

THE TEXAS WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

TEXICAN vs MEXICAN

MASON vs MASON

Contents

PREFACE	6
INTRODUCTION.....	6
PART I BACKGROUND.....	8
CULTURAL DIFFERENCES	8
Spanish Culture	8
American Culture	8
The Spanish Failure to Settle Texas	9
EARLY SETTLEMENT OF TEXAS	9
LaSalle’s Colony at Matagorda.....	9
Squatters and Filibusters	10
Mexican Independence and the Battle of Medina	10
Empresarios and Legal Immigration (from The Texas Handbook.).....	11
Mexican Independence.....	11
The Constitution of 1824	11
Concerns of the Mexican Government and the Fredonian Rebellion	12
The Law of April 6, 1830	12
Native Americans (Indians)	13
Formal Expression of Grievances	14
Conflict at Anahuac	17
Causes of the Revolution	18
PART II - THE WAR.....	19
Enter Santa Anna	19
Austin Returns and Begins Participating in the Revolution	19
THE EARLY SUCCESSES IN SOUTH TEXAS	20
“Come and Take It”	20
On To Bexar (San Antonio).....	21
SANTA ANNA’S VICTORIES OVER THE TEXANS	23
SAN JACINTO AND INDEPENDENCE	31
The Battle Develops	31
The Battle.....	33
Legalizing Independence.....	35
Sealing the Deal?.....	35
APPENDIX A MASONRY / FREEMASONRY	38
Early Masons	38

Masons or Freemasons?	39
Characteristics of Freemasonry	39
Objective	39
Secrecy	39
Wages & Taxation	39
Liberal Deism.....	39
Peace and Harmony	40
Dedication to Orphans and Brothers’ Widows	40
Charity.....	40
The Degrees and Rites of Speculative Masonry.....	40
Grand Lodges	41
MASONRY IN ENGLAND	41
APPENDIX B - THE EUROPEAN OCCUPATION OF NORTH AMERICA THRU THE MEXICAN REVOLUTION ...	42
Europeans Claim the Americas	42
Spain.....	44
France.....	46
England.....	46
APPENDIX C HISTORY OF THE REPUBLIC MEXICO THRU THE TEXAS REVOLUTION	47
TIMELINE OFMEXICAN HISTORY	47
February 1517	47
February 1519	47
November 1519	47
August 13, 1521	48
Hidalgo, Santa Anna and War	48
1808	48
How Did Father Hidalgo Become a Mason?	48
September 16, 1810.....	49
1814	49
1821	49
1823	49
1833	50
May12,1846	50
SUMMARY & OTHER INFORMATION	50
Masonry in Mexico.....	51
Joel R. Poinsett’s Contribution to Mexican Masonry.....	51

From Wikipedia on Poinsett, author’s words in italics	51
APPENDIX D – BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF SANTA ANNA.....	53
Summary	53
The Mexican War of Independence, 1810–1821 <i>from Wikipedia</i>	54
Rebellion against the Mexican Empire of Iturbide, 1822–1823	55
Santa Anna and the early Mexican Republic	56
Military action in Pueblo Viejo during the Battle of Tampico, September 1829.....	57
First presidency of Santa Anna, 1833–1835	58
Santa Anna and the Central Republic, 1835 Siete Leyes and Rebellion in Zacatecas.....	58
At Home in Jalapa	59
Santa Anna the Mason.....	60
Why Wasn’t Santa Anna a Yorkino Mason?	61
Politics	61
Character and Vanity	62
Surrender at San Jacinto	63
APPENDIX E: A BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF SAM HOUSTON	66
Summary	66
Early life.....	67
War of 1812 and The Battle of Horseshoe Bend	68
Houston’s Marriage to his First Love	69
Sam Houston the Cherokee	70
Early political career.....	71
Political exile and controversy	72
Texas Revolution	73
Sam Houston the Intellectual	75
Masonic Article on the Life of Sam Houston.....	76
Becoming a Lawyer	77
Masonry	78
Comparison Between George Washington and Sam Houston	84
APPENDIX F - BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF STEPHEN F. AUSTIN	85
Early Life.....	85
Moving to Texas.....	87
Empresario Austin.....	88
The Karankawas	89
Austin the Mason	90

