 'bargains' from boxes or wore signs in their hats as they mingled with the crowds that sometimes filled the street from building line to building line. Booths were built in the yard of the Crosby House, customers standing on the sidewalk. One tiny office was headquarters of five promotional companies — for the first nation-wide speculation in oil stocks reached a 'Mississippi Bubble' magnitude. . . .

"Lines in front of cafes were a block long; grocery stores never closed; in fact, night and day meant little, for men would set out at midnight with lanterns to search for 'gas bumps' and indications of oil. Unable to find a place to sleep, two men bought a mattress and placed it on the sidewalk on the principal street. A man, flipping through a roll of $100 bills, came across a 'ten spot,' which he tore up with the remark, 'Small change, what are you doing here?' A woman who owned a little truck patch and a few hogs for which she hauled slop from town in two barrels on a dilapidated wagon leased her land for a fortune."

OTHER DISCOVERIES. Spindletop proved to be only the beginning of the Texas oil industry. In the years that followed, other important discoveries were made in widely-separated areas throughout Texas. On the Texas Gulf Coast additional fields were brought in at Sour Lake, West Columbia, Goose
Creek, Humble, Barbers Hill, and Hull. In 1911 a water-drilling outfit on the W. T. Waggoner ranch in Wichita County hit oil and brought in the Electra field. In 1917 the biggest boom to that date followed the discovery of the Ranger field in Eastland County. The Burkburnett field was discovered in 1919. The 1920's saw important discoveries at or near Mexia, Corsicana, Borger, Luling, Big Lake, Wortham, Big Spring, Van, Pettus, and Darst Creek.

By 1930 the oil industry in Texas had assumed a primary spot in the economy of Texas. It was represented by thousands of producing wells, a network of pipe lines, refineries, and facilities for distribution all over the length and breadth of the state. Although slowed by overproduction and low prices, the industry was continuing to advance against competition from Oklahoma, California, and Louisiana. But the greatest discovery of all was still to come — the famous East Texas field.

**THE EAST TEXAS FIELD.** The East Texas field, the largest of them all, is a tribute to the industry and enterprise of that veteran "wildcatter" Columbus M. (Dad) Joiner, of Ardmore, Oklahoma. (A wildcatter is a person or a company who seeks new fields, often operating on a "shoestring.") For years the rural people who lived in the pine-covered, gently-rolling hills of East Texas had dreamed of finding oil. Most of these folk were small farmers, often poverty-stricken, who raised cotton, sweet potatoes, and corn. The land of Rusk County had been leased
in 1919 by Oklahomans, but no development followed. In 1927 Joiner quietly leased a few hundred acres in southern Rusk County between the towns of Overton and Henderson.

Joiner had been credited with earlier oil fields at Duncan and Ardmore, Oklahoma. It is said that he had made and lost a fortune in Oklahoma oil. As anxious East Texas watched, Joiner’s first two wells were failures. He had difficulty financing a third at-
tempt, and his equipment was old and breakdowns were frequent. Joiner was broke, but he raised money for a third attempt by selling shares to farmers, lawyers, ministers, gamblers, waitresses, or to anyone else who would buy. As the drill reached 3,500 feet, a crowd of several thousand curious people gathered to watch. After some coaxing, the well began to flow oil and blew in with force on Friday night, October 3, 1930. It was soon evident that the elated Joiner and his crew had discovered a 5,000-barrel-per-day well. This discovery well was named the Daisy Bradford No. 3.

A typical oil boom followed. In December another discovery well resulted near Kilgore, to be followed in January, 1931, by a third near Longview. By this time oil men realized that the East Texas field was enormous in size. Operations in the area increased at a staggering pace. In 1933 the East Texas field produced 204,954,000 barrels of oil. Overproduction was the result, and restrictions followed. In August, 1931, the field was shut down by Governor Ross Sterling, who sent the Texas National Guard into East Texas to enforce his order. The field was reopened again in September under strict regulation.

THE SCURRY COUNTY DISCOVERY. The most important discovery in recent years has been in Scurry and adjoining counties. Following extensive tests in the region, the discovery well was brought in in November, 1948. As a result, there developed one of the greatest oil booms in Texas history. The new
field extended over a wide area into Borden, Kent, and Howard counties. The West Texas territory soon became one of the busiest in the oil world.

Several smaller fields have been discovered during the last ten years. The Neches field in Anderson and Cherokee counties was discovered in 1953. Since then there has been major oil activity in Andrews and Gaines counties and along the Midland-Ector county line.

The major oil companies are constantly exploring for new fields. The never-ending search for riches below the surface of the earth continues to be a dramatic story in the current history of Texas and the Southwest.

THE TIDELANDS. In recent years the search for oil has been carried far beyond the coast line of Texas. Explorations have been made, huge platforms erected, and wells drilled far out at sea. All of the major oil companies of Texas and the United States have been interested in tideland oil development. Typical of these activities, the Humble Company could announce in 1954, "Once again, Humble Oil and Refining Company is 'going down to the seas' . . . with a widespread program of exploration, wildcatting, and development drilling." Renewed interest had followed the Congressional recognition of the "historic limits" of Texas that came after the United States Supreme Court decision which deprived Texas of much of its claim to offshore lands. More than a dozen major oil companies returned to the sea with
Humble. Although the risks are great and the costs of a single wildcat well are tremendous, this dramatic adventure on the "lonely sea" holds promise of important new oil reserves for America. And this fact makes the expense and the trouble worthwhile. The Gulf of Mexico, therefore, has become the new frontier of the oil industry.

**OIL REFINING.** Since it is necessary to refine
the crude petroleum that is pumped out of the ground, oil refineries soon became a part of the Texas oil picture. A small refinery was built at Corsicana in 1898, but the rapid development in this phase of the petroleum industry came after Spindletop. The Gulf Oil Corporation, an expansion of the J. M. Guffey Petroleum Company, began work on a refinery at Port Arthur in 1901. The Burt refinery was built at Beaumont the following year, and the Texas Company built a refinery at Port Neches in 1906 and another at Dallas two years later. In 1911 the Gulf Corporation built a refining plant at Fort Worth, and the Pierce Oil Company put in one at Texas City. The Pierce Company constructed another plant at Fort Worth in 1912; the Magnolia Company constructed one in the same city in 1914.

From the early days of the industry, pipe lines were built to connect the producing fields of the state with these refining centers. By 1920 the state was criss-crossed by a network of pipe lines. By 1925 there were eighty refineries in Texas. Expanding from the small globe refinery at Humble, the Humble Oil and Refining Company began building the huge Baytown refinery in 1919. Choosing a site in the boggy rice lands bordering the Houston ship channel, the construction crews had the refinery ready for limited operation by the spring of 1920. Formal completion was celebrated on April 21, 1921. Like other large refineries in Texas, the Baytown refinery of the Humble Company has been improved and expanded with the passing years.
POLYPROPYLENE. The growth of the Baytown refinery is an example of the expanding importance of petroleum. Polypropylene is one of the new plastics called polyolefins; its production is just one part of the enormous and complex petrochemical industry, which also includes the manufacture of synthetic rubber.

NATURAL GAS. The natural gas
by-product of the petroleum industry. Natural gas was first used in Texas in 1879 when a farmer in Washington County accidentally ignited gas in his water well. The farmer piped the gas into his home and became the first domestic consumer of natural gas. Gas was first commercially produced and used at Corsicana, Texas, in 1901. Vast amounts of natural gas were discovered in Texas as the oil industry developed in various parts of the state. For many years the gas was considered worthless and was flared away as quickly as possible. As the years passed, however, the commercial value of natural gas was fully recognized. Natural gas is sold for fuel, is used in the drilling and pumping processes in the oil fields, and furnishes raw materials for the manufacture of carbon black. Since 1947 pipe lines have been built to carry the gas into other states.

THE CARBON BLACK INDUSTRY. The first plant in Texas for the manufacture of carbon black was built in Stephens County in 1923. The industry soon spread into Eastland and Hutchinson counties. By the year 1937 forty Texas plants, thirty-three of them in the Panhandle, produced 82 per cent of the nation's carbon black. Carbon black is made by burning residue gas, sometimes called "sour gas," from gasoline plants. The principal use of carbon black is in the manufacture of automobile tires.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PETROLEUM. In 1941 a huge monument was unveiled on the site of the famous Lucas gusher of 1901. Carved in granite
are these lines: "On This Spot on the Tenth Day of
the Twentieth Century a New Era in Civilization Be-
gan. Petroleum has revolutionized industry and trans-
portation; it has created untold wealth, built cities,
furnished employment for hundreds of thousands, and
contributed billions of dollars in taxes to support in-
stitutions of government. In a brief span of years, it
has altered man's way of life throughout the world."

The industries that have grown up in Texas in
the last few years are largely indebted to the oil in-
dustry for their prosperity. In turn, these industries
will attract others, and Texas may look forward with
confidence to greater growth.

