The Alamo

Remembering Through Education

Mapping Texas History
Colonization To Statehood

The Alamo
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INTRODUCTION TO SECOND EDITION

The Alamo's Texas Maps for Teachers recognizes that history and geography are inseparable. This project was conceived after listening to teachers voice their concerns that current maps detailing Texas early history were inadequate for their needs. These new maps have been designed by educators for educators. A textual description for each map was written by Dr. Richard B. Winders, Historian & Curator for the Alamo. Dr. Donald S. Frazier, Professor of History at McMurry University in Abilene, Texas, produced the maps. The two educators have worked together on other projects for publishers Houghton Mifflin and Macmillan Reference.

Texas Maps for Teachers has several different uses:

- It is a supplemental reader for teachers unfamiliar with Texas History.
- The comprehensive overview of important events and themes should be useful to any teacher.
- Overhead transparencies of the maps it can be produced for use in the classroom by scanning them into a computer and printing them onto commercially available transparency film.
- Used in combination with the textual descriptions, Texas Maps for Teachers can be used as a mini-textbook for Texas history from 1700 through 1850.

The Alamo would like to thank several individuals who contributed their time by reviewing and commenting on this project at various stages. Dr. Ron Tyler, Executive Director of the Texas State Historical Association, offered valuable suggestions that were incorporated into the text and maps. Two teacher in San Antonio's North East Independent School District provided input from their respective grade levels: Barbara Yost, Windcrest Elementary School and Michael Bailey, Omar N. Bradley Middle School.

Funding for this important project was generously provided by the San Antonio Conservation Society

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The image of American Indians is often based on what we see in movies or read in fictional accounts about the early settlement of the nation. The typical representation of an Indian has been a warrior armed with bow and arrow, mounted on horseback in front of a teepee, preparing to ride off to hunt buffalo. While it is true that this image fits some Indians who lived on the plains during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, it does not accurately depict all Indian groups by any means. Indian culture was as varied as the different number of tribes. These differences were often based on environmental factors.

Indians living in areas with abundant rainfall and fertile soil often lived a sedentary existence, meaning that they stayed in more or less permanent settlements. This was because food was plentiful, at least during certain times of the year. Just as importantly, surplus food could be preserved and stored for use during times of scarcity. Forests, coasts, and river valleys are the types of geographic setting best suited to encourage a sedentary lifestyle.

Prairies and plains do not support sedentary lifestyles unless a society is highly developed. Although prairie grasses and other plants thrive in the wet spring months, vegetation is often scarce the rest of the year. Animals such as buffalo naturally roamed the prairies and plains in search of grasses and other edible plants. Indians who lived in these areas traveled too, following the vast herds on their annual migrations. People who moved from place to place following migrating animals are called nomads and live a nomadic lifestyle.

The life of all Texas Indians was changed with the arrival of the Spanish. Many of the sedentary tribes, who already lived in settled communities and practiced agriculture, were brought into the system of Spanish missions that later dotted the land. Life for the nomadic Indians of North America was revolutionized when the Spanish introduced horses and European firearms. The adoption of the horse into their culture meant that nomadic Indians, who once traveled on foot, had a much more efficient form of transportation. The horse enabled them to travel farther and faster than ever before. The horse, combined with European firearms acquired from the Spanish and the French, enabled the nomadic tribes of Texas to become great hunters and fierce warriors.
Indians in Texas 1763-1821

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
The mission was an institution designed to civilize frontier regions. Spanish officials established missions throughout South America, Central America, and North America. In theory, the line of missions was supposed to advance every few years as indigenous people were converted into Spanish subjects. In many areas, however, the mission line became fixed as missionaries encountered harsh terrain and fierce nomadic tribes.

The mission had several goals: (1) Christianize indigenous tribes; (2) introduce Spanish culture to frontier regions; and (3) teach mission Indians (neophytes) European crafts & skills. When successful, these goals turned mission converts into Spanish subjects. The Indian converts, or neophytes as they were called, became members of Spain's officially recognized religion by accepting the Catholic faith. Missionaries and neophytes were supposed to be self-sufficient, growing crops in the mission fields and raising livestock on mission ranch lands. Each mission had its own church, granary, living quarters, and workshops. The Indian converts were taught to speak Spanish, learned how to raise sheep, cattle and horses, as well as to plant and harvest crops according to European practice.

Mission activity in Texas occurred along the Rio Grande, Texas-Louisiana border, San Antonio River, San Gabriel River, and the San Saba River. Spain's Texas missions had an importance beyond just gaining converts - they were a response to fear that the French might occupy Texas unless Spain could strengthen its claim. Forts, called presidios, were usually built in the vicinity of a mission or cluster of missions in order to provide protection from the French and nomadic raiders.

The need for missions gradually declined, leading to their closure. The unsuccessful attempt in the 1680s by La Salle to establish Fort St. Louis in Matagorda Bay ended France's threat to Spanish Texas. Shortly thereafter the missions in east Texas were shut down. The Spanish found that some places were too dangerous to maintain missions. For instance, in 1758, Comanches and their allies destroyed Santa Cruz de San Sabá. By the end of the 1700s, few new converts were being brought into the missions. Those Indians who had either been converted or had been born at the missions were considered Spanish subjects. Thus, Spanish officials ordered the Texas missions closed.

Historians debate the effectiveness of the mission as a frontier institution. Some view the mission as a coercive force that forever disrupted the lifestyle of indigenous people. Others believe missions served as a haven for weaker tribes hard pressed by their more war-like neighbors. Few can doubt, however, that the missions were successful in spreading Spanish culture wherever they were built.
Missions and Presidios in Texas
1718–1793

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.

PRESIDIOS

† Missions
Learning Objectives

4th Grade TEKS: 4.2A & C; 4.6B; 4.8A & B; 4.21B & C; 4.22

7th Grade TEKS: 7.1A & C; 7.2C & F; 7.8; 7.9; 7.11A; 7.19C; 7.21; 7.22, 7.23

San Antonio actually began as several separate communities that eventually grew together into one town. These early communities represented the seats of Spanish civil, religious, and military power. Situated near the headwaters of the river with the same name, San Antonio has played a major role in Texas history.

Mission San Antonio de Valero. Founded by Franciscan missionary Father Antonio de San Buenaventura y Olivares on May 1, 1718, Valero was the first of the local communities to be officially established. In 1724, the mission was relocated to its present site along the east bank of the San Antonio River after two previous sites proved unsatisfactory. Its population of converts peaked in 1756 at 328. Epidemics and competition from the area's other four missions forced Valero's closure in 1793. By 1803, the public buildings had been turned over to the Second Flying Company of San Carlos de Parras for use as army barracks.