Slavery.....	91
Relations with Mexico.....	94
Texas Revolution.....	95
<i>Main article: Texas Revolution</i>	95
Austin in the Republic of Texas.....	95
Death and Estate.....	95
Summary.....	96
APPENDIX G: EMPRESARIOS.....	97
Definition and Rules.....	97
Empresarios and their Colonies.....	97
Mexican Colonization Laws.....	99
APPENDIX H -TEXAS’ DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.....	102
APPENDIX I - HONOR ROLL OF MASONS CREATING THE REPUBLIC OF TEXAS.....	106
Masons in Battle in Texas War of Independence.....	106
Masons Among Austin’s First 300 Settlers.....	107
Masons at the Battle of Velasco.....	107
Masons Fighting the Anti-Mexican Uprising in Nacogdoches.....	107
Masons at the Battle of Gonzales (Come & Take It).....	108
Masons at the Battle of Concepcion (1st Battle for Bexar).....	108
Masons at the “Grass Fight (2nd Battle for Bexar).....	108
Masons Executed at Goliad:.....	109
Masons Escaping Execution at Goliad.....	109
Known Masons Killed at the Alamo:.....	109
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	110

THE TEXAS WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

Texican vs. Mexican, Mason vs. Mason

PREFACE

Texans called themselves “Texicans” from the early days of settlement through the days of the Republic of Texas. Many Texians were of Spanish and Mexican descent (Tejanos). Most American settlers at the time of revolution (1835) were Mexican citizens per requirements of the empresario agreement, as were the American colonists British subjects until the American Revolution. For most of the time of legal settlement in Texas, Texicans were proud to be Mexican citizens.

Items of particular interest in this document are marked with yellow background. When quotations have been altered by the author, they will be (in quotes and italics)

INTRODUCTION

The prominent combatants in Texas War of Independence (1835-1836), on both sides were Masons. This narrative intends to explain the nature of the conflict and to document the war and its Masonic influences, as well as the history and analysis of the Spanish and American cultures, the difference between the two leading to the War. Important to the story are biographies of the three men, Masons, who were the most important participants in the war; brothers Stephen F. Austin, Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna, and Sam Houston.

Biographies of these men are presented in the appendices of this document, as well as important documents and other historic information.

In consideration of those unfamiliar with the fraternity of Masonry, also known as Freemasonry is described in Appendix A.

There are many differing aspects and understandings of the Texas revolution, therefore the following main narrative is taken from the Texas Handbook of the Texas State History Society, since it is the largest known organizations where details of the subject are examined and debated scientifically.

PART I

BACKGROUND

The historical background of the foundation of Texas, including maps, is found in Appendix B *European Occupation of North America thru The Mexican Revolution* and Appendix C *History of Mexico thru the Texas War of Independence*.

CULTURAL DIFFERENCES

The Problem: Settle a vast untamed land, bounded by the Rio Grande with Mexico on the south and the Sabine River with Louisiana to the east.

Spanish Culture

New Spain included Texas, California, the American Southwest and Mexico. It existed from the early 1500's to the early 1800's. The culture of the civilized areas of Mexico, therefore, like a good stew, had a lot of time to **mature** into its peculiar flavor. The Spanish culture of New Spain then was a European culture. It was jealous of its European neighbors and had the three social estates of Europe, in order from the top: the Roman Catholic Church, the aristocracy (headed by the Spanish royalty), and the common man. In New Spain there were two more estates: the part Spanish and part Indian "Mestizo" and the Indian. Each estate had its peculiar rights and **deferences**. After independence, the military and European born Spaniard replaced the aristocracy. A "subset" of the Spaniard was the creoles (criollos) who were purebred Spaniards born in the West. In this culture, typically the Spaniards and Creoles owned the land, by grants from the Viceroy of Mexico, and the mestizos and Indians worked it. **After Mexican independence, the creoles and mestizos of relatively high Spanish blood were the landowners and the Indians and mestizos of relatively low Spanish blood worked it.**

American Culture

Americans had broken from the European culture under the premise "All men are created equal." As colonists and then American citizens, they became free and independent men (although women were of junior rank), who developed a character of cooperation and industry. An important part of independence at the time was

ownership of land. In Europe land was owned by the aristocracy and worked by the commoner. But the free Americans were aggressive to tame virgin territory and establish an agricultural economy comprised of individuals of equal status – working the land themselves and with *slaves*. Slavery in the colonization of Texas is treated in the biography of Stephen F. Austin, Appendix F.

The Spanish Failure to Settle Texas

The Spanish became interested in settling Texas only when it learned that there were encroachments of the French of Louisiana across the Sabine into Texas. La Salle's failed settlement didn't bother them. Their strategy to combat the French was to establish missions and forts on Texas' eastern frontier. The missions were to convert the Indians, who were then "reduced" into working the land. That didn't work.

It is important to note that the French didn't intend to settle Texas, but to trade with the Indians. Generally, the French treated the Indians with respect.

EARLY SETTLEMENT OF TEXAS

LaSalle's Colony at Matagorda (from Wikipedia)

Sieur Rene Robert Lasalle was the French explorer who explored the Mississippi river and claimed it and its tributaries for France.