OTHER INDUSTRIES. Besides the farm, the
ranch, and the petroleum and related industries, the
economy of Texas is based on many types of
manufacturing. A list of the more significant industries
would include the following:

THE SULPHUR INDUSTRY. Sulphur was dis-
covered in Texas at Bryan Mound in 1901 by Captain
A. F. Lucas of Spindletop fame. Usually found on the
top of the underground salt stocks that have been
thrust upward from great depths almost to the surface
of the earth, a mound is found immediately above
these salt deposits and is known as a salt dome. There
are a number of these geological formations lying along
the Texas Gulf Coast. The sulphur found at the top
of these salt hills has been mined by the Frasch proc-
ess. By this method, a well is drilled and two pipes
are lowered into the sulphur deposit. Superheated water
is then forced down through one of the pipes, melting the sulphur, which then flows to the surface under pressure through the other pipe. The molten sulphur is then collected in huge vats. After the sulphur has solidified, the walls of the vat are removed, leaving gigantic blocks of the mineral.

There were three large sulphur companies producing on the Texas coast in 1960: (1) the Texas Gulf Sulphur Company had plants at Boling Dome in Wharton County, Moss Bluff Dome in Liberty County, and Spindletop Dome in Jefferson County; (2) the Jefferson Lake Sulphur Company had plants in Brazoria County and Fort Bend County; and (3) the Duval Sulphur and Potash Company had a plant at Orchard Dome in Fort Bend County. Most of the sulphur mined in Texas goes to the industrial areas of the northern part of the United States or to countries in Europe. Sulphur has a wide variety of uses in the chemical field.

**LUMBER AND WOOD PRODUCTS.** This industry comprises 903 plants and is located largely in the East Texas forest area. The Texas forests are now producing timber faster than it is cut, and the ever-increasing population of the state is providing the expanding market for wood products.

**TEXTILE MILL PRODUCTS.** The first textile mill — a small spinning and weaving cotton mill — was established at New Braunfels in 1850 by the enterprising John F. Torrey. Torrey’s mill was located on the Comal River and was operated by the water power
of that spring-fed stream. As the 1950's ended, there were seventy-six textile mills in Texas, employing 8,698 persons.

**PRIMARY METALS.** Texas has always ranked low in the field of primary metals because the state lacks a mineral source to supply and support this industry. The most significant primary metal industry in Texas is the iron and steel industry of the Lone Star Steel Company in Morris County.

**TRANSPORTATION VEHICLES.** The contribution of Texas to the manufacture of transportation equipment is confined largely to the manufacture of military aircraft under government contracts. The aircraft industry centers in the Fort Worth-Dallas area with the Chance-Vought plant at Grand Prairie; Convair at Fort Worth; Temco at Garland, Grand Prairie, and Greenville; and the Bell helicopter plant at Hurst, northeast of Fort Worth. The Mooney aircraft plant at Kerrville is also a significant part of this industry.

The great importance of the farm, the ranch, and the industrial complex to the economy of present-day Texas is illustrated by the statistics found in *The World Almanac*. This publication lists Texas as first in the nation in the number of farms (227,052), first in total farm acreage (142,923,000), first in the number of bales of cotton (4,350,000), and first in rural road mileage (194,254 miles). In 1960 Texas produced 23.11 per cent of the total mineral output of
the nation with petroleum, natural gas, natural gas liquids, and cement listed as the major minerals.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS
1. Trace the history of early oil explorations in Texas.
2. Describe conditions in a typical "boom town."
3. Trace the expansion of the oil industry.
4. Consult The Texas Almanac and make a list of other important industries.

CONSULT YOUR DICTIONARY

calking  lubrication  magnitude
polypropylene  polyolefin  petrochemical

DO IT YOURSELF
1. Find out all you can about petrochemicals. Perhaps your science teacher will help you.
2. Look for recent discoveries in the petrochemical field.

FOR THOSE WHO WISH TO LEARN MORE

Current magazines.
The Humble Way, 1960 to the present time.
Americans everywhere have been thrilled by the accomplishments of the United States in space exploration as Project Mercury of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration has sent Alan Sheppard, Virgil Grissom, John Glenn, and Scott Carpenter into suborbital and orbital flights. Research and development in missile and spacecraft technology are the most spectacular signs of our times; of all of the future plans, the promise of Project “Apollo” must stir the imagination of every American youngster.

Early in the year 1962 the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) announced that a manned spacecraft center would be constructed on a 1,600-acre tract of land at Clear Lake, on the coastal plain twenty-two miles south of Houston. The huge development will eventually become the planning, research, development, training, and command center for all space flights made in the United States, including the Apollo project to land men on the moon by the end of the 1960's.

Plans for the moon flight, already revealed by NASA author-
ities, call for an unmanned Saturn rocket to boost a propulsion unit into orbit around the earth, followed by another Saturn boosting a three-man, 75-ton Apollo spaceship. The spacecraft and propulsion unit will rendezvous in orbit, be joined together, and then blast off on a precise trajectory to the moon. Landing on the moon, after a 2½-day flight of some 238,000 miles, the astronauts will spend twenty-four hours collecting samples of the surface of the moon, making photographs and scientific measurements. Then they will return to earth—and all of this at Clear Lake.

The selection of a Texas site for the space flights of the future is in keeping with the proud heritage of the state in the development of military aviation in the United States. In 1911, shortly after Orville and Wilbur Wright invented their “flying machine,” the United States Army moved its infant aviation
program to Fort Sam Houston, Texas. It was there on Arthur MacArthur Field, on a windy day in March, 1911, that Lieutenant Benjamin Foulois made his first solo flight in the Wright aircraft. This was an eventful beginning for the association of San Antonio and military aviation. Except for the beginning at Fort Sam Houston, Kelly Air Force Base deserves the distinction of being named as the first military air base in Texas and one of the first in the United States. With the passing of the years, Kelly has grown into one of the nation’s most important air bases.

Kelly Air Force Base was named for Lieutenant George E. M. Kelly, the first military pilot to lose his life in an aircraft accident. Lieutenant Kelly was killed on May 10, 1911, while making a landing at Fort Sam Houston.

As the First World War brought military aviation into its own, a site was needed for the rapidly expanding flying activity within the United States Army. The site selected was located about ten miles south of Fort Sam Houston and about six miles south of San Antonio. The new military establishment was named Camp Kelly. On July 30, 1917, Camp Kelly was renamed Kelly Field. Its present name was given on January 13, 1948.

After World War I, Kelly Field was designated as the Air Corps Advanced Flying School—an institution that operated for eighteen years. Between 1922 and 1940, 3,945 pilots graduated from this school. Those training at Kelly during these significant years included such later aviation greats as generals Billy Mitchell, H. H. Arnold, Charles A. Lindbergh, Jimmy Doolittle, George Kenney, and Carl Spaatz.

By 1943 the flying activities at Kelly had been dispersed to other fields, and Kelly became a huge industrial-type establishment with the modification and repair of aircraft engines and equipment as its primary mission. At the present time Kelly Air Force Base houses the San Antonio Air Materiel Area. One of nine such units in the modern air force, the San Antonio Air Materiel command is the largest industrial complex in the United States Air Force.

The story of Randolph Air Force Base begins with the dedica-
Series F Atlas Missile on Launching Pad

Courtesy General Dynamics Astronautics through the USAF
tion of the new field on June 20, 1930. Randolph Air Force Base, named for Captain William M. Randolph, became the famous "West Point of the Air" during the years just prior to the Second World War. During the war years, 1941-1945, pilot training was diverted to hundreds of other schools all over the United States. At the conclusion of the war, aviation cadets returned to Randolph, but in 1950-1951 the B-29 combat crew training program replaced undergraduate pilot training and the famous T-6 Texan aircraft. At the present time Randolph Air Force Base, among other duties, serves as home for the Air Training Command.

The Air Training Command, beginning in 1943, now conducts resident training at twenty bases located throughout the United States. This huge organization is responsible for the recruiting, pilot training, navigator training, specialized flying training, technical training, and advanced military training. In addition, the Air Training Command conducts courses on fourteen missile weapon systems, including the Snark, Bomarc, Atlas, Titan, Minuteman, and Thor. The Air Training Command operates Perrin Air Force Base at Sherman, Sheppard Air Force Base at Wichita Falls, Amarillo Air Force Base at Amarillo, Reese Air Force Base at Lubbock, Webb Air Force Base at Big Springs, Laughlin Air Force Base at Del Rio, Laredo Air Force Base at Laredo, Lackland Air Force Base at San Antonio, and James Connally Air Force Base at Waco. All of these, along with the School of Aviation Medicine at Brooks Air Force Base, when added up, make the United States Air Force quite a Texas institution.