Presidio San Antonio de Béxar. Founded on May 5, 1718, by the governor of Coahuila y Tejas, Martín de Alarcón, the fort was intended to provide support and protection for Mission San Antonio de Valero. Originally located on a temporary site, the fort was relocated to what would become known as the Military Plaza. The level of the garrison fluctuated from 7 to 80 men at different times in its existence. The fort took on added responsibility with the establishment of four more missions downstream from San Antonio de Valero. After 1772, the town served as the capital of Spanish Texas, with the garrison commander serving as governor of the province. The site's importance declined after 1803 when a decision was made to transfer the troops to new quarters at the then empty buildings of former Mission Valero.

Villa de Béxar. Founded by Alarcón on May 5, 1718, Villa de Béxar was intended to serve as home to civilian settlers who came to the area. The community failed to grow due to the lack of immigrants.

La Villita. The area south of Valero became the residential community for the families of the soldiers of Presidio San Antonio de Béxar. Settlement there began around 1722.

San Fernando de Béxar. Founded in 1731, San Fernando de Béxar finally represented a viable civilian population in the area. Spanish officials, unable to recruit settlers from Mexico, promised residents of the Canary Islands land, titles, and other benefits in exchange for settling in Texas. Arriving on March 9, 1731, the party consisted of 15 families that numbered a total of 56 men, women, and children. The area known as the Civil Plaza, on which San Fernando Church was located, served as the administrative center for the villa.
Mexico erupted into revolt in the early hours of September 16, 1810, when Father Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla issued his famous revolutionary call, *El Grito de Dolores*. The movement quickly spread throughout Mexico, even reaching the frontier town of San Antonio de Béxar. On January 22, 1811, residents of Béxar, led by Juan Bautista de las Casas, seized and imprisoned Governor Manuel María de Salcedo and his staff. A counter coup on March 2, 1811, restored Royalist rule and resulted in Casas' trial and execution. The seeds of revolution, however, had been sown in Texas.

Later that year Mexican revolutionaries sent José Bernardo Gutiérrez de Lara to the United States to gain support for a military campaign against the Royalists in Texas. Gutiérrez found U.S. officials in Washington, D.C. receptive. Traveling to Louisiana, he formed a partnership with Augustus W. Magee, a lieutenant in the U.S. Army who resigned his commission to lead the proposed expedition into Texas. In August 1812, Gutiérrez and Magee crossed the Sabine River and captured Nacogdoches. Governor Salcedo marshaled Royalists troops to combat the incursion, but he was largely unsuccessful in halting its advance. Unable to defeat Gutiérrez, Magee and the Republican Army of the North, the name given to the combined force of American and Mexican revolutionaries, at La Bahía (Goliad), Salcedo and his followers fell back toward Béxar.

Samuel Kemper, who assumed military command of the expedition following the mysterious death of Magee, encountered the Royalist army outside Béxar on Salado Creek. The Republican Army defeated the Royalists and captured Salcedo and other high ranking Spanish officials. Gutiérrez' approval of the brutal execution of Salcedo and 14 of his officers angered and sickened Kemper and many of the American participants of the expedition, who quit and returned to the United States. From April to August, Béxar remained under Republican control as Gutiérrez' men took up residence in former Mission San Antonio de Valero.

Spain had been working hard to stamp out the revolution sweeping Mexico. In August 1813, General Joaquín de Arredondo led a column of Spanish troops into Texas to reassert Spanish authority. The Republican Army of the North, now under the command of two new leaders, José Álvarez de Toledo y Dubois and Reuben Ross, marched out of Béxar to meet Arredondo. On August 18, 1813, Arredondo defeated the Republican Army of the North at the Battle of the Medina, dealing the revolt in Texas a deathblow. One young Spanish officer serving under Arredondo, Lieutenant Antonio López de Santa Anna, would return to Texas in 1836 at the head of the Mexican Army to put down another revolt - the Texas Revolution.
**THE GUTIÉRREZ–MAGEE EXPEDITION**
1812–1813

- Insurgents cross the Sabine August 8, 1812
- Insurgents capture Nacogdoches August 12, 1812
- Insurgents rally and gain recruits September 1812
- Republicans capture La Bahía November 7, 1812
- Royalists fail to recapture La Bahía, February 10–13, 1813
- Royalists soundly defeated at the Battle of Rosillo (Salado), March 29, 1813
- Republicans capture San Antonio April 1, 1813
- Royalists soundly defeated at the Battle of Alazán, June 20, 1813
- Insurgent army destroyed at the Battle of the Medina August 18, 1813
- Governor Salcedo and fourteen Royalist officials executed, April 5, 1813
- Royalists soundly defeated at the Battle of Rosillo (Salado), March 29, 1813
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Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
Although often brushed aside as an unimportant event, the Adams-Onís Treaty (also called the Transcontinental Treaty) played a significant role in the history of Texas. At one time Spain claimed much of the Gulf Coast of North America, including what eventually became the states of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. By the end of the 18th century, however, Spain’s once powerful position in the world had greatly diminished. Soon after the former British colonies won their independence, settlers from the United States began challenging Spanish officials for control of its territory bordering the Gulf of Mexico.

Unable to prevent the flow of Americans into this region, Spanish officials looked for a diplomatic solution to this pressing problem. The result was a treaty negotiated between the United States and Spain by U.S. Secretary of State John Quincy Adams and Spanish Minister Luis de Onís. Realizing that the struggle to retain Spain’s territory east of the Mississippi was futile, Onís concentrated on saving Spanish Texas. According to the treaty, Spain agreed to give up West and East Florida to the United States in return for that country’s promise to renounce its claim to Texas. Texas appeared to be firmly in Spanish hands once the Adams-Onís Treaty was formally exchanged on February 22, 1821.

Events beyond Spain’s control rendered the treaty irrelevant. On February 24, 1821, two days after it went into effect, Agustín Iturbide, a Spanish officer, and Vicente Guerrero, a Mexican rebel commander, agreed to join forces and work for Mexico’s independence from Spain. Under their direction, Mexico severed its ties with Spain and declared itself a separate nation. Thus Spain lost not only the Floridas but Mexico as well.

Mexico wished to keep the Adams-Onís Treaty, as it set the border between Coahuila y Texas at the Sabine River. Manuel de Mier y Terán's inspection tour of Texas in 1828-29 was carried out in part to mark this boundary specified by the treaty.