On July 24, 1684, he departed France and returned to America with a large expedition designed to establish a French colony on the Gulf of Mexico, at the mouth of the Mississippi River. They had four ships and 300 colonists. The expedition was plagued by pirates, hostile Indians, and poor navigation. One ship was lost to pirates in the West Indies, a second sank in the inlets of Matagorda Bay. They founded a settlement, near the bay which they called the Bay of Saint Louis, on Garcitas Creek in the vicinity of present-day Victoria, Texas. La Salle led a group eastward on foot on three occasions to try to locate the mouth of the Mississippi. In the meantime, the flagship La Belle, the only remaining ship, ran aground and sank into the mud, stranding the colony on the Texas coast.

The colony lasted only until 1688, when Karankawa-speaking Native Americans killed the 20 remaining adults and took five children as captives. Tonti sent out search missions in 1689 when he learned of the settlers' fate, but failed to find survivors. The children of the colony were later recovered by the Spanish.

Squatters and Filibusters

*The seeds of the conflict were planted during the last years of Spanish rule (1815–21) when Anglo Americans drifted across the Neutral Ground and the eastern bank of the Red River into Spanish territory, squatted on the land, and populated Spanish Texas. More alarming than these illegal residents, who only wanted to "settle and stay," were **filibusters** such as Philip Nolan, who commandeered portions of Spanish lands for personal gain (rustling feral cattle and horses) and political capital. Eventually a **neutral ground** west of the Sabine River was established by agreement with France and Spain, which became a lawless territory.*

Mexican Independence and the Battle of Medina. *(from H. W. Brands)*

The Mexican revolution against Spain began in 1810 with the famous “Cry of (Father) Hidalgo (who was a Mason). Revolt broke out in Mexico proper, and Father Hidalgo sent Jose Gutierrez de Lara as an agent to seek aid from President Madison. Being the President was preparing war against Britain, Madison couldn’t help. But secretary of State James Monroe offered moral help and some cash with more to come with success. Gutierrez and gathered a rag-tag force of men and with silver given him by Hidalgo went to New Orleans and recruited a disaffected American military officer in New Orleans named Augustus McGee. Thus began the Gutierrez-Magee expedition. They led a band of 100 men against Nacogdoches and took it. News of this victory triggered volunteering from the U.S. The army marched toward San Antonio, picking up Tejano and Indian volunteers. They captured Bahia (Goliad) without a struggle. The expedition went on to Bexar (San Antonio) and took it without much effort. “On April 6, 1813, the victors, claiming to speak for the People of the Province of Texas,” declared that “the chains which bound us under the domination of European Spain are forever dissolved...We are free and independent.”

Magee had died earlier in the expedition, leaving Gutierrez as leader. He became despotic, executed some Spanish officers, and made himself “governor” and then “president protector” of the nascent Republic of Texas. This high-handedness caused resentment among his mostly American soldiers, many of whom returned home. *This is indicative of the culture difference between the Spanish and Americans.*

A fresh Royalist army was sent, under General Joaquin Arredondo. At the **Battle of the Medina River**, south of San Antonio, Arredondo crushed the rebels in the

bloodiest battle ever fought in Texas. Of perhaps 1400 rebels, most were executed. Those who fled were hunted down, only a few actually escaped. The bodies of the dead were left on the ground, unburied. Among Arredondo's officers was a nineteen-year-old lieutenant named Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna.

Mexican independence was achieved in 1821. The remnants of the dead of Medina were then found and buried.

Empresarios and Legal Immigration (from The Texas Handbook.)

During the fading years of New Spain, its ruling council, the Cortes, worried about securing their far northern frontier and began to encourage foreign immigration to Texas, including Anglo American colonization. One who was eager to take advantage of a change in Spanish policy was Moses Austin, who received a commission from the Spanish governor of Texas to bring 300 families and establish a colony, becoming an **empresario**. (see Appendix G) thereby rebuilding some of his lost fortune associated with the American Panic of 1819. Upon his death in 1821, his son and heir Stephen Fuller Austin fulfilled his father's vision and became the first empresario of Texas. More of Austin's colony is detailed in Appendix F, his biography.

Mexican Independence

During this time the political situation in New Spain was unsettled due to nationalist movements and Napoleonic disturbances in Europe, ultimately resulting in the end of Spanish rule and the beginning of independence for Mexico. Amid the political chaos, changes by the new Mexican congress concerning immigration reflected their belief that colonization was essential to frontier defense and immigration by Europeans and Anglo Americans should be encouraged. The passage of the Imperial Colonization Law of 1823, although voided after the collapse of Augustin de Iturbide's empire, left Austin's grant intact--the only one granted under this law. The Baron de Bastrop then began to issue land grants to Austin's "Old Three Hundred" families as they became known. (Named in Appendix I)

The Constitution of 1824

The next year, on October 4, 1824, the Mexican congress formulated a new Mexican Constitution that emphasized a federal government, which appealed to the Texans, rather than a centralist one. The new legislature joined the two former Spanish

provinces of Coahuila and Texas into one until the population of Texas was sufficient for a separate state. On March 24, 1825, the new state legislature of Coahuila and Texas passed the Colonization Act of 1825, providing generous terms to prospective colonists, setting off an immediate “Texas land rush.” The majority of immigrants arrived into Mexican Texas largely from the southern United States, many with their slaves in tow. Most established farming communities and were peaceful, law-abiding citizens.