The future activities at the manned spacecraft center near Houston will add new luster to this proud tradition. In conclusion, as we witness the dawn of the new frontier of space exploration, it is easy to see that since the coming of Cabeza de Vaca and Coronado over three centuries ago, Texas has truly progressed from wilderness to the space age. In all of this remarkable development, the pioneer spirit has prevailed in the past as it will prevail in the unknown future.
Left to Right: The Titan, Minuteman, and Atlas ICBM's.
Appendix

INTRODUCTION

The materials included in the Appendix of *Texas: Wilderness to Space Age* are designed to assist the young students of history who might desire to supplement the narrative in the main body of the text with readings that will provide a better understanding of selected episodes and trends in the history of the state. While significant events and student interest have been kept in mind in choosing the readings that follow, a few of the selections have been taken from books that have been out of print for years and, as a result, have become collectors' items. Many of these books cannot be obtained except at great expense. In addition to this type of material, documents from journals, diaries, military records, and early historical monographs have also been included. The authors hope that the materials covered in this concluding section of the book will help history come to life for our young friends.
THE TEXAS DECLARATION
OF INDEPENDENCE

The Unanimous Declaration of Independence Made by the Delegates of the People of Texas in General Convention at the Town of Washington on the 2nd Day of March 1836

When a government has ceased to protect the lives, liberty and property of the people, from whom its legitimate powers are derived, and for the advancement of whose happiness it was instituted, and, so far from being a guarantee for the enjoyment of those inestimable and inalienable rights, becomes an instrument in the hands of evil rulers for their oppression: When the Federal Republican Constitution of their country, which they have sworn to support, no longer has a substantial existence, and the whole nature of their government has been forcibly changed, without their consent, from a restricted federative republic, composed of sovereign states, to a consolidated, central, military despotism in which every interest is disregarded but that of the army and the priesthood — both the eternal enemies of civil liberty, the ever-ready minions of power, and the usual instruments of tyrants. When, long after the spirit of the constitution has departed, moderation is, at length, so far lost by those in power that even the semblance of freedom is removed, and the forms themselves of the constitution discontinued; and so far from their petitions and remonstrances being regarded the agents who bear them are thrown into dungeons; and mercenary armies sent forth to force a new government upon them at the point of the bayonet: When in consequence of such acts of malfeasance and abdication, on the part of the government, anarchy prevails, and civil society is dissolved into its original elements — In such a crisis, the first law of nature, the right of self-preservation — the inherent and inalienable right of the people to appeal to first principles and take their political affairs into their own hands in extreme cases — enjoins it as a right towards themselves and a sacred obligation to their pos-
terity to abolish such government and create another, in its
stead, calculated to rescue them from impending dangers, and to
secure their future welfare and happiness.

Nations, as well as individuals, are amenable for their acts
to the public opinion of mankind. A statement of a part of our
grievances is, therefore, submitted to an impartial world, in jus-
tification of the hazardous but unavoidable step now taken of
severing our political connection with the Mexican people, and
assuming an independent attitude among the nations of the
earth.

The Mexican government, by its colonization laws, invited
and induced the Anglo-American population of Texas to colo-
nize its wilderness under the pledged faith of a written constitu-
tion that they should continue to enjoy that constitutional liberty
and republican government to which they had been habituated
in the land of their birth, the United States of America. In
this expectation they have been cruelly disappointed, inasmuch
as the Mexican nation has acquiesced in the late changes made
in the government by General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna,
who, having overturned the constitution of his country, now
offers us the cruel alternative either to abandon our homes, ac-
quired by so many privations, or submit to the most intolerable
of all tyranny, the combined despotism of the sword and the
priesthood.

It has sacrificed our welfare to the state of Coahuila, by
which our interests have been continually depressed through a
jealous and partial course of legislation carried on at a far dis-
tant seat of government, by a hostile majority; in an unknown
tongue; and this too, notwithstanding we have petitioned in the
humblest terms, for the establishment of a separate state gov-
ernment, and have, in accordance with the provisions of the
national constitution, presented to the general Congress a re-
publican constitution which was, without just cause, con-
temptuously rejected.

It incarcerated in a dungeon, for a long time, one of our
citizens, for no other cause but a zealous endeavor to procure

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the acceptance of our constitution and the establishment of a state government.

It has failed and refused to secure on a firm basis, the right of trial by jury, that palladium of civil liberty, and only safe guarantee for the life, liberty, and property of the citizen.

It has failed to establish any public system of education, although possessed of almost boundless resources (the public domain) and, although it is an axiom, in political science, that unless a people are educated and enlightened it is idle to expect the continuance of civil liberty, or the capacity for self-government.

It has suffered the military commandants stationed among us to exercise arbitrary acts of oppression and tyranny; thus trampling upon the most sacred rights of the citizen and rendering the military superior to the civil power.

It has dissolved by force of arms, the State Congress of Coahuila and Texas, and obliged our representatives to fly for their lives from the seat of government; thus depriving us of the fundamental political right of representation.

It has demanded the surrender of a number of our citizens, and ordered military detachments to seize and carry them into the interior for trial; in contempt of the civil authorities, and in defiance of the laws and the constitution.

It has made piratical attacks upon our commerce, by commissioning foreign desperadoes, and authorizing them to seize our vessels, and convey the property of our citizens to far distant ports for confiscation.

It denies us the right of worshipping the Almighty according to the dictates of our own conscience; by the support of a national religion calculated to promote the temporal interests of its human functionaries rather than the glory of the true and living God.

It has demanded us to deliver up our arms, which are essential to our defense, the rightful property of freemen, and formidable only to tyrannical governments.
It has invaded our country, both by sea and by land, with intent to lay waste our territory and drive us from our homes; and has now a large mercenary army advancing to carry on against us a war of extermination.

It has, through its emissaries, incited the merciless savage, with the tomahawk and scalping knife, to massacre the inhabitants of our defenseless frontiers.

It hath been, during the whole time of our connection with it, the contemptible sport and victim of successive military revolutions; and hath continually exhibited every characteristic of a weak, corrupt, and tyrannical government.

These, and other grievances, were patiently borne by the people of Texas until they reached that point at which forbearance ceases to be a virtue. We then took up arms in defense of the national constitution. We appealed to our Mexican brethren for assistance. Our appeal has been made in vain. Though months have elapsed, no sympathetic response has yet been heard from the Interior. We are, therefore, forced to the melancholy conclusion that the Mexican people have acquiesced in the destruction of their liberty, and the substitution therefor of a military government—that they are unfit to be free and incapable of self-government.

The necessity of self-preservation, therefore, now decrees our eternal political separation.

We, therefore, the delegates, with plenary powers, of the people of Texas, in solemn convention assembled, appealing to a candid world for the necessities of our condition, do hereby resolve and declare that our political connection with the Mexican nation has forever ended; and that the people of Texas do now constitute a free sovereign and independent republic, and are fully invested with all the rights and attributes which properly belong to the independent nations; and, conscious of the rectitude of our intentions, we fearlessly and confidently commit the issue to the decision of the Supreme Arbiter of the destinies of nations.
FALL OF THE ALAMO

Accounts of the fall of the Alamo by Juan Almonte, subordinate commander under Santa Anna; Santa Anna, commander-in-chief of the Mexican Army; and Colonel Francisco Ruiz, alcalde of San Antonio

Almonte's Account of the Siege

Thursday, 25th. — The firing from our batteries was commenced early. The general-in-chief, with the battalion de Cazadores, crossed the river and posted themselves in the Alamo; that is to say, in the houses near the fort. A new fortification was commenced by us near the house of McMullen. In the random firing, the enemy wounded four of the Cazadores de Matamoros battalion, and two of the battalion of Ximenes and killed one corporal and a soldier of the battalion of Matamoros. Our fire ceased in the afternoon. In the night two batteries were erected by us on the other side of the river, in the Alameda of the Alamo; the battalion of Matamoros was also posted there, and the cavalry was posted on the hills to the east of the enemy, and in the road from Gonzales at the Casa Mata Antigua. At half-past eleven at night we retired. The enemy in the night burnt the straw and wooden houses in their vicinity, but did not attempt to set fire with their guns to those in our rear. A strong north wind commenced at nine at night.

Friday, 26th. — The northern wind continued very strong; the thermometer fell to 29, and during the rest of the day remained at 60. At daylight there was a slight skirmish between the enemy and a small party of the division of the east, under the command of General Sesma. During the day the firing from our cannon was continued. The enemy did not reply except now and then. At night the enemy burnt the small houses near the parapet of the battalion of San Luis, on the other side of the river. Some sentinels were advanced. In the course of
The Cenotaph Honoring the Heroes
of the Alamo, San Antonio

the day the enemy sallied out for wood and water, and were opposed by our marksmen. The northern wind continues.

Saturday, 27th.—Lieutenant ____ was sent with a party of men for corn, cattle, and hogs, to the farms of Seguin and Flores. It was determined to cut off the water from the enemy on the side next the old mill. There was little firing from either side during the day. The enemy worked hard all day to repair some intrenchments. In the afternoon the President was observed by the enemy, and fired at. In the night a courier was despatched to Mexico, informing the government of the taking of Bexar.