The Adams-Onís Treaty had been unpopular in the United States because expansionists were sure possession of the Floridas was a foregone conclusion and that the settlement of Texas would certainly follow. Critics of the treaty claimed that Texas had been a part of the Louisiana Purchase in 1803 and that Adams had given it away in his agreement with Onís. This idea helped pave the way for American immigration to Texas. The charge against Adams surfaced again in the presidential election of 1844 when the Democratic Party campaigned with the promise to “re-annex” Texas to the United States.
MAP NO. 6: EMPRESARIO COLONIES IN TEXAS, 1824-1835

Learning Objectives

4th Grade TEKS: 4.2E; 4.6B; 4.8A & B; 4.14B; 4.21B & C; 4.22

7th Grade TEKS: 7.1A; 7.2D, E & F; 7.8; 7.9; 7.11A & B; 7.21; 7.22, 7.23

The process of colonizing Texas with foreigners began in the last days of Spanish rule and was continued by officials of the new Mexican nation. While many grants were issued prior to 1835, the three most successful colonies were those of Stephen F. Austin, Martín de León, and Green Dewitt. Many of the grants existed on paper only as their agents were unable to fulfill the terms of the contract by attracting settlers. Austin's map of Texas, which showed the location of proposed colonies, represented the region in the best possible light. In reality, Comanches and other nomadic tribes controlled the upper Nueces, Guadalupe, Colorado, Brazos, and Trinity rivers, with colonial settlements actually clustered south and west of a line between San Antonio de Béxar and Nacogdoches.

Several laws regulated the establishment of colonies by contractors called empresarios. The following are some of their more important articles:

**Imperial Colonization Law Decree**

January 4, 1823

Art. 1. The government of the Mexican nation will protect the liberty, property, and civil rights of all foreigners, who profess the Roman Catholic apostolic religion, the established religion of the empire.

Art. 3. The empresarios, by whom is understood those who introduce at least two hundred families, shall previously contract with the executive, and inform it what branch of industry they propose to follow, the property or resources they intend to introduce . . . .

**National Colonization Law**

August 18, 1824

Art. 6. Until after four years from the publication of this law, there shall not be imposed any tax whatever, on the entrance of the persons of foreigners, who come to establish themselves for the first time in the nation.

Art. 14. This law guarantees the contracts which the empresarios made with their families which they bring at their own expense, provided they are not contrary to the laws.

**Colonization Law for the State of Coahuila and Texas**

March 24, 1825

Art. 1. All Foreigners, who in virtue of the general law, of the 18th August, 1824, which guarantees the security or their persons and property, in the territory of the Mexican Nation, wish to remove to any of the settlements of the state of Coahuila and Texas, are at liberty to do so; and the said State invites and calls them.

Art. 8. The projects for new settlements in which one or more persons offer to bring at their expertise, one hundred or more families, shall be presented to the government, and if found conformable with this law, they will be admitted; and the government will immediately designate to the contractors, the land where they are to establish themselves, and the term of six years, within which, they must present the number of families they contracted for, under the penalty of losing the rights and privileges offered in their favor, in proportion to the number of families which they fail to introduce, and the contract totally annulled if they do not bring at least one hundred families.

Art. 9. Contracts made by the contractors or undertakers, Empresarios, with the families brought at their expense, are guaranteed by this law, so far as they are conformable with its provisions.
Travelers coming to Texas in the early 19th century used one of the following modes of transportation: foot, horseback, wagon, steamboat, or sailing ship. Roads were often little more than narrow pathways through great expanses of forests or prairies. Bridges were nonexistent and travelers had either to ford rivers or use canoes or barges to ferry themselves and their cargoes across. Rain turned roads into bogs and rivers into impassable barriers. Travel during this period of time was trying even under the best of circumstances.

Travelers coming overland to Texas passed either through Arkansas or Louisiana. People with access to ports, such as New Orleans, could journey to Texas by ship. The Guide to Texas Emigrants, by David Woodman (1835) offered this advice to travelers:

The best mode of conveyance is by vessels sailing direct to Galveston Bay; whence, by means of the rivers, the settler may be easily transported to almost every part of the colony. Those who prefer it, can go from New Orleans to Nachitoches on the Red river, in the steamboat, and thence by land, following the road, 50 miles, through Cantonment Jessup, to the Sabine river, the border of the colony, thence to Nacogdoches, about 60 miles further into the heart of it.

Galveston Bay was fed by the Trinity and San Jacinto rivers. Other places where ships landed were Velasco, Matagorda, and Copano. These points respectively served the communities along the Brazos, Colorado, and San Antonio rivers.

Manuel de Mier y Terán, on his inspection tour of Texas in 1828-29, made the following observation concerning Anglo colonists and their mode of travel:

They repair the roads for wheels, because the vehicle called Wagüín is their only means of transportation, and thus no home is without one. They [the wagons] are pulled by oxen, mules, or horses, according to their purpose or the nature of the terrain. At any rate, they are light and sturdy machines crafted with perfection. The harness for this [draft] stock are very well made.

His diary is full of accounts of difficult river crossings, narrow paths through dense forests that passed for roads as well as other hardships commonly experienced by travelers. It is important to note that this emerging network of roads essentially followed trails established by the Indians, which were later incorporated into the Spanish system collectively known as El Camino Real, or the Kings Highway.
Roads to Texas
1824–1835

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
In many ways, the Texas Revolution began in June 1832 when armed colonists freed William B. Travis and Patrick Jack, who were being held at Anáhuac by Colonel Juan David Bradburn for antigovernment activities. The colonists explained their actions to General José Antonio Méxia, who was sent to investigate the situation. In a formal document called the Turtle Bayou Resolutions, the colonists claimed that they had acted in support of a Federalist revolution then being conducted in Mexico by Antonio López de Santa Anna.

Santa Anna's revolution succeeded but he embraced Centralism in the following years, discarding the Constitution of 1824 with its federalist guarantees. By 1835, several states within the Mexican Federation had revolted against the Centralist government. In May 1835, Santa Anna led his Centralist army to Zacatecas where he crushed that state's militia in a battle outside the capital. He next turned his attention to Texas.

Mexican officials had grown increasingly concerned about the number of Anglo colonists immigrating to Texas. One solution had been to increase the number of troops stationed there to keep dissidents in check. General Martín Perfecto de Cos was ordered to Texas with reinforcements. Before he could arrive, however, William B. Travis and his supporters had again confronted the garrison at Anáhuac. Orders were issued for the arrest of Travis and others as well as the recall of a small cannon given to the people at Gonzales. Flying a makeshift flag bearing the words "Come and Take It," the colonists at Gonzales fired on and drove away the Mexican detachment that came to reclaim the gun.

The colonists, realizing that war with the government had begun, moved to consolidate their hold on Texas. On the night of October 9, 1835, the colonists seized Presidio La Bahía at Goliad and captured its garrison. That month several hundred colonists gathered at Gonzales and formed themselves into The Army of the People and elected Stephen F. Austin as their commanding general. By the end of October, the army was outside San Antonio de Béxar, looking to gain control of that important political seat.

Inside the city was General Cos and his Centralist garrison. Cos had landed at Copano and marched to Béxar just as the revolution was beginning. The Texans laid siege to the city. In late November, however, Austin had to leave the army and travel to the United States at the orders of the Provisional Government. Many of the colonists began to leave the army as well. The situation did not look favorable for the Texans.