The cotton gin and steamboat had been newly developed by then, making cotton farming lucrative. The steamboat was shallow draft and could navigate shallow rivers. Since the tractor had not been invented, slaves or very cheap labor were necessary for profitable cotton farming.

Concerns of the Mexican Government and the Fredonian Rebellion

As Anglo influence steadily increased during the 1820s, however, Mexican leaders held the conviction that the expansionist United States government was not above making use of the colonists to cause trouble in the hope of acquiring Texas by purchase or revolution. The recent Fredonian Rebellion in 1826 served as evidence for their growing suspicions of Anglo Americans. Led by Impresario Haden Edwards and Benjamin W. Edwards in East Texas, the rebels attempted to inaugurate a war for independence, proclaiming the Republic of Fredonia. The ill-fated movement disintegrated when faced with an overwhelming Mexican force (*instigated by Stephen F. Austin*). The next year suspicions aroused by the Fredonian Rebellion led to Manuel de Mier y Terán’s inspection of the province. He issued an alarming report, which asserted that Mexico’s hold on Texas was precarious. He found that Anglos heavily outnumbered Mexicans in areas east of San Antonio and were only nominally loyal to Mexico. Terán presciently concluded that Mexico must act immediately or “Texas could throw the whole nation into revolution.”

The Law of April 6, 1830

As a result, the Mexican government acted by passing the Law of April 6, 1830. One provision was to **forbid Anglo-American immigration and another was to prohibit the further introduction of slaves**. Although the law angered most colonists, it only slowed immigration and the Peculiar Institution, but did not curb them.

Other provisions of the law, however, led to early disturbances in 1831–32 over **issues of custom duties, land titles, and military authority over civilians**. Confrontations between Mexican troops and Anglo colonists erupted at Anahuac

and Velasco over these concerns, as well as the status of runaway slaves. In the Anahuac disturbances, the Anglo-American attack was led by John Austin and was precipitated by indiscretions by the (*Mexican*) commander, John (Juan) Davis Bradburn. Fighting also broke out at Velasco, where Col. Domingo de Ugartechea attempted to prevent reinforcements and artillery from sailing to Anahuac. Both he and the insurgents suffered severely. Another scrape, the battle of Nacogdoches resulted in the Mexican garrison's evacuation after only nominal resistance; and Col. José Francisco Ruiz, a native of San Antonio, abandoned Fort Tenoxtitlán there without being attacked.

Native Americans (Indians)

During the revolutionary period Native American groups populated and controlled portions of Texas. Amounting to approximately 20,000, they far outnumbered the Anglo settlers and Tejanos—native-born Mexicans living in Texas. Pressure from Anglo settlements during the 1820s and 1830s led to encroachments on tribal lands and frequent raids by the Comanche and other bands. Some groups, such as the Cherokees, were active diplomatically with both Mexico and Anglo settlers and played both sides during the Texas Revolution. Rumors and evidence of collusion between the Cherokees and their Mexican allies led Texans to fear an Indian uprising or an alliance with Mexico. The Tonkawas, living along the Brazos and Colorado rivers, allied themselves with the Texans and served as guides and fighters against more hostile Indian groups. Other tribes, such as the Wichita, however, tried just to avoid entanglements with the developing crisis. The Karankawa were problematic for Austin from the beginning of his colonization.

Amid disturbances in Texas, Antonio López de Santa Anna was leading a liberal revolution in Mexico against centralist President Anastacio Bustamante. The colonists who participated in these early events opposed violations of the Constitution of 1824 and declared that they were merely cooperating by expelling Bustamante's garrisons from Texas. **Actually, the great mass of the colonists had no quarrel with Mexico or Mexicans.** As a gesture of loyalty, they offered the Turtle Bayou Resolutions as explanation of their position, assuring authorities of their support of Federalist Santa Anna and the Constitution of 1824. They wanted no war with Mexico. Tranquility seemed restored when Federalist general José Antonio Mexía, learning of the troubles in Texas, arrived at the Brazos River with a regiment of 400 soldiers. With him was Stephen F. Austin, who had been in Mexico meeting with the state legislature in Saltillo. The empresario spent numerous hours en route, assuring Mexía that the colonists were not intent on rebellion. After enjoying appropriate hospitalities, Mexía sailed away without any bloodshed. One result of

his visit was serious. It had compelled Austin to abandon his policy of aloofness from national party contests. The summer of 1832 closed with Santa Anna's success in Mexico and all Mexican garrisons expelled from Texas except those at San Antonio and Goliad.