Sunday, 28th.—News received that a reinforcement of 200 men was coming to the enemy by the road from La Bahia. The cannonading was continued.

Monday, 29th.—In the afternoon, the battalion of Allende took post at the east of the Alamo. The President reconnoitred. At midnight General Sesma left the camp with the cavalry of Dolores and the infantry of Allende, to meet the enemy coming from La Bahia to the relief of the Alamo.

Tuesday, March 1st.—Early in the morning General Sesma
wrote from the Mission of Espada that there was no enemy, or traces of any to be discovered. The cavalry and infantry returned to camp. At twelve o'clock the President went out to reconnoitre the mill site on the northwest of the Alamo. Colonel Ampudia was commissioned to construct more trenches. In the afternoon the enemy fired two twelve-pound shots at the house of the President, one of which struck it.

Wednesday, 2nd. — Information was received that there was corn at the farm of Seguin, and Lieutenant — with a party sent for it. The President discovered in the afternoon a covered road within pistol-shot of the Alamo, and posted the battalion of Ximenes there.

Thursday, 3rd. — The enemy fired a few cannon and musket shot at the city. I wrote to Mexico directing my letters to be sent to Bexar — that before three months the campaign would be ended. The general-in-chief went out to reconnoitre. A battery was erected on the north of the Alamo, within pistol-shot. Official despatches were received from Urrea, announcing that he had routed the colonists of San Patricio, killing sixteen, and taking twenty-one prisoners. The bells were rung. The battalions of Zapadores, Aldama, and Toluca arrived. The enemy attempted a sally in the night, at the sugar mill, but were repulsed by our advance.

Friday, 4th. — Commenced firing early, which the enemy did not return. In the afternoon one or two shots were fired by them. A meeting of Generals and Colonels was held. After a long conference, Córs, Castrillon, and others, were of opinion that the Alamo should be assaulted after the arrival of two twelve-pounders expected on the 7th instant. The President, General Ramirez Sesma, and myself, were of opinion that the twelve-pounders should not be waited for, but the assault made. In this state things remained, the General not coming to any definite resolution.
SANTA ANNA'S REPORT OF THE FALL OF THE ALAMO

Most Excellent Sir: Victory belongs to the army, which, at this very moment, 8 o'clock a.m., achieved a complete and glorious triumph that will render its memory imperishable.

As I had stated in my report to Your Excellency of the taking of this city, on the 27th of last month, I awaited the arrival of the first brigade of infantry to commence active operations against the fortress of the Alamo. However, the whole brigade having been delayed beyond my expectation, I ordered that three of its battalions, viz., the Engineers, Aldama, and Toluca, should force their march to join me. These troops together with the Battalions of Matamoros, Ximenes, and San Luis Potosi, brought the force at my disposal, recruits excluded, up to 1400 Infantry. This force, divided into four columns of attack, and a reserve, commenced the attack at 5 o'clock a.m. They met with a stubborn resistance, the combat lasting more than one hour and a half, and the reserve having to be brought into action.

The scene offered by this engagement was extraordinary. The men fought individually, vying with each other in heroism. Twenty-one pieces of artillery, used by the enemy with the most perfect accuracy, the brisk fire of musketry, which illuminated the interior of the fortress and its walls and ditches, could not check our dauntless soldiers, who are entitled to the consideration of the Supreme Government, and to the gratitude of the nation.

The Fortress is now in our power, with its artillery, stores, etc. More than 600 corpses of foreigners were buried in the

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1 Ramón Caro, Santa Anna's secretary, published in 1837 his True Account of the First Texas Campaign, in which he says of Santa Anna's figures: "In the report made on that date to the supreme government by His Excellency it is stated that more than 600 of the enemy were killed. I myself wrote that report and must now confess that I put down that number at the command of His Excellency. In stating the truth now, I must say that only 185 men were killed."
ditches and intrenchments, and a great many, who had escaped the bayonet of the infantry, fell in the vicinity under the sabres of the cavalry. I can assure Your Excellency that few are those who bore to their associates the tidings of their disaster.

Among the corpses are those of Bowie and Travis, who styled themselves Colonels, and also that of Crockett, and several leading men, who had entered the fortress with dispatches, from their Convention. We lost about 70 men killed and 300 wounded, among whom are 25 officers. The cause for which they fell renders their loss less painful, as it is the duty of the Mexican soldier to die for the defense of the rights of the nation; and all of us were ready for any sacrifice to promote this fond object; nor will we hereafter, suffer any foreigners, whatever their origin may be, to insult our country and to pollute its soil.

I shall, in due time, send to Your Excellency a circumstantial report of this glorious triumph. Now I have only time to congratulate the nation and the President ad interim, to whom I request you to submit this report.

The bearer takes with him one of the flags of the enemy's battalions, captured to-day. The inspection of it will show plainly the true intention of the treacherous colonists, and of their abettors, who came from the ports of the United States of the North.
RUIZ'S REPORT OF THE FALL OF THE ALAMO

On the 6th March (1836) at 3 a.m., General Santa Anna at the head of 4000 men advanced against the Alamo. The infantry, artillery and cavalry had formed about 1000 varas from the walls of the same fortress. The Mexican army charged and were twice repulsed by the deadly fire of Travis's artillery which resembled a constant thunder. At the third charge the Toluca battalion commenced to scale the walls and suffered severely. Out of 830 men only 150 were left alive.

When the Mexican army entered the walls, I with the political chief (jefe politico) Don Ramón Músquiz and other members of the corporation, accompanied by the curate, Don Refugio de la Garza, who by Santa Anna's orders, had assembled during the night at a temporary fortification on portero Street, with the object of attending the wounded, etc. As soon as the storming commenced we crossed the bridge on Commerce street, with this object in view and about 100 yards from the same a party of Mexican dragoons fired upon us and compelled us to fall back on the river and the place we occupied before. Half an hour had elapsed when Santa Anna sent one of his aide de camps with an order for us to come before him. He directed me to call on some of the neighbors to come with carts to carry the [Mexican] dead to the cemetery and to accompany him, as he was desirous to have Col. Travis, Bowie and Crockett shown to him.

On the north battery of the fortress convent, lay the lifeless body of Col. Travis on the gun carriage shot only through the forehead. Towards the west, and in a small fort opposite the city, we found the body of Col. Crockett. Col. Bowie was found dead in his bed in one of the rooms on the south side.

Santa Anna, after all the Mexican bodies had been taken out, ordered wood to be brought to burn the bodies of the Texans. He sent a company of dragoons with me to bring wood and dry branches from the neighboring forests. About three o'clock in the afternoon of March 6, we laid the wood
and dry branches upon which a pile of dead bodies were placed, more wood was piled on them and another pile of bodies was brought, and in this manner they were all arranged in layers. Kindling wood was distributed through the pile and about 5 o’clock in the evening it was lighted.

The dead Mexicans of Santa Anna were taken to the graveyard but not having sufficient room for them, I ordered some to be thrown into the river, which was done on the same day.

The gallantry of the few Texas, who defended the Alamo was really wondered at by the Mexican army. Even the generals were astonished at their vigorous resistance and how dearly victory was bought.

The generals, who under Santa Anna participated in the storming of the Alamo, were Juan Amador, Castrillon, Ramirez, Sesma, and Andrade.

The men burnt [Texans] were one hundred and eighty-two. I was an eye-witness for as Alcalde of San Antonio, I was, with some of the neighbors, collecting the dead bodies and placing them on the funeral pyre.
THE BATTLE OF SAN JACINTO

Houston's Report of the Battle of San Jacinto, Sam Houston to David G. Burnet, April 25, 1836

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY

SAN JACINTO, April 25, 1836.

To His Excellency David G. Burnet, President of the Republic of Texas.

Sir: I regret extremely that my situation, since the battle of the 21st, has been such as to prevent my rendering you my official report of the same, previous to this time.