Help was on the way. Rallies in support of the revolution had turned out recruits for the fight against Mexico's Centralist government. One group, headed by exiled Federalist leader General Méxia, landed at Tampico but was defeated. Other volunteers, called the New Orleans Greys, arrived at Béxar in time to bolster the Texan cause. On the morning of December 5, the Texans attacked the town, ultimately forcing Cos and his garrison to surrender after several days of fighting. By the end of 1835, no Centralist troops remained in Texas.
On October 2, 1835, a small band of Texan colonists at Gonzales drove off a detachment of Mexican soldiers who had come to retrieve a cannon given to the citizens for protection against nomadic raiders. Word of the skirmish spread quickly and more than four hundred colonists rushed to Gonzales. The volunteers formed the Army of the People and elected empresario Stephen F. Austin as their commander. As October drew to a close, General Austin led his army westward to San Antonio.

San Antonio de Béxar was important to the Mexican government both strategically and politically. The town, the population of which in 1835 numbered around 2000, was located on the old Camino Real that led from the Rio Grande to the Louisiana border. Béxar was also the seat of political power in Texas, being the traditional home of the governor during Spanish rule. Its political role continued after Mexico declared its independence. Occupying the town when the revolution erupted were 650 Mexican soldiers under General Martín Perfecto de Cos.

Austin and the Army of the People arrived outside Béxar in late October to find that Cos had already begun fortifying the town in anticipation of the upcoming battle. The fortified area included the plaza around San Fernando Cathedral and the old mission compound known as the Alamo. Austin sent a 100-man detachment, under the command of James Bowie and James W. Fannin, to scout out enemy positions on the south side of town. Cos countered by ordering Col. Domingo de Ugartechea to intercept the probe. On the morning of October 28, the two forces fought a brief but fierce battle along the bank of the San Antonio River within sight of Mission Concepción. The outnumbered Texans inflicted heavy casualties on Ugartechea's men who retreated back to town. The action then settled down to a siege operation, with the Texans camped on the outskirts of the town and Cos and his men occupying Béxar.

On November 8, the Texans scored another victory when William B. Travis and his command located and captured Cos' horse herd grazing near the Medina River. The Texans struck again on November 26 when James Bowie intercepted and prevented a pack train loaded with forage from entering town. The skirmish, known as the Grass Fight, occurred near Alazán Creek west of the town. Little by little, food, supplies, and time were running out for Cos trapped inside Béxar.

Despite their successes things were not going well for the Texans either. The drudgery of life on a siege line had little appeal for the volunteers and many began to leave as the weather turned colder. Austin, appointed commissioner to the United States by the Provisional Government, left the army to assume his diplomatic duties. His replacement as commander, Edward Burleson, had trouble controlling the independent minded Texans who remained, even though they had elected him. By December, strong sentiment emerged for the army to end the siege, withdraw to the east, and establish winter quarters.

Fortunately for Texans this course of action was not adopted. On the eve of the army's breakup Benjamin Rush Milam, a respected colonist, spoke out against the withdrawal and asked: Who will follow old Ben Milam? Soon nearly 300 men volunteered to attack the town with him the next morning. The remainder of the Texans agreed to stay and support the attack by protecting the rear of the two assault columns. Entering Béxar on the morning of December 5, Milam and the Texans began a five-day-long engagement that consisted of close range fighting. Battling house-to-house, the Texans gradually gained control of the Mexican positions around San Fernando Cathedral. Late on December 9, Cos' men fell back to the fortified Alamo. Soon afterward, Cos asked for terms and surrendered to the Texans on the following day.

At least 5 Texans had been killed with another 30 or so wounded. One of the Texans slain was Col. Milam, who died instantly on the morning of December 7 when he was shot by a Mexican marksman as he left the Veramendi Palace. The Texans took satisfaction in learning that they had killed or wounded an estimated 150 Mexican soldiers during the battle.

The surrender terms allowed Cos to retire to the Rio Grande with his force intact. Violating his promise to sit out the rest of the war, he soon returned to Texas with General López de Santa Anna who planned to recapture Béxar and place the town under control of the Centralist government once more. For the Texans who had fought hard to take the town, giving up Béxar without a fight was unthinkable. Thus, the stage was set for another battle in San Antonio de Béxar - the Battle of the Alamo.
The Battles for Béxar
Fall 1835

THE GRASS FIGHT
November 26, 1835

THE BATTLE OF BÉXAR
December 5–9, 1835

BATTLE OF CONCEPCIÓN
October 27, 1835
Learning Objectives

4th Grade TEKS: 4.3A, B & C; 4.6B; 4.8A & B; 4.21B & C; 4.22

7th Grade TEKS: 7.1A & C; 7.3; 7.8; 7.9; 7.21; 7.22, 7.23

The victories of 1835 gave way to political infighting that left the Texans unprepared for Santa Anna's counterattack. Understanding this phase of the Texas Revolution is critical to understanding the Texans defeats of early 1836.

Meeting in mid-October 1835, the colonists gathered at San Felipe to form an interim government called the Consultation. This body selected a Permanent Council in early November to provide a governing hand for Texas during the crisis. Although some delegates of the Consultation expressed a desire for immediate independence from Mexico, the majority decided to work with other Mexican Federalists, such as General José Antonio Méxia, for the restoration of the Constitution of 1824. A statement to this effect - the Declaration of Causes - was issued on November 7. On November 12, the delegates elected Henry Smith governor and James W. Robinson lieutenant governor. The Consultation also voted to create a regular army and appointed Sam Houston its commander. These actions set in motion events that would sharply divide the Texan leadership at this critical time.

To some Texans, the way to keep Santa Anna's troops out of Texas was to take the war into Mexico. Frank W. Johnson, who took over from Edward Burleson as commander of the volunteers in Béxar, suggested capturing Matamoros. By late December he had raised 200 men at Béxar and had marched for Goliad. Both Governor Smith and his Council approved the plan but had different ideas as to who should lead it. The governor ordered General Houston to oversee the expedition, who in turn assigned the task to James Bowie. The Council offered the position to Johnson, who surprisingly declined it. The Council then selected James W. Fannin. Johnson reversed his decision and the expedition had three commanders. Bowie abandoned the project but both Fannin and Johnson planned to proceed with the expedition.

These maneuverings left the Texans in disarray. Béxar's garrison commander, James C. Neill, complained to the governor and the Council that Johnson had taken horses, clothing, and supplies intended for use at his post and had left him with only 104 men. His pleas for help resulted in the dispatch of James Bowie and William B. Travis to his assistance. The troops in the Goliad area had to choose between following either Fannin or Johnson. Johnson's command was spread out across the countryside south of Goliad gathering horses for the expedition. Houston, whose army of regulars did not yet exist and whose authority did not extend over the volunteers then in the field, was given a furlough to negotiate a treaty between the new government and the Cherokee Indians. To make matters worse, a feud erupted between Smith and the Council, with neither party recognizing the authority of the other and each issuing its own orders.