Formal Expression of Grievances (*see also Appendix H, The Texas Declaration of Independence*)

In 1832–33 the colonists decided to address their long-standing grievances by holding two meetings: the Convention of 1832 and the Convention of 1833. Earlier, in September 1823, congress had given the colonists certain tariff exemptions for seven years. When this liberal law expired in 1830, it became an issue in the disturbances of 1832. Both conventions adopted petitions asking for exemption of custom duties for another three years. Furthermore, they declared that Texas was able to maintain a stable state government and asked for the separation of Coahuila and Texas. The Convention of 1833 even went so far as to frame a *state* constitution for the approval of congress. The **Law of April 6, 1830**, forbidding immigrants to settle adjacent to their native country, was particularly onerous to the Texans. Though this law was subsequently interpreted to permit continued settlement in the colonies of Austin and Green DeWitt, it remained a menace to the development of Texas. Both conventions petitioned for its repeal. Resolutions by the Convention of 1832 were never delivered, but Austin was chosen to present the petitions of 1833 to the proper authorities in Mexico City.

Arriving in Mexico City on July 13, 1833, Austin found that **Santa Anna had taken over the national government and was elected president**. Curiously, he left the government in the hands of Vice President Valentín Gómez Farías, a liberal Federalist. While Austin received a "kind and friendly" reception, Gómez Farías was suspicious of Texan intentions in Mexico. Aware that the second convention was illegal, Austin was able to utilize his considerable diplomatic contacts to shepherd the petitions properly through the Mexican bureaucracy. But the proposals languished, as they slowly worked their way through congress. Ultimately, both Santa Anna and congress repealed the immigration restrictions, held the tariff plea in abeyance, and urged the state government to grant Texas trial by jury; however, no action was taken on the petition for statehood. Frustrated about his failure to secure separation from Coahuila, Austin penned a letter in October to the ayuntamiento of San Antonio, recommending separate statehood without the approval of the national government. He then journeyed northward to return home. When the letter found its way back to Mexican authorities, **Gómez Farías ordered Austin arrested and imprisoned in Mexico City from January 1834 to July 1835**.

In his brief return to power in April 1834 Santa Anna initially pledged his continued support of the liberal reforms passed by the federal congress and state legislatures.

However, Mexican authorities, powerful clerics, and wealthy hacendados remained suspicious of Texas intentions. In response to these concerns, Juan Nepomuceno Almonte spent the summer surveying conditions in Texas and filed a detailed report of the province. He estimated that the non-Indian population was 21,000, with a growing number of Anglo-American colonists. The settlements, he said, were prospering and the political situation in Texas showed **no evidence of “unrest or disloyalty.”** The recent reforms *of the Act of June 6, 1830* seemed to have reestablished calm in Texas. By the close of the year few observers considered that Texas stood on the verge of revolution.

In 1835 Santa Anna returned to power for the final time. A political opportunist and chameleon, he now aligned himself with powerful opponents of reform, suddenly repudiating liberalism and assuming absolute power. A new Centralist government, *Siete Leyes*, replaced the Constitution of 1824. Elections for a new congress were held, replacing liberal delegates with Centralist supporters of the church and army. Further, congress reduced local militias and dissolved state legislatures, which were replaced with military departments, ruled by a governor appointed by the president.

The overthrow of the liberal constitution (*of 1824*) and the reduction of states' autonomy provoked revolts in several Mexican states. Zacatecas rebelled against the new regime, but Santa Anna brutally crushed it. In the Yucatán the people opposed the Centralist government and separated from Mexico until 1846. Monclova liberals denounced Santa Anna, refused to obey Centralist laws, and raised money by selling public lands to resist the Centralists. Along with these several states, Texas also expressed discontent over the violations of the Constitution of 1824 and this discontent ultimately led to outright rebellion.



A painting of William Barret Travis by Henry McArdle. Courtesy of the Texas State Library and Archives Commission. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

The replacement of the federal government with one based on authoritarian principles, as well as Santa Anna's plan to re-man the military posts, caused great alarm in Texas. The first contingent of soldiers arrived at Anahuac in January 1835 with orders to reestablish the custom house. In June a mail courier brought news that

federal troops under Gen. Martín Perfecto de Cós (*Santa Anna's brother in law*) had amassed large reinforcements and would soon strengthen the standing garrison at San Antonio.