I have the honor to inform you, that on the evening of the 18th inst., after a forced march of fifty-five miles, which was effected in two days and a half, the army arrived opposite Harrisburg. That evening a courier of the enemy was taken, from whom I learned that General Santa Anna, with one division of choice troops, had marched in the direction of Lynch's Ferry on the San Jacinto, burning Harrisburg as he passed down. The army was ordered to be in readiness to march early on the next morning. The main body effected a crossing over Buffalo bayou, below Harrisburg, on the morning of the 19th, having left the baggage, the sick, and a sufficient camp guard in the rear. We continued the march throughout the night, making but one halt in the prairie for a short time, and without refreshments. At daylight we resumed the line of march, and in a short distance our scouts encountered those of the enemy, and we received information that General Santa Anna was at New Washington, and would that day take up the line of march for Anahuac, crossing at Lynch's Ferry. The Texan army halted within half a mile of the ferry in some timber and were engaged in slaughtering beeves, when the army of Santa Anna was discovered to be approaching in battle array, having been encamped at Clopper's point, eight miles below. Disposition was immediately made of our forces, and preparation for his
reception. He took position with his infantry and artillery in the center, occupying an island of timber, his cavalry covering the left flank. The artillery, consisting of one double fortified medium brass twelve-pounder, then opened on our encampment. The infantry, in column, advanced with the design of charging our lines, but were repulsed by a discharge of grape and canister from our artillery, consisting of two six-pounders. The enemy had occupied a piece of timber within rifle shot of the left wing of our army, from which an occasional interchange of small arms took place between the troops, until the enemy withdrew to a position on the bank of the San Jacinto, about three-quarters of a mile from our encampment and commenced fortifications. A short time before sunset, our mounted men, about eighty-five in number, under the special command of Colonel Sherman, marched out for the purpose of reconnoitering the enemy. Whilst advancing they received a volley from the left of the enemy's infantry, and after a sharp encounter with their cavalry, in which ours acted extremely well and performed some feats of daring chivalry, they retired in good order, having had two men severely wounded and several horses killed. In the meantime, the infantry under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Millard, and Colonel Burleson's regiment with the artillery, had marched out for the purpose of covering the retreat of the cavalry, if necessary. All then fell back in good order to our encampment about sunset, and remained without any ostensible action until the 21st, at half past three o'clock, taking the first refreshment that they had enjoyed for two days. The enemy in the meantime extended the right flank of their infantry so as to occupy the extreme point of a skirt of timber on the bank of the San Jacinto, and secured their left by a fortification about five feet high, constructed of packs and baggage, leaving an opening in the center of the breastwork in which their artillery was placed, their cavalry upon their left wing.

About nine o'clock on the morning of the 21st, the enemy were reinforced by 500 choice troops, under the command of
General Cos, increasing their effective force to upwards of 1,500 men, whilst our aggregate force for the field numbered 788. At half past three o'clock in the evening, I ordered the officers of the Texan army to parade their respective commands, having in the meantime ordered the bridge on the only road communicating with the Brazos, distant eight miles from our encampment, to be destroyed, thus cutting off all possibility of escape. Our troops paraded with alacrity and spirit, and were anxious for the contest. Their conscious disparity in numbers seemed only to increase their enthusiasm and confidence and heighten their anxiety for the conflict. Our situation afforded me the opportunity for making the arrangements preparatory to the attack, without exposing our designs to the enemy. The first regiment, commanded by Colonel Burleson, was assigned the center. The second regiment, under the command of Colonel Sherman, formed the left wing of the army. The artillery under the special command of Colonel George W. Hockley, Inspector-General, was placed on the right of the first regiment; and four companies of infantry, under the command of Lieut.-Col. Henry Millard, sustained the artillery upon the right. Our cavalry, sixty-one in number, commanded by Colonel Mirabeau B. Lamar, whose gallant and daring conduct on the previous day had attracted the admiration of his comrades and called him to that station, placed on our extreme right, completed our line. Our cavalry was first dispatched to the front of the enemy's left, for the purpose of attracting their notice, whilst an extensive island of timber afforded us an opportunity of concentrating our forces and deploying from that point, agreeably to the previous design of the troops. Every evolution was performed with alacrity, the whole advancing rapidly in line and through an open prairie, without any protection whatever for our men. The artillery advanced and took station within two hundred yards of the enemy's breastwork, and commenced an effective fire with grape and canister.

Colonel Sherman with his regiment, having commenced the action upon our left wing, the whole line at the center
and on the right, advancing in double-quick time, rung the war cry, 'Remember the Alamo!' received the enemy's fire and advanced within point blank shot before a piece was discharged from our lines. Our lines advanced without a halt, until they were in possession of the woodland and the breastwork, the right wing of Burleson's and the left of Millard's taking possession of the breastwork: our artillery having gallantly charged up within seventy yards of the enemy's cannon, when it was taken by our troops. The conflict lasted about eighteen minutes from the time of close action until we were in possession of the enemy's encampment, taking one piece of cannon (loaded), four stands of colors, all their camp equipage, stores and baggage. Our cavalry had charged and routed that of the enemy upon the right, and given pursuit to the fugitives, which did not cease until they arrived at the bridge which I have mentioned before, Captain Karnes, always among the foremost in danger, commanding the pursuers. The conflict in the breastwork lasted but a few moments; many of the troops encountered hand to hand, and not having the advantage of bayonets on our side, our riflemen used pieces as war clubs, breaking many of them off at the breech. The rout commenced at half past four, and the pursuit by the main army continued until twilight. A guard was then left in charge of the enemy's encampment, and our army returned with their killed and wounded. In the battle our loss was two killed and twenty-three wounded, six of them mortally. The enemy's loss was 630 killed, among whom was one general officer, four colonels, two lieutenant-colonels, five captains, twelve lieutenants. Wounded: 208, of which were: five colonels, three lieutenant-colonels, two second-lieutenant-colonels, seven captains, one cadet. Prisoners, 730: President-General Santa Anna, General Cós, four colonels, aides to General Santa Anna, and the colonel of the Guerrero battalion are included in the number. General Santa Anna was not taken until the 22nd, and General Cós on yesterday, very few having escaped.

About six hundred muskets, three hundred sabres and two hundred pistols have been collected since the action. Several
hundred mules and horses were taken, and near twelve thousand dollars in specie. For several days previous to the action our troops were engaged in forced marches, exposed to excessive rains, and the additional inconvenience of extremely bad roads, ill-supplied with rations and clothing; yet, amid every difficulty, they bore up with cheerfulness and fortitude, and performed their marches with spirit and alacrity. There was no murmuring.

Previous to and during the action, my staff evinced every disposition to be useful, and were actively engaged in their duties. In the conflict I am assured they demeaned themselves in such manner as proved them worthy members of the Army of San Jacinto. Colonel Thos. J. Rusk, Secretary of War, was on the field. For weeks his services had been highly beneficial to the army; in battle he was on the left wing, where Colonel Sherman's command first encountered and drove the enemy. He bore himself gallantly, and continued his efforts and activity, remaining with the pursuers until resistance ceased.

I have the honor of transmitting herewith a list of all the officers and men who were engaged in the action, which I respectfully request may be published as an act of justice to the individuals. For the commanding general to attempt discrimination as to the conduct of those who commanded in the action, or those who were commanded, would be impossible. Our success in the action is conclusive proof of such daring intrepidity and courage; every officer and man proved himself worthy of the cause in which he battled; while the triumph received a lustre from the humanity which characterized their conduct after victory, and richly entitles them to the admiration and gratitude of their general. Nor should we withhold the tribute of our grateful thanks from that Being who rules the destinies of nations, and has in the time of greatest need enabled us to arrest a powerful invader, whilst devastating our country.

I have the honor to be, with high consideration,

Your obedient servant,

SAM HOUSTON,
Commander-in-Chief

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LIFE WITH THE TEXAS RANGERS

An account of life with the Rangers by Jim Gillett, from his book Six Years with the Texas Rangers

Though formed into military units and officered as a soldier, the ranger is not a military man, for scant attention is paid to military law and precedent. The state furnished food for the men, forage for their horses, ammunition and medical attendance. The ranger himself must furnish his horse, his accoutrements and his arms. There is, then, no uniformity in the matter of dress, for each ranger is free to dress as he pleases and in the garb experience has taught him most convenient for utility and comfort. A ranger, as any other frontiersman or cowboy, usually wears good heavy woolen clothes of any color that strikes his fancy. Some are partial to corduroy suits, while others prefer buckskin. A felt hat of any make and color completes his uniform. While riding, a ranger always wore spurs and very high-heeled boots to prevent his foot from slipping through the stirrup, for both the ranger and the cowboy ride with the stirrup in the middle of the foot. This is safer and less fatiguing on a long ride. For arms, the ranger after 1877 carried a Winchester rifle or carbine, a Colt’s .45 revolver, and a Bowie knife. Two cartridge belts, one for Winchester and one for revolver ammunition, completed his equipment, and so armed he was ready to mount and ride.

“We live in the saddle and the sky is our road,” say the old rangers, and this is literally true. The rangers are perfect centaurs and almost live in the saddle. They take a horse where they will and may arrest or search in any part of the state. There is very little of what a West Point graduate would call drill. A ranger is expected simply to be a good rider and a quick and accurate shot. Every one of them are skilled horsemen and crack shots. No crack cavalryman in any army can mount a horse more quickly or more expertly than a ranger, and he can keep a constant stream of fire pouring from his
carbine when his horse is going at top speed and hit the mark nine times out of ten! Should a ranger drop anything on the ground that he wants he does not even check the speed of his horse, but, bending from the saddle as if he were made of India rubber, he picks up the object in full gallop.