Texas lacked leadership just when a united front was needed. Santa Anna had collected a 6,500-man army at San Luis Potosí for the purpose of crushing the revolt. Divided into two main columns, one under Santa Anna and the other under José Urrea, the army was poised to advance on Béxar and Goliad as January 1836 ended.
Centralist victory

Texan - Federalist victory

Gulf of Mexico

The United States of America

Texas in Revolt
January 1836

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.

Texans gathering supplies and recruits at Velasco and Copano

Centralist victory

San Luis Potosí

San Luis Potosí
The discovery of General Antonio López de Santa Anna’s troops near San Antonio de Béxar on the morning of February 6, 1836, prompted quick action on the part of the Texans stationed there to defend the town. Colonels Travis and Bowie ordered their men to withdraw from Béxar and regroup at the Alamo, a fortified mission on the east bank of the San Antonio River. Santa Anna countered over the next two weeks by encircling the fort with earthworks from which his artillery could pound the defenders. The garrison held out for twelve days as they waited for reinforcements from the settlements to arrive. On the thirteenth day of the siege (March 6), Santa Anna launched a predawn assault against the Alamo. After approximately 90 minutes, the garrison had been killed and Santa Anna and the Centralist forces under him controlled the Alamo.

Although often called a fort, the Alamo started out as Mission San Antonio de Valero. The outer wall originally consisted of individual huts built around a central plaza. The spaces between the huts were closed to make it more difficult for nomadic raiders, such as the Comanche to attack. The old church and convent formed the religious center of the mission. Closed as a mission in 1793, the site had later been used as a barracks by both Spanish and Mexican soldiers. Occupied by Cos’ Centralist troops during the Siege of Béxar in later 1835, many of the defensive features, such as the earthen gun platform in the church and the lunette to guard the compound had actually been constructed at that time.

Conflicting numbers regarding the participants often confuse anyone who studies this historic event. Nevertheless, historians now believe that the attacking forces numbered approximately 2,000 to 2,200 Centralist troops, of which more than 500 were killed or wounded in the assault. Evidence indicates that the garrison many have numbered from 200 to 260 who died almost to the last man. Many people do not realize that a significant number of civilians – relatives of garrison members and at least one slave – were inside the Alamo during the thirteen-day-long siege. Estimates place the number of civilian participants at around twenty.

Many people do not realize that all Alamo defenders were not Anglo-Texans. The citizens of Béxar were divided into factions, with some supporting the Centralist government of Santa Anna and others supporting the Federalist rebellion. Béxareños opposed to Santa Anna either left Béxar or took up arms against him in the Alamo. Like the Texans who died in the battle, these Tejanos believed risking their property and lives in the cause of liberty was a worthwhile endeavor.
ASSAULT ON THE ALAMO
MARCH 6, 1836
Learning Objectives

4th Grade TEKS: 4.3A & B; 4.6B; 4.8A & B; 4.15A; 4.21B & C; 4.22

7th Grade TEKS: 7.1A; 7.3; 7.8; 7.9; 7.21; 7.22; 7.23

One misconception about the Texas Revolution is the notion that the Texans believed Santa Anna would be slow in returning to Texas. By February 1836, warnings that the Centralists were marching on Texas to crush the revolt were common occurrences. James C. Neill, garrison commander at Béxar, and James W. Fannin, commander of troops in the Goliad area, pleaded with Governor Henry Smith and the Council for aid. The political feud between the governor and Council prevented an effective response to the coming crises.

The garrison at Béxar needed help. Neill's men had not been paid and lacked winter clothing. He complained that Johnson and Grant had stripped the post of supplies in order to outfit the Matamoros Expedition. General Houston ordered James Bowie to Béxar to survey the situation. Arriving on January 19, Bowie determined that Béxar must be defended. On February 2, Bowie and Neill vowed to Governor Smith "... we will rather die in these ditches than give it up to the enemy." Smith sent Lieutenant Colonel William B. Travis with 30 men to their aid. On February 8, a small group of Tennessee volunteers arrived in Béxar. Included in their number was former Congressman David Crockett. Niell's departure around February 14 prompted Travis and Bowie to share command of the post. When Centralist forces arrived on February 23, the Béxar garrison numbered roughly 200 men, all of whom died when Santa Anna stormed the Alamo on the morning of March 6, 1836.

The situation in the Goliad area was no better. Fannin, hearing news of a Mexican advance into Texas, decided that the time for the Matamoros Expedition had passed and showered the Council with dire predictions of what was to come if the colonists did not return to the field to face this new danger. Johnson and Grant, who still planned to march on Matamoros, spread their commands across the countryside searching for horses and other supplies. Early on the morning of February 27, General José Urrea caught Johnson and his men in their quarters at San Patricio and killed or captured all of the Texans but Johnson. On March 2, Urrea's men killed Grant and many of his followers when they found the Texans hunting horses near Agua Dulce Creek. Thus, as the first week of March drew to an end, the Centralists had reason to be optimistic about bringing a swift end to the revolt.

Another important event occurred during this period: The Constitutional Convention. On March 1, 1836, 54 delegates assembled to decide on a course of action regarding the future of Texas. On March 2, a Declaration of Independence was adopted, signaling a complete break with Mexico. The Convention also reappointed Sam Houston commander of the Texas Army, expanding his authority over all troops, both regulars and volunteers. On March 6, General Houston left Washington-on-the-Brazos to organize the relief of the garrison at Béxar, unaware it had already fallen.
TEXAS IN REVOLT
MID-FEBRUARY
TO MARCH 6, 1836

SIEGE of the ALAMO,
FEBRUARY 23 – MARCH 6

JOHNSON'S COMMAND
DESTROYED, FEBRUARY 27

TEXAN FORTS

TEXIAN MOVEMENTS

CENTRALIST MOVEMENTS

CENTRALIST VICTORY

Map created for the Alamo
by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
By mid-March, the Centralists under Santa Anna had regained ground lost to the Texans in 1835. Several weeks after his March 6, 1836 victory at the Alamo, Santa Anna ordered the force with him to advance eastward in three separate columns. His strategy was to find and defeat the rebels or drive them out of Texas into the United States.

Sam Houston, who had left Washington-on-the-Brazos on March 6 to assist Béxar, arrived at Gonzales on the 11th amid rumors that the Alamo had already fallen. The arrival of survivors Susannah Dickinson and Joe (Travis' slave) on March 13 confirmed the news. That night he collected the Texans who had gathered there to march to the Alamo's relief and turned eastward. These 374 men formed the nucleus of his army. The women and children of Gonzales accompanied his army as it retreated, beginning what would be called the Run-Away Scrape.

Houston ignored repeated calls to halt his retreat and engage Santa Anna in battle. Believing the Texans were not yet ready to fight, he continued eastward intending to consolidate his army. He issued orders on March 11 for Fannin to evacuate Goliad and join him. Fannin was slow to react, waiting for a detachment sent to Refugio to return. On March 23, however, Houston received more bad news when he learned that Fannin had been defeated at Coleto Creek and forced to surrender (March 19-20). On March 27, troops under Urrea executed Fannin and his command of nearly 400 men who were being held as unarmed prisoners in the old presidio. Houston continued to delay meeting Santa Anna. He halted and spent the first two weeks of April camped on the west bank of the Brazos River at Groce's Plantation to rest and organize his army. On April 16, Houston led his army toward Harrisburg and the Centralist forces.