Conflict at Anahuac

This information resulted in a march of armed volunteers against Anahuac led by brother **William B. Travis**. Capt. Antonio Tenorio and a small detachment of Mexican troops surrendered the post without a contest, and superficially, conditions in Texas appeared to return to the status quo. Numerous mass meetings condemned Travis's actions, and through a committee they sent assurances to Cós of their (*Texians'*) loyalty to Mexico. In return Cós demanded the arrest of the troublemakers, including Francis White Johnson and Brothers Lorenzo de Zavala, Samuel Williams, Robert M. Williamson (known as "Three-Legged Willie"), and Travis. Cós further insisted that they be turned over to the military for trial. The colonists refused. Reports continued, however, that Santa Anna was bent upon military occupation of Texas, and a group of colonists published a call for the election of delegates to a convention, or consultation, to meet in October. 1835.



Errez

Causes of the Revolution

With the fight at Gonzales, Texians, along with a sizeable number of Tejanos—prepared for war. But at this juncture, why did affairs in Texas lead to revolution? While the causes of the Texas Revolution are many and complex, historians and contemporaries on both sides have debated the question with varying interpretations. Some scholars assert that economic factors lay behind the revolt. Attracted by cheap land and speculative opportunities so close to their homeland, Anglo Americans promptly pushed across the U.S.-Mexico border and populated the frontier province of Mexican Texas. When **Mexico moved to control immigration** and enforce its laws (*Act of April 6, 1830*), the Texians rebelled in an effort to protect their agricultural and commercial gains. Others trace the rebellion to a **clash of cultures** between Anglos and Mexicans, reinforcing racial stereotypes of morally-superior, Anglo-Texan settlers with democratic traditions triumphing over a despotic, degenerate Mexican race. **Some interpretations place blame on the Texans**, who willfully violated the terms of their land grants, as well as ignored the customs and laws of the country that granted them citizenship. Inevitably, their unlawful actions would bring retributions from Mexico. Another explanation places the responsibility for the revolution on **the failure of Mexico to establish a stable government and the rise of the mercurial dictator Santa Anna**. His turn away from liberal reform and toward centralism alarmed Texians about the future loss of self-government and freedom. **Slavery** has also been cited as an underlying cause of the revolution due to slaveowners' concern with protecting their peculiar institution. Still others assign responsibility to a **conspiracy by U.S. officials to seize Texas** in order to annex the territory to the United States. While President Andrew Jackson at the time certainly wanted Texas and encouraged Sam Houston's interests in the region, there is scant evidence of a planned conspiracy. More recently, some historians view the revolt within the larger context of the Spanish borderlands and the Mexican frontier. A larger civil war was occurring in Mexico when citizens of other Mexican states became discontented with the **dismantling of Mexico's federal republic** and the loss of shared governance. **Open rebellions therefore broke out in several Mexican states, including Texas**. In the final analysis, the Texas Revolution resulted from a complex set of preconditions and "a spark that ignited them." **That spark was Santa Anna's move toward centralism and dictatorship, as well as the impending military occupation of Texas**

PART II - THE WAR

(from The Handbook of Texas)

The Texas Revolution began in October 1835 with the battle of Gonzales and ended on April 21, 1836, with the battle of San Jacinto, but earlier clashes between government forces and frontier colonists make it impossible to set dogmatic limits in terms of military battles, cultural misunderstandings, and political differences that were a part of the revolution.

Enter Santa Anna

It must be stated here, as a very shallow justification, that Santa Anna's massacres of prisoners of war, most famously at the Alamo and Goliad, were done in accordance with Mexican Law. Santa Anna sought and obtained from the Mexican Congress the decree of December 30, 1835, which directed that all foreigners taken in arms against the government should be treated as pirates and shot. He did not execute, though maltreated, the native rebel prisoners taken at Zacatecas in Mexico.

Austin Returns and Begins Participating in the Revolution

By early September 1835 Austin had returned from his long detention in Mexico. Blaming Mexico for the threat to peace and stability, he endorsed the Consultation called for October 15. He also accepted the chairmanship of the Central Committee of Safety at San Felipe, an advisory board to collect and distribute information. Never a radical, Austin effectively became the de facto leader of the Texas cause. From this time forward, only a spark was necessary to set off an explosion.

Before the Consultation could meet, General Cós determined that only military occupation would bring Texas under control. In his proclamation was the hint that he would drive “those ungrateful strangers” out of Texas. On September 20, 1835, Cós landed 500 men at Copano Bay (*several miles north of Corpus Christi*). He formed his troops and then moved inland toward San Antonio, arriving on October 9. News of Cós's movements and intentions led Austin to write that “WAR is our only resource.” He therefore called for the immediate formation of military units and to begin armed resistance.