While not on active duty the rangers amuse themselves in various ways. Some play cards, others hunt, while the studious spend their time over books and good literature. Horse racing is popular, and the fastest horse in the company is soon spotted, for the rangers match their mounts one against the other. At night around their camp fires the men are constantly telling stories of their own or some comrade's adventures that put to shame all the inventions of the imaginative fiction writers. But when on duty all this is changed. No pace is too quick, no task too difficult or too hazardous for him. Night and day will the ranger trail his prey, through rain and shine, until the criminal is located and put behind the bars where he will not again molest or disturb peaceful citizens. For bravery and endurance and steadfast adherence to duty at all times the ranger is in a class all to himself. Such was the old ranger, and such is the ranger of today. Is it surprising, then, that I was early attracted to the force and wished to join them in their open, joyous and adventurous life?

**The Killing of Sam Bass**

Bass had decided to rob the bank at Round Rock on Saturday, the 20th. After his gang had eaten dinner in camp Friday evening they saddled their ponies and started over to town to take a last look at the bank and select a route to follow in leaving the place after the robbery. As they left camp Jim Murphy, knowing that the bandits might be set upon at any time, suggested that he stop at May's store in Old Round Rock and get a bushel of corn, as they were out of feed for their horses. Bass, Barnes and Jackson rode on into town, hitched their horses in an alley just back of the bank, passed that
building and made a mental note of its situation. They then went up the main street of the town and entered Copprel's store to buy some tobacco. As the three bandits passed into the store, Deputy Sheriff Moore, who was standing on the sidewalk with Deputy Sheriff Grimes, said he thought one of the newcomers had a pistol.

"I will go in and see," replied Grimes.

"I believe you have a pistol," remarked Grimes, approaching Bass and trying to search him.

"Yes, of course I have a pistol," said Bass. At the words the robbers pulled their guns and killed Grimes as he backed away to the door. He fell dead on the sidewalk. They then turned on Moore and shot him through the lungs as he attempted to draw his weapon.

At the crack of the first pistol shot Dick Ware, who was seated in a barber shop only a few steps away waiting his turn for a shave, rushed into the street and encountered the three bandits just as they were leaving the store. Seeing Ware rapidly advancing on them, Bass and his men fired on the ranger at close range, one of their bullets striking a hitching post within six inches of Ware's head and knocking splinters into his face. This assault never halted Ware for an instant. He was as brave as courage itself and never hesitated to take the most desperate chances when the occasion demanded it. For a few minutes Dick fought the robbers single handed. General Jones, coming up town from the telegraph office, ran into the fight. He was armed with only a small Colt's double action pistol, but threw himself into the fray. Conner and Harold had now come up and joined in the fusillade. The general, seeing the robbers on foot and almost within his grasp, drew in close and urged his men to strain every nerve to capture or exterminate the desperadoes. By this time every man in the town that could secure a gun joined in the fight.

The bandits had now reached their horses, and realizing their situation was critical fought with the energy of despair. If ever a train robber could be called a hero this boy, Frank
Jackson, proved himself one. Barnes was shot down and killed at his feet, Bass was mortally wounded and unable to defend himself or even mount his horse while the bullets continued to pour in from every quarter. With heroic courage, Jackson held the rangers back with his pistol in his right hand while he unhitched Bass' horse with his left and assisted him into the saddle. Then, mounting his own horse, Jackson and his chief galloped out of the jaws of hell itself. In their flight they passed through Old Round Rock, and Jim Murphy, standing in the door of May's store, saw Jackson and Bass go by on the dead run. The betrayal noticed that Jackson was holding Bass, pale and bleeding, in the saddle.
RANCH LIFE IN TEXAS

An excerpt of Harley True Burton's "The History of the J A Ranch" from the Southwestern Historical Quarterly

A ranch "outfit" in the early days consisted of a chuck wagon (and later a hoodlum wagon), cook, wagon boss, horse wrangler, twelve or fifteen cowboys and a remuda. The chuck wagon had a chuck box fitted into the back of it where the end gate should go. The lower part of the chuck box where the pots and pans were carried had a bottom made out of a cowhide. It was known as the "coonie." It also contained shelves and drawers in which the cook placed the "makings" for sour dough biscuits—soda, salt, baking powder, and yeast. Other shelves and drawers were filled with knives, forks, tin cups and plates. There were also places for keeping fresh beef, bacon, beans, canned corn, canned tomatoes, dried fruit, coffee and sugar. The front part of the wagon contained the bedding of the outfit and feed for the chuck wagon horses. A hoodlum wagon, which was added at a later date to the equipment of the outfit, is a wagon in which the bedding of the cowboys and their personal effects are carried. It also carries a large tarpaulin, the chuck, and feed for the hoodlum team.

The "eats" consisted of the above mentioned foods. The cooking was done in the open. Almost everything was cooked in Dutch ovens except the dried fruits, and these were cooked in kettles or buckets hung on an iron bar over the fire.

The wagon boss was the man in charge of the outfit. Everyone took orders from him. He decided where the round-up should be made each day and gave the boys instructions as to how much territory should be covered in making the daily round-up. After the round-up was completed he always worked inside the herd and directed the work.

A cowboy's equipment consisted of a tarpaulin, two "suggins" (comforts), a pair of blankets, a pair of spurs, a bridle,
a saddle, saddle blanket, a lariat, a stake rope, and a hobble rope. He was also furnished a mount which usually consisted of seven horses but sometimes of as many as ten horses.

The remuda consisted of all the horses with the outfit. They were in charge of the horse wrangler, who looked after them day and night. He usually rounded the horses up three times a day. Once early in the morning, once at the wagon, and then again late in the afternoon. The first time they were rounded up in the morning was near where the round-up for the day was to be so that the boys could change from their round-up horses to their cutting horses. The second time, they were rounded up at the wagon at noon so the boys could change horses again. Late in the afternoon they were rounded up again so the boys could change horses or catch their horse to be staked for the night. Each time the horse wrangler rounded them up in a small bunch so that a rope corral could be placed around them and the two oldest boys could rope the horse they wanted. A rope corral consisted of lariat ropes tied together until they reached around the whole herd of horses. A horse never attempted to get outside this rope corral before he was roped, because he had been trained early by being forced to run over a rope which was stretched tightly about two feet above the ground. A few contacts with the rope gave the animal some hard falls as well as rope burns, which he did not readily forget.
SOME TYPICAL CATTLE BRANDS

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TEXAS

An excerpt from Texas by Ferdinand von Roemer, a German scientist who came to Texas in 1845 and explored the settled area of the Republic

On the morning of January 17, I heard the popping noise of the high pressure engine of a steamboat coming from Galveston. It landed at a signal from us and a few moments later after a hasty but hearty farewell from my affable host, I found myself on the way to Houston, next to Galveston, the most important city of Texas. The trip offered nothing of interest. The bay became narrower and the water shallow. We entered Buffalo Bayou at the approach of darkness. This prevented me from seeing the beautiful magnolia trees which grow along its bank. When I awoke on the following morning and came upon deck, our steamboat was lying in the quiet water of the river, which was confined to its bed by banks thirty to forty feet high. Several large, dilapidated buildings resembling storage sheds stood on top of the bank. A little beyond them many frame buildings were visible. On the landing place, which was but an incline cut into the bank, a number of negroes with two-wheeled carts, drawn by one horse, were waiting to transport the baggage of the travelers to the hotels.

I turned my trunk over to one of the waiting negroes and started on foot to the "Capitol," which was the high sounding name of the reputedly best hotel in town. As soon as I had climbed the rather steep, slippery incline, I found myself on a straight street. Its width left no room for doubt; I was on the principal street of Houston. The houses were all of frame construction, similar in style to those of Galveston; however, everything looked somewhat dilapidated and less tidy than there. Nearly every house on Main Street was a store.

The streets were unpaved and the mud bottomless. An embankment had been thrown up on both sides of the street to serve as a sidewalk, but at the intersections one had to
leave it and trust one's self to the black mud where bottom was found at a depth of six inches. As a result of this condition, I found justification in the fact that everybody, even the elegantly dressed gentlemen, stuffed their trouser legs into their boots.

I finally reached the hotel which was situated at the extreme end of the street. It was a rather pretentious two-story building, but like most of the houses which I had seen so far, showed unmistakable signs of neglect. The interior was worse and many signs indicated that I had reached the borders of civilization.

On a level with the ground was a rather large room with white walls. In the middle of this room was an iron stove, but otherwise it lacked all comforts, since the furniture consisted of only a few chairs, some of which were broken. A number of men, evidently farmers, clad mostly in coarse, woolen blanket-coats of the brightest colors — red, white and green — stood around the stove, engaged in lively conversation. The main topic of their conversation was the news of the annexation of Texas to the United States. In a corner of the room lay baggage of all kinds on the ground. The large brass-lined trunks, in common use throughout America, had as yet not made their appearance here. In their stead, leather saddle bags and, in general, light baggage suitable for traveling on horseback were in evidence.