Santa Anna had left the main army to personally command a 500-man detachment for the purpose of catching President David G. Burnet, Vice President Lorenzo de Zavala, and other officials of the revolutionary government who had left Washington and were reportedly at Harrisburg. He reached the town on April 18 but the government had already relocated to Galveston Island. On April 20, Houston and Santa Anna skirmished near the San Jacinto River. The Mexican commander sent a message to General Cos to join him and went into camp along a bayou leading to the San Jacinto River.

Houston, who had been criticized strongly for his strategy of retreat, resolved to give battle to the enemy before him. Santa Anna, reinforced by Cos on the morning of April 21, had roughly 1,300 men within a horseshoe-shaped bend on the river. Houston ordered Vince's Bridge burned, leaving Santa Anna with no escape route. That afternoon, Houston led his 900 men against Santa Anna's camp and in an 18-minute battle routed the Centralists. Crying "Remember the Alamo" and "Remember Goliad," the Texans killed 630 Mexican soldiers and captured more than 700 more. The Texan losses, by comparison were unbelievably small: 9 killed and 30 wounded. The victory was made even more meaningful when Houston's scouts captured Santa Anna the next day.
Learning Objectives

4th Grade TEKS: 4.3A & E; 4.6B; 4.8A & B; 4.16A; 4.21B & C; 4.22

7th Grade TEKS: 7.1A; 7.3C & D; 7.8; 7.9; 7.21; 7.22, 7.23

Following the Battle of San Jacinto on April 21, 1836, the new Texan government headed by President David G. Burnet undertook diplomatic measures to end the war between Texas and Mexico. On May 14, 1836, captured Mexican president Antonio López de Santa Anna signed a treaty negotiated with Burnet and other Texas officials. In the document, Santa Anna promised to end the war and order all Mexican troops in Texas to retire to the south bank of the Rio Grande. In a secret portion of the treaty, Burnet promised to return Santa Anna safely to the Mexican port of Vera Cruz so Santa Anna could urge his government to adopt the treaty. The Treaty of Velasco had two important effects on the future. Angry Texans soldiers refused to let Santa Anna go; thus, Santa Anna later declared the treaty had been violated by the Texans and was therefore void. More importantly, however, was Texas’ insistence that the treaty clearly established the Rio Grande as the southern boundary of Texas. This claim later contributed to the outbreak of the Mexican War, 1846-48.

The Texas Government's desire for the Mexican Army to withdraw from Texas was based on the fact that despite the loss at San Jacinto on April 21, 1836 of more than 600 troops and the capture of 730 more – including Santa Anna, – danger to the new republic still existed. Roughly 4,000 Centralist soldiers remained in the field, ready to resume the campaign if ordered. These consisted of Mexican troops occupying the following places:

Mrs. Powell’s Plantation near Columbia  1,408
Brazoria & Columbia  1,165
San Antonio de Béxar  1,001
Copano  60
Refugio  5
Goliad  174
Matagorda  189
Victoria  40
Miscellaneous  36

4,078 Total

The withdrawal of the Mexican Army, which actually began prior to the Treaty of Velasco, based on an armistice agreed upon between Sam Houston and Santa Anna, commenced on April 24, 1836. By July, no Mexican troops were north of the Rio Grande.
Elements of the 7th U.S. Infantry under Colonel William Whistler occupied Nacogdoches, July 1836

14 May 1836
Treaty of Velasco
Secret Treaty

Article 4
Sets Rio Grande as boundary between Mexico and Texas

June–July, Mexican Army regroups in Matamoros

14 May 1836
Treaty of Velasco
Secret Treaty

14 May 1836
Treaty of Velasco
Secret Treaty

June–July, Mexican Army regroups in Matamoros

Centralist withdrawal from Texas

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
On December 19, 1836, the Congress of the Republic of Texas passed legislation defining the boundaries of its territory. The law stated: That from the passage of this act, the civil and political jurisdiction of the republic be, and hereby declared to extend to the following boundaries, to wit: beginning at the mouth of the Sabine river, and running west along the Gulf of Mexico three leagues from land, to the mouth of the Rio Grande, thence up the principal stream of said river to its source, thence due north to the forty-second degree of north latitude, thence along the boundary line as defined in the treaty between the United States and Spain, to the beginning: and that the president be, and is hereby authorized and required to open negotiation with the government of the United States of America, as soon as in his opinion the public interest requires it, to ascertain and define the boundary line as agreed to in said treaty. This claim, which stretched the traditional boundary of Texas, guaranteed future conflicts.

Under Spain, Texas had occupied a significantly smaller geographical area than the one staked out by officials of the Republic. Under much of Spanish rule, the Nueces River, not the Rio Grande, served as the region's southern boundary. To the south and west lay the provinces of Nuevo Santander (later called Tamaulipas), Nuevo León, Coahuila, Chihuahua, and Nuevo México. Each had settlements that predated those in Texas and each had established its own cultural and political identity.

In 1821 Mexico declared its independence from Spain. Its constitution, adopted in 1824, identified the states within the new federal republic. Texas, which lacked sufficient population for separate statehood, was linked with Coahuila to form the state of Coahuila y Tejas. The capital of the combined state was located at Saltillo although Béxar remained the political seat for Texas.

The Republic's claim to the territory south and west of Texas' traditional borders rested on the Treaty of Velasco, signed in the weeks following Houston's victory over Antonio López de Santa Anna at San Jacinto. The treaty actually had two parts, one public and the other secret. Article 4 of the secret treaty stated: A treaty of comity, amity, and limits, will be established between Mexico and Texas, the territory of the latter not to extend beyond the Rio Bravo del Norte [Rio Grande]. Santa Anna later contended that the agreement was voided by the inability of Texas officials to return him to Mexico as promised in another article of the treaty. The Mexican Congress contended that Santa Anna, a prisoner in the hands of the Texans, had no authority to enter into such a treaty so it was therefore illegal and unenforceable.

The boundary dispute between Texas and Mexico aggravated their mutual hostility and provided grounds for continued conflict throughout the life of the Republic of Texas. In the months leading up to annexation to the United States, Texas had the opportunity to enter into arbitration to resolve the boundary issue in a treaty sponsored by Great Britain but rejected the plan in favor of statehood. Thus, the issue of Texas' boundaries was inherited by the United States.
THE DISPUTED BORDER 1836–1850

Map created for the Alamo
by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
Sam Houston's victory over Antonio López de Santa Anna did not end the hostilities between Texas and Mexico. Mexico fully intended to reestablish its authority over Texas, as it viewed the region still in revolt and not an independent nation. Internal problems, compounded by a war with France (1838), prevented Mexican officials from giving Texas its full attention.