THE EARLY SUCCESSES IN SOUTH TEXAS

“Come and Take It”

The first armed clash between the Texians—Anglo residents of Mexican Texas—and (*including Tejanos*) Mexican forces occurred at **Gonzales**, located on the Guadalupe River. Due to rising tensions with the Texians, Col. Domingo de Ugartechea, Mexican commander of forces in San Antonio, dispatched a small regiment of soldiers to reclaim a cannon from the citizens of Gonzales. It had been presented, or at the least lent, to them in 1831 for defense against the Indians. Alcalde Andrew Ponton not only refused the demand, arguing that he had no authority to give it up, but also called for other Texans to help. Annoyed by Ponton’s refusal, Ugartechea then ordered Lt. Francisco de Castañeda and 100 dragoons to seize the cannon, forcibly if necessary. Arriving on the west bank of the river on September 29, Castañeda and his troops found the Guadalupe River too high to ford and ferry boats were unavailable. Shouting above the current, Castañeda repeated his demand for the disputed weapon. Meanwhile, about 160 Texas volunteers answered the call to arms and augmented the Gonzales defense composed of only eighteen men. Commanded by John Henry Moore and Joseph W. E. Wallace, the Gonzales defenders stood their ground, placing the cannon on wheels and fashioning a homemade white banner with an image of the cannon with the words: “COME AND TAKE IT.” Crossing the swollen river on October 1, the Texians launched an attack the next morning on the Mexican camp and killed one. Outnumbered and without orders to fight, Castañeda retreated and returned empty-handed to San Antonio. Although just a skirmish, the battle of Gonzales is regarded as the first shots of the Texas Revolution.



Ben Milam. Courtesy of the Texas State Library and Archives Commission. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

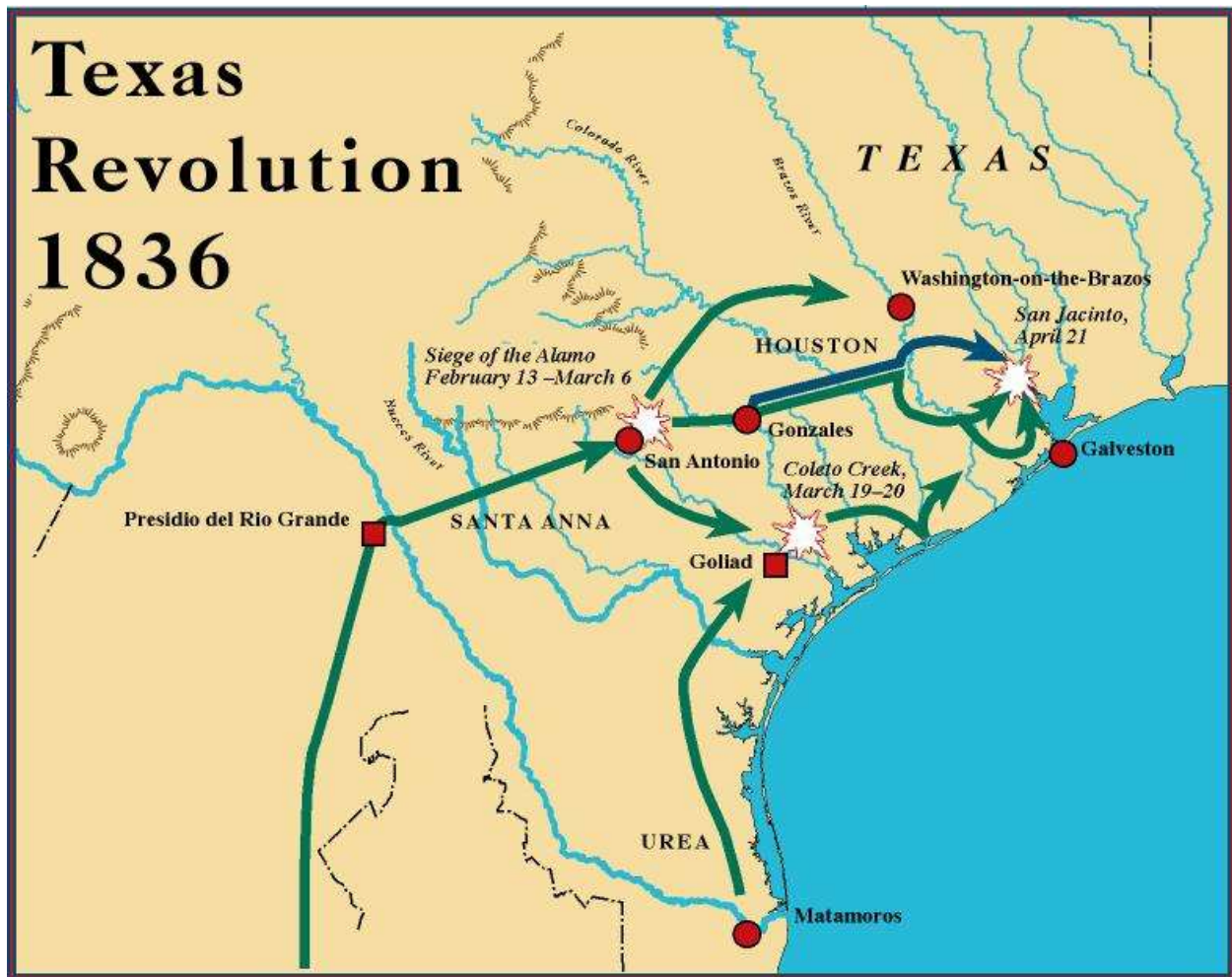
Following the battle of Gonzales, the Texians soon realized that the insurgency could not be sustained without an army. As news of the outbreak of hostilities spread, volunteers joined the men at Gonzales, including **Stephen F. Austin, who commanded** the newly-formed Texan "army". Meanwhile, a force of volunteers led by Capt. George M. Collingsworth attacked Goliad, a settlement and presidio on the road from Copano Bay to San Antonio. The capture of **Goliad**, *its fort*, and its military supplies by the Texians eliminated the Centralist outpost as a threat and left Cós and his troops cut off from the coast. *At least nine Masons fought at Goliad.*