A little later my host whispered to me that he had another room in the rear of the house which offered more conveniences. He evidently noticed that I felt rather uncomfortable in these crude surroundings which were not improved by the circumstance that the inmates were continually expectorating tobacco juice. He led me into a rather respectable parlor on the floor of which was a carpet, a rocking chair (the inevitable requisite of American comfort) and — what I considered most important, since it had turned cold in the morning — a fireplace in which a cheerful fire was burning. Also the small number of guests were evidently more refined and outwardly more polished. Instead of the coarse blanket-coat, made of woolen horse-blankets,
the black frockcoat was worn, the universal mark of the American gentleman. The existence of this room, into which the occupants of the former, as if by agreement, never set foot is after all but an admission, that despite the doctrine of the equality of man promulgated in America, some concessions are made to the man of culture. . . .

Several more travelers arrived from the interior during the course of the day. They assured us that the whole prairie as far as the Brazos was under water. The creeks and bayous also had overflowed their banks and could be crossed only by swimming. A mounted company had crossed them three times in this manner and another company five times.

These overflows occur every spring in the coastal region and disrupt communication with the interior almost entirely, or make travel very difficult. The only means of travel during such a time is on horseback. Traffic with ox-carts and horse-drawn wagons ceases almost entirely. To remedy this situation, elevated roads with ditches on both sides and bridges at certain points, would have to be built. But who would be able to build and maintain such roads in a thinly settled country, where farms are often a half-day's journey apart? Another chief obstacle, however, is the absence of road building material.

In the entire level plains of Texas no rock is found. That found in the hilly parts of the State is not suitable for road building, as far as I know. However, good, suitable material is found where the settlements end and the Indian country begins, i.e., north of San Antonio, New Braunfels and Austin. Up to this time, road building was confined chiefly to indicating the directions between important points; to fell trees along the river banks where necessary, to lower the inclines at the fords; and to install ferries at the larger rivers. . . .

The location and general aspect of New Braunfels is very pleasing, and in all of Western Texas no more beautiful and suitable spot could have been chosen for a settlement. It is at the same time also distinctly different from other places found in Texas or other parts of North America.
The city lies on a small, treeless plain, about one-half mile wide and one and one-half miles long. It is bounded on the south by gently rising hills; on the east by the Guadalupe River; and on the north and northwest by Comal Creek. A steep hill, about four hundred feet high, rises just across the Comal and extends in a northeasterly direction. It distinguishes itself on account of its precipitous slope and sharp outlines from the low, gently rounded hills, seen when traveling from Houston across the country. A dense forest covers the slope of this hill, but the trees do not have the verdant green of those found in the bottoms, but are of a dark, olive green color. These are the red cedars (*Juniperus Virginiana* L.) which are found singly among other trees in the lowlands of Texas, but nowhere forming a continuous forest of their own.

The Guadalupe, flowing east of the city, is a stream about thirty paces wide, abounding in water which runs rapidly and tempestuously in its rocky bed, due to its considerable fall. Unlike other streams and creeks of the low coastal country, its water is pure and clear, almost excelling that of an Alpine stream. A narrow strip of forest, scarcely classed as bottom, confines the river to its bed. The Comal, which has an equal volume of water but which excels the former in the clearness of its water and the luxuriant growth of trees on its banks, forms a junction with the Guadalupe above the city. The Comal owes its existence to the confluence of the Comal Springs and the Comal Creek which takes place near New Braunfels. The unexcelled beautiful Comal Spring has its source at the base of a mountain range, hardly a half mile distant from the city. The Comal Creek has its source about ten miles southwest of New Braunfels in several unimportant springs.

The city, or correctly stated, the hamlet New Braunfels is laid out according to a regular plan. All streets cross at right angles and the principal streets converge at the market square.

This plan was not much in evidence when I arrived in New Braunfels, because the houses, instead of adjoining one another, appeared to be scattered at irregular distances over the
entire plain. Only the principal street, the so-called Seguin Street, could be distinguished quite well, for although houses were not built on both sides, still the townlots, containing about one-half acre each, were enclosed by fences. Every immigrant present at the founding of the colony had received such a lot.

The houses were of diverse architecture as everyone was allowed to follow his own taste and inclination. Besides, most people had no idea as to which particular type of construction was most suited to the climate. As a result, some houses were of logs, some were of studding framework filled in with brick, some were frame, while others were huts with walls made of cedar posts driven vertically into the ground like the posts of a stockade. The roofs, instead of being covered with the customary wooden shingles found throughout America, were covered with tent canvas or a couple of oxhides. Most of the houses followed the American style of roofed-in porch. These porches are almost indispensable in a warm climate as they keep the direct rays of the sun away from the interior of the house, as well as afford a cool, airy room for the performance of the various household duties. Most of the houses lacked a fireplace, although a fireplace is a necessity for the American farmer during the cold northerners in winter, and no American house is without one. Since most of the houses were built in the summer time, the need for heating was remote. In addition to this, the building of a suitable fireplace required a dexterity which the German colonist did not possess.

At the time of my arrival in New Braunfels, there were probably eighty to one hundred such houses and huts to be found there. How rapidly this number was augmented during the same year I was in Texas, I will have occasion to mention later. Several families were packed into one house, no matter how small it was. The interior of such a house, where men, women and children were cooped up with their unpacked chests and boxes, often looked like the steerage of an immigrant ship. . . .
[After a brief stay in New Braunfels, Roemer made a trip to Torrey's Trading Post, located east of the Brazos River near present Waco. He gives an interesting account of this section of the Texas frontier.]

In the afternoon of the following day we left this farthest settlement on the Brazos (which evidently was not in a prosperous and growing condition) in order to reach Torrey's Trading Post, about twenty miles distant. Just north of this place the character of this country changes. The ground rose to higher elevations and instead of dense forests, we saw extensive prairies covered with mesquite trees, but now and then we also passed oak groves. In general the topography of the country assumes the appearance of the region between Austin and New Braunfels. Toward the west one can see the level wooded bottom of the Brazos extending for miles.

We, however, did not quite reach our destination on this day, but camped in the open prairie several miles this side, in order not to lose our way in the darkness. Our horses found excellent food under the mesquite trees, but we, ourselves, were entertained before going to sleep by the beautiful spectacle of a prairie fire. Like a sparkling diamond necklace, the strip of flame, a mile long, raced along over hill and dale, now moving slowly, now faster, now flickering brightly, now growing dim. We could the more enjoy this spectacle undisturbed, since the direction of the wind kept it from approaching us. My companion was of the opinion that Indians had without doubt started the fire, since they do this often to drive the game in a certain direction, and also to expedite the growth of the grass by burning off the dry grass.

On the following morning after a short ride of a few miles, on rounding a corner of the forest, we suddenly saw the trading post before us. It lay on a hill covered with oak trees, two miles distant from the Brazos, above the broad forested bottom of Tohawacony Creek. The entire layout consisted of from six
to seven log houses built in the simple customary style out of rough, unhewn logs. These houses were not surrounded by palisades, as are those of the trading companies on the Missouri, neither do they contain any other protective enclosures. The safety of this trading post against possible Indian attacks is founded rather on its usefulness, in fact its necessity to the Indians.

The largest of the log houses contained the pelts received in trade from the Indians. Buffalo robes or buffalo rugs and the hides of the common American deer (Cervus Virginianus L.) formed by far the greatest number of hides. Some of the buffalo skins are brought to the trading post entirely raw, some are tanned inside only, and very often they are painted more or less artistically. Their value depends upon the size, the uniformity of the fur, and also upon the artistic paintings on the inside. The hides of average quality were sold in Houston for three dollars, and the fancy ones for from eight to ten dollars. Most of them are shipped to the Northern States, also to Canada, where they are used for covers in sleds or for wagon seats. Leather is not made out of the skins since it is too porous and not compact enough.

The number of buffalo skins brought annually for trade from the western prairies of North America is estimated to be over 100,000. The number of animals killed for sport or just for their meat is no doubt much larger for hardly half of the year is suited for the treating of skins. Diminished annually in such considerable numbers brings home the thought that their extermination is not far distant. The huge expanse over which they are scattered is no argument, as Gregg correctly observes, against the accepted fact of their imminent total extinction, especially when one takes into consideration that they have already disappeared entirely from a large portion of the continent which they formerly inhabited. Old settlers, still living, recall that the buffalo was almost equally plentiful east of the Mississippi in Kentucky, Indiana, etc., as he is now on the prairies between the western boundary of Missouri and Arkan-

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sas and the mountain range, and according to historical data it is certain that he once inhabited the Atlantic coast.

Another log house contained the goods which the Indians receive in exchange for the articles they bring. The most important of these are: woolen blankets, coarse woolen cloth (called strouging) colored especially scarlet and blue, used in manufacturing breech-clouts, printed calico for shirts, also thick copper wire to serve as ornaments for arms and legs, knives, glass beads, powder, lead, tobacco, etc.