The revolt in Texas had been just one facet of Federalist reaction to the rise of Centralism. Other northern states (Coahuila, Nuevo León, and Tamaulipas) experienced their own revolts. During the years 1838-1840, a movement swept across northern Mexico that promoted the formation of an independent nation called the Republic of the Rio Grande. Mexican Federalists recruited Texan supporters. President Mirabeau B. Lamar, who publicly could not support the project, privately encouraged his followers to aid the movement. Several hundred Texans enlisted in the military force assembled by the Mexican Federalists and participated in battles inside Mexico. By the end of November 1840, however, the movement ended when the Mexican Federalists made peace with the Centralists government.

In 1841, President Lamar sent an expedition into New Mexico to extend Texas' control over the region. The column of wagons carrying trade goods with its military escort left Austin at the start of the summer dry season. The expedition became lost and arrived in New Mexico exhausted and out of supplies. The New Mexicans demanded their surrender and the Texans, in no condition to resist, had little choice but to lay down their arms. The Texans were then marched overland to Mexico City where they were imprisoned. Some were later transferred to the infamous Perote Castle near Jalapa. By April 1842, most had been released through the efforts of foreign diplomats.

Santa Anna escalated hostilities between Texas and Mexico upon his return to power in late 1841. In early 1842, Santa Anna ordered Mexican troops to seize San Antonio in retaliation for the Santa Fe Expedition and to remind Texans that Mexicans still considered Texas part of Mexico. Although it created alarm in Texas, the raid failed to have the effect Santa Anna desired. Later that year he ordered General Adrian Woll to conduct a month long campaign against Texas. Woll again seized San Antonio, this time capturing officials of the district court who were holding session in the town. Their fellow Texans rallied to their aid and forced Woll into a battle outside San Antonio at Salado Creek. The Texans then mounted an expedition to punish Mexico. Part of this force crossed into Mexico and was captured at the town of Mier. Marched to Mexico City, they joined the growing ranks of Texan prisoners.

Texans also encountered border problems with the U.S. along the Arkansas River. In 1843, the U.S. Army arrested and disarmed parties of Texans operating along the Santa Fe Trail. No shots were exchanged, but it indicated that the U.S. questioned Texas' claim to New Mexico.
BORDER CONFLICTS DURING THE REPUBLIC OF TEXAS, 1836–1845

Chihuahua City
El Paso del Norte
Santa Fe–Chihuahua Trail
Santa Fe Expedition
June–Oct. 1841

Snively Expedition
disarmed by U.S. Dragoons,
June 30, 1843

Snively Expedition
April–Aug. 1843

Somervell Expedition
Nov.–Dec. 1842

Woll Expedition
Sept. 1842

Vasquez Expedition
Feb.–March 1842

Snively’s defeat of the Taos Militia
June 20, 1843

Snively’s Expedition
May 1843

Taos

Mora

Santa Fe Expedition
surrenders
October 5, 1841

Bird’s Fort

El Paso del Norte

Monclova

Saltillo

Monterrey

Elnino Laredo

Matamoros

Victoria

Tamaulipas

Nuevoleon

Durango

Chihuahua

Mexico City

Gulf of Mexico

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
Learning Objectives

4th Grade TEKS: 4.3C & D; 4.6B; 4.8A & B; 4.19A, 4.21B & C; 4.22

7th Grade TEKS: 7.1A; 7.4A & C; 7.8; 7.9; 7.19B; 7.21; 7.22, 7.23

During the period of the Republic, Texas was a battleground as different cultures clashed for control of its resources. Anglo and Tejano citizens of the Republic wanted land for farming and ranching. The native population, historically referred to as Indians, found that encroachment by newer people threatened their traditional way of life. The contest between these groups frequently flared into open conflict.

The Republic's Indian policy varied depending on who held the office of president. Sam Houston, who had lived among the Cherokee as a youth, favored establishing and maintaining peaceful relations with Texas' Indians. He believed that the Republic could not afford to wage a constant war against them. During his first term in office (1836-1838), Houston worked to have Congress recognize the Cherokee claim to land in east Texas but without success. His successor, Mirabeau B. Lamar, saw Texas' Indians as possible Mexican allies who threatened his nation's security. Mexican overtures toward the Cherokee confirmed his suspicions and resulted in a war in 1839 that drove the Cherokee out of Texas and into U.S. Indian Territory (Oklahoma).

The most formidable Indian tribe the Texans faced were the Comanche, who roamed at will from north of the Red River to deep into Mexico. Nomads, the Comanche depended on horses and other goods they captured in raids against their enemies. In May 1836, the Comanche and their allies attacked Fort Parker, killed several settlers, and carried off 5 captives. The raids continued over the next few years. In March 1840, Comanche leaders met with officials in San Antonio to discuss ending hostilities. A small battle broke out called the Council House Fight, in which more than 60 chiefs, warriors, and women were killed. The incident sparked a massive retaliatory raid by the Comanche that swept clear to the small town of Linnville on the Gulf Coast. In August 1840, a hurriedly raised force of Texans intercepted the raiders at Plum Creek and beat them in open battle. Follow-up raids by Texans destroyed Comanche camps that ended raiding for a time. In 1841, Comanche and Kiowa harassed Lamar's Santa Fe Pioneers as they tried to reach New Mexico. In 1844, near the end of Houston's second term as president, the Republic and Comanche signed the Treaty of Tehuacana Creek that established peaceful relations between the two parties.

Maintaining peace with Texas' Indians became the role of the U.S. government following annexation. Immigration into west Texas at the end of the Mexican War brought renewed conflict between Texans and Comanches. One of the most famous war chiefs to emerge was Quanah Parker, the son of Cynthia Ann Parker who had been taken captive as a child in the 1836 raid on Fort Parker.
Indian Conflicts During the Republic of Texas, 1836–1845

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
One of the continuing questions facing citizens of the Republic of Texas was whether or not to trade its status as an independent nation for a place within the federal union of the United States. President Mirabeau B. Lamar represented the faction strongly opposed to abandoning the Republic. Addressing the issue at his inauguration in 1838, Lamar lamented, *I cannot regard the annexation of Texas to the American Union in any other light than as the grave of all her hopes of happiness and greatness; and if, contrary to the present aspect of affairs, the amalgamation shall hereafter take place, I shall feel that the blood of our martyred heroes had been shed in vain.* . . . Lamar's pro-Republic stance, however, did not reflect the attitude of most Texans toward annexation.

Texans officially expressed the desire to join the United States shortly after the end of the Texas Revolution. In September 1836, voters made three important electoral decisions: They ratified the Constitution adopted at Washington-on-the-Brazos; they chose Houston as the Republic's first president; and they voted 3,277 to 91 in favor of annexation. Two controversial issues - the extension of slavery and a possible war with Mexico - proved to be major roadblocks to achieving statehood for nearly ten years.