The remaining log houses contained the dwellings for the various persons who resided at the trading post. At the present time these consisted of an agent in the employ of the Torrey brothers who knew how to trade with Indians; furthermore a gunsmith appointed by the government who repaired the guns of the Indians with which at least a number were provided; and finally an old trapper or fur hunter who on account of gout and rheumatism had become unfit for that sort of life. He had recently made this his home in order to be as near as possible to the wilderness, the scene of his former joys and deeds, and as far as possible away from the hated civilization. This old trapper was ever eager to relate to anyone who would listen, the tales of his lonesome beaver hunts in the mountain region and other incomparable charms of a trapper's life.

In addition there was also an Indian whose duty it was to beat the pelts in order to rid them of insects. To watch this one at work always furnished me entertaining amusement, for his face betrayed with each lick how the performing of such menial work for the pale faces was repulsive to his national inclination for laziness and his consciousness of Indian dignity.

Finally there were two Mexican boys, seven and nine years old, previously mentioned. These had been captured about a year and a half ago, from the Mexican settlement on the Rio Grande and had since then lived among the Comanches until recently when they were brought by them to the trading post.
for sale. The kind-hearted owners of the post had ransomed
them. . . .

In addition to the persons mentioned there was also an-
other agent in the employ of the government (a so-called In-
dian Agent) who maintained regular quarters at the trading
post but who at the time of my visit happened to be on a
trip. This agent was well versed in the languages and customs
of the various tribes whom he visited from time to time, serv-
ing as interpreter in concluding contracts and peace treaties.
He also informs the government of their wishes and needs.

The mode of living on this outer fringe of civilization is
in harmony with the wilderness and primitiveness of the sur-
roundings.

Dried buffalo meat, smoked buffalo tongue, considered a
delicacy in the civilized parts of the United States, bacon,
honey and bread were considered the choicest food. A pile of
buffalo hides formed an excellent bed.

Already on the second day of our arrival a small Indian
band chanced to arrive in order to trade. To see the long train,
resembling a caravan, appear on the hill on which the trading
post stood, presented a picturesque and fascinating sight for
a European. According to Indian custom, they rode single file,
the men in advance, dressed in their best, looking about, dig-
nified and grave; the lively squaws following, sitting astride
like the men, each usually carrying a black-eyed little papoose
on her back and another in front of the saddle. At the same
time they kept a watchful eye on the pack horses which carried
the skins and the various household goods. A halt was made
near the houses and immediately the herds, numbering three to
four hundred, some of which we were able to approach so near,
that had it been our desire, we could easily have shot several. On
another occasion, however, we saw them pass by on the run,
probably, because they had been disturbed by the Indians.

Our road, only an indistinct Indian trail, led us over open,
level prairies throughout the day. These prairies were covered
with excellent tender grass and here and there with scattered
mesquite trees. Several clear brooks irrigated the land. The fertility of the soil and the high elevation which appears to exclude certain causes of local diseases, will no doubt invite the settlers and human habitations will soon be found here.

The subsoil throughout this region is a white chalk-marl of like quality as that found in Austin, New Braunfels and especially prevalent in western Texas. At the crossings over several small brooks this rock formation was well exposed and I observed in it numerous fossils, which do not leave any doubt as to its age.

After a ride of about thirty miles we saw, toward sundown, from the top of a hill, the destination of our excursion—the Caddo Indian village lying before us. A more suitable and pleasant place could not have been selected by the red sons of the wilderness. The village lies in the center of a plain two miles long which on the one side is bordered by the wooded banks of the Brazos and on the other by steep precipitous hills. A beautiful clear creek flows diagonally through this plain on a smooth bed of limestone and along its banks are several large live oaks. The huts of the Indians stood on both sides of this creek in picturesque disorder and near each was a cornfield. Between the hills from which we looked down and the village proper, about a thousand head of horses were grazing in the plain, among which a number of naked, long haired Indian boys rode back and forth yelling. Thereupon we descended to the village. At the various huts which we passed we were welcomed in a friendly manner by the inmates, as my companion was well known to all of them. We, however, refused the repeated invitation to sleep in one of their huts, for eager though I was to learn something first hand about the Indian home life, we dreaded that close contact with the pesky little insect world, which inhabits every Indian dwelling. We preferred spreading our blankets under a live oak on the banks of the creek. Before we lay down to sleep, we were visited by several Indian squaws who brought us watermelons as a present, and who received glass beads from us in return.
TEXAS AND ITS EMBLEMS

THE STATE FLAG. The rich heritage of our state is reflected in our flag, first adopted by the Third Congress of the Republic on January 25, 1839. It is the only flag of the United States that was once recognized by foreign governments as being the flag of a sovereign nation. The Texas flag consists of a single white star in a perpendicular field of blue, with two horizontal fields—white on top and red below. The nickname of Texas, "Lone Star State," is derived from our flag.

THE STATE SEAL. Also reflecting the symbolic Lone Star is our official state seal, "a star of five points, encircled by olive and live oak branches, and the words, 'The State of Texas.'"

THE STATE MOTTO. Our state has officially adopted the motto, "Friendship," in recognition of the fact that our state's name stems from the word tejas, a Caddo Indian word meaning friends or allies.

THE STATE FLOWER, BIRD, AND TREE. In 1901 the Twenty-seventh Legislature officially recognized the bluebonnet as the state flower. Then in 1927 the Fortieth Legislature proclaimed the mockingbird to be the state bird. About this time also the pecan tree officially was chosen to be the state tree; sentiment says it was selected because Gov. James S. Hogg requested that one be planted at his grave.

THE STATE HOLIDAYS. Our state observes two official state holidays: Independence Day, March 2; and San Jacinto Day, April 21. In addition, there are several special observance days.

THE STATE SONG. "Texas, Our Texas," the official state song, was composed by William J. Marsh and Gladys Y. Wright of Fort Worth. It was adopted by the Legislature in 1929 as the result of a statewide contest. Many people think that "The Eyes of Texas" is the state song, but it is the official song of the University of Texas. To help you learn it, the complete words and music of "Texas, Our Texas" follow.
Texas, Our Texas

Words by
GLADYS YOAKUM WRIGHT
and WILLIAM J. MARSH

Texas, our Texas! All hail the mighty State! Texas, our Texas!
Texas, O Texas! Your free-born single Star, Sends out its radiance to
Texas, dear Texas! From tyrant grip now free, Shines forth in splendor Your

wonderful so great! Bold and grand and stand supreme billion,
region near and far, Emblems of Freedom! It sets our hearts a-
Star of Destiny! Mother of Heroes! We come your children

test; O Empire wide and glorious, You stand supreme and true,
glow. With thoughts of San Jacinto And glorious Alamo.
Proclaiming our allegiance Our Faith Our Love for you.

God bless you Texas! And keep you brave and strong. That
you may grow in power and worth, Thro'out the ages long.

God bless you Texas! And keep you brave and strong. That you may grow in

power and worth Thro'out the ages long.
Selected Bibliography

The works included in this bibliography represent, in addition to the sources listed in the text, a variety of reading materials that can be utilized by the teachers of Texas history to bring color and interest to what too often becomes a factual course of study noted in the main for its aridity. The books below have been chosen with student interest as the primary consideration. Several of the items on the list are rare or scarce books; however, with the copying aids now available to libraries, no book is impossible to obtain.

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Learn the names and locations of the rivers of Texas. You will need this information throughout the course.

SPANISH PLACE NAMES

*Los Brazos de Dios.* The Arms of God. This river is now called the Brazos. The Spaniards were always imaginative in their
spurred the Spanish to action. You will learn about this later.

Routes of Early Explorers in Texas
Indian Tribes and Locations

gent, and civilized. They had permanent homes and permanent settlements, and they engaged in agriculture. Among the farm products they raised were beans, watermelons, corn, nuts, and berries. One of
all. On June 4, 1825, Austin received permission to bring in and settle five hundred additional families on the vacant lands of his first contract. A contract for one hundred families was granted him two years later. This time the families were to be settled east
part of David G. Burnet, the president of the *ad interim* government, forms an important link between those hectic days and the present.

David G. Burnet was president during the most unhappy months of the Republic. He was chosen, as you recall, to try
TERRITORY CLAIMED BY TEXAS
FRONTIER FORTS AND CATTLE TRAILS

1  Fort Worth  9  Fort Ringgold  17  Fort McKavett
2  Fort Graham 10  Fort Brown  18  Fort Terrett
3  Fort Gates 11  Fort Richardson  19  Fort Clark
4  Fort Croghan 12  Fort Belknap  20  Fort Stockton
5  Fort Martin Scott 13  Fort Griffin  21  Fort Davis
6  Fort Inge 14  Fort Phantom Hill  22  Fort Bliss
7  Fort Duncan 15  Fort Chadbourn  
8  Fort McIntosh 16  Fort Concho

FRONTIER FORTS AND CATTLE TRAILS