By 1844, U.S. supporters of annexation had made progress in their plan to unite Texas with the United States. Diplomats from both nations negotiated a treaty that would allow Texas to join the Union, signing the document on April 12, 1844. On June 8, 1844, however, the Senate rejected the treaty by a vote of 53 to 16. But the issue was far from settled as it became part of the national debate during the presidential election then heating up. The Democratic Party promised to "re-annex Texas" as part of its platform. U.S. supporters, led by President John Tyler, arranged for the full Congress to take up the question once more in the form of a Joint Resolution that would bring Texas into the Union. Voting on February 27, 1845, the Senate approved Texas statehood, 27-25. The House of Representatives approved the bill on the following day by a vote of 132-76. The long-sought offer of annexation had finally been extended to Texas.

Texans responded quickly to the offer. President Anson Jones called a special session of Congress to advise him on the matter. Meeting on June 16, 1845, Congress authorized Jones to call for an Annexation Convention. On July 4, 1845, the delegates voted to accept annexation 55 to 1. Jones then put the question before the people of Texas, who went to the polls on October 13, 1845. The outcome of the plebiscite - 4,245 in favor to 267 against - showed that statehood was still preferred over existence as an independent nation.

Two official acts yet remained to finalize the deed. On December 27, 1845, U.S. President James K. Polk signed the annexation bill into law and formally recognized Texas as the 28th state of the Union. In a ceremony in Austin on February 19, 1846, Texas President Anson Jones ordered the Lone Star Flag lowered for the last time, proclaiming "...the Republic of Texas is no more."
The Vote for Annexation 1845

SENATORS
Democrat “Yes”
Whig “No”
Whig “Yes”

REPRESENTATIVES
Democrat “Yes”
Whig “No”
Whig “Yes”

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.

In favor of annexation by the U.S.
Opposed to annexation by the U.S.
The War with Mexico brought Texans and Mexicans together on the battlefield once more. Their previous conflicts, beginning with the Texas Revolution and continuing throughout the era of the Republic, had created hard feelings on both sides. The new war provided Texans with an opportunity to avenge wrongs and punish old enemies.

Texans served with General Zachary Taylor's Army of Occupation from the time it landed and set up camp near the mouth of the Nueces River at Corpus Christi in July 1845. By the time Taylor's army marched south to the Rio Grande in March 1846, only one small company remained in the field. Its command was Samuel Hamilton Walker, a Maryland native who had won fame as a Texas Ranger. He had fought the Mexicans before and had spent time in prison in Mexico City after being captured at the Battle of Mier. Walker distinguished himself in the battles on the Rio Grande by passing through the Mexican lines to reach the U.S. garrison under siege at Fort Brown. He received a commission as captain in the Regiment of U.S. Mounted Rifles for his bravery.

Texans accompanied Taylor throughout his campaigns in northern Mexico. Two regiments of Texans played important roles in the Battle of Monterrey (September 21-24, 1846). The commander of the 1st Texas Mounted Volunteers, John Coffee Hays, was a well-known Texas Ranger Captain. Many of his officers, like Tom Green and Robert A. Gillespie, were also former Texas Rangers. The commander of the 2nd Texas Mounted Volunteers, George T. Wood, resigned from the Texas Senate to go to war. Other prominent former Texan officials served on Taylor's staff at Monterrey, including Mirabeau B. Lamar, Edward Burleson, and Albert Sidney Johnston. Texas Governor J. Pinckney Henderson even took a leave of absence from his office so he could command the Texas Volunteer division in northern Mexico.

Taylor had other Texans with him when he faced Santa Anna at the Battle of Buena Vista (February 22-23, 1847). Ben McCulloch and his Texas Spy Company gathered valuable information for Taylor before the battle. One company of Texas Riflemen helped to defend Taylor's left flank. Texans also helped feed Taylor's army by supplying cattle.

General Winfield Scott captured Mexico City in September 1847 without using any Texas units. Keeping the highway open to the coast, however, was a serious problem. Mexican guerrillas frequently blocked the road, making travel almost impossible at times. The arrival of Captain Walker in central Mexico promised to help but the popular officer was killed at Huamantla in October 1847. Soon afterward, however, Colonel Hays arrived with a newly raised battalion of Texas Mounted Volunteers, again containing many former Texas Rangers. Patrolling the National Road between Vera Cruz and Mexico City, Hays' men cleared the route of guerrillas and bandits, making the road safe for supply trains and couriers.
Texans in the Mexican War 1846–1848

Taylor’s Campaign, 1846–1847
- Buena Vista February 27, 1847
- Monterrey September 20–24, 1846

Scott’s Campaign, 1847
- Mexico City captured August–September 1847
- Vera Cruz captured 29 March 1847
- Huamantla, October 9, 1847
- Perote

Disputed region

Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.
The Compromise of 1850 is most often associated with three controversial issues of that day: The admission of California to the Union as a free state; the enactment of the Fugitive Slave Law; and the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia. Little remembered about the act is the fact that it created the modern boundaries of the State of Texas.

The Mexican War ended in 1848 with the ratification of the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in which Mexico ceded a large portion of its northern territory to the United States. The discovery of gold in California in January 1848 accelerated immigration to that region. By 1849, California had a sufficient population to request U.S. statehood. Proponents of slavery, however, blocked Congressional approval due to the residents' stipulation that slavery be banned from the new state. Texas and its boundaries were drawn into the political debate that followed.

On December 19, 1836, the Republic of Texas had adopted the Rio Grande as its western border up to the 42nd parallel, placing New Mexico within its own territory. President Mirabeau B. Lamar's unsuccessful 1841 Santa Fe Expedition had been an attempt to strengthen the Texan claim to New Mexico. Soon after the Mexican War began, U.S. troops under General Stephen W. Kearny entered New Mexico and on August 18, 1846, occupied Santa Fe. The general informed residents that they were no longer citizens of Mexico but citizens of the United States. He instituted a new civil government for New Mexico, which remained under U.S. control during the war.

After the war, Texan officials sought to uphold the Republic's claim that their state actually extended westward to the Rio Grande. In 1848, the Texas Legislature passed legislation organizing New Mexico into Santa Fe County. New Mexicans, however, desired to be allowed to form their own territory separate from Texas. The U.S. government supported their claim to self-rule. By 1850, it appeared that the issue might have to be resolved by a clash of arms as both Texas and the United States threatened to send soldiers to the region to enforce their claims.

Thus, the Texas issue was drawn into the group of acts known collectively as the Compromise of 1850, as a solution to the standoff. The state, faced with financial debts left over from the Republic, was convinced to cede its disputed western land to the United States in exchange for $10 million. The new northern and western boundary as set forth by the bill left Texas with the political outline it still has today.
Map created for the Alamo by Donald S. Frazier, Ph.D.