*The Mexican army took two tracks from Mexico into Texas: General Urrea from Matamoros on the Rio Grande and Santa Anna from the interior of Mexico through Presidio del Rio Grande, about 60 miles upriver from Laredo. Losing Goliad, the Mexican army's last link between Matamoros and San Antonio was a garrison at **Lipantitlan**, on the Nueces River near Corpus Christi. On November 5, 1835 a small company of Texans, including four Masons, seized that garrison, cutting off the link between San Antonio (Bexar) and Matamoros.*

On To Bexar (San Antonio)

On October 14, 1835, Austin and his forces, totaling about 300 men, began moving toward San Antonio, which was under the control of General Cós. Arriving on the outskirts of San Antonio on October 20, Austin secured his camp and waited for reinforcements. He later sent James Bowie and James W. Fannin, along with several

companies of men, to stake out a solid defensive position on the San Antonio River not far from Nuestra Señora de la Purísima Concepción de Acuña Mission. On the following morning in the **battle of Concepción** the Texans defeated a combined force of Mexican foot and horse soldiers supported by artillery, with the Mexicans losing twenty-six men to the Texans' one. Despite the victory, Texan officers postponed an assault on San Antonio and awaited supplies and artillery. On November 26 the Texans again faced the Mexicans at a skirmish *near Bexar* known as the **Grass Fight**. Bowie was in command, but this time with Edward Burleson, who had assumed Austin's command when *Austin* was made commissioner to the United States by the provisional government. The Texans forced the Mexicans to retreat, killing fifty of them in the process, with only two Texans wounded. The climax of the siege of Béxar came on December 5. Learning that Burleson was considering withdrawal to Goliad, Benjamin R. Milam raised the defiant cry: "Who will go to San Antonio with old Ben Milam?" Three hundred volunteers answered the call. The attack was led by Frank (Francis W.) Johnson and joined by Juan N. Seguín and a company of Tejanos. After three days of house-to-house fighting, Milam fell, but San Antonio was the prize of the Texans. Cós hoisted a white flag and surrendered, giving up all the public property, arms, and supplies in the city. The terms of the cease-fire further required the Mexican commander and his men to retreat beyond the Rio Grande and promise never to oppose the reestablishment of the Constitution of 1824.



SANTA ANNA'S VICTORIES OVER THE TEXANS

Following the victories of 1835, Texan fortunes took a decided turn for the worst. Mexican General Urrea marching from the south retook San Patricio. The Texan army was disintegrating and Sam Houston, appointed commander-in-chief, led a nonexistent “regular army.” The provisional government was also in anarchy, with delegates angrily disagreeing over what they were trying to accomplish: independence or restore the Constitution of 1824? While the Texans were arguing and debating, Santa Anna, in his role as generalissimo, declared that the Texas colonists were in rebellion and that he would personally lead an expedition against them. As he moved northward toward the Rio Grande, Santa Anna gathered additional soldiers, and by mid-February 1836, he had amassed a formidable force of more than 6,000 men. He was on a punitive expedition, conducted in much the same way as that against the Zacatecans. His plan was simple and direct: he would

crush insurgency in Texas with the force of a hammer, treating all in arms against his government as mere pirates. The quelling of piracy, after all, required no mercy. The only hope was a new convention, called by the General Council, to meet on March 1, 1836, at Washington-on-the-Brazos, to debate independence, and if successful, frame a new constitution and select an interim government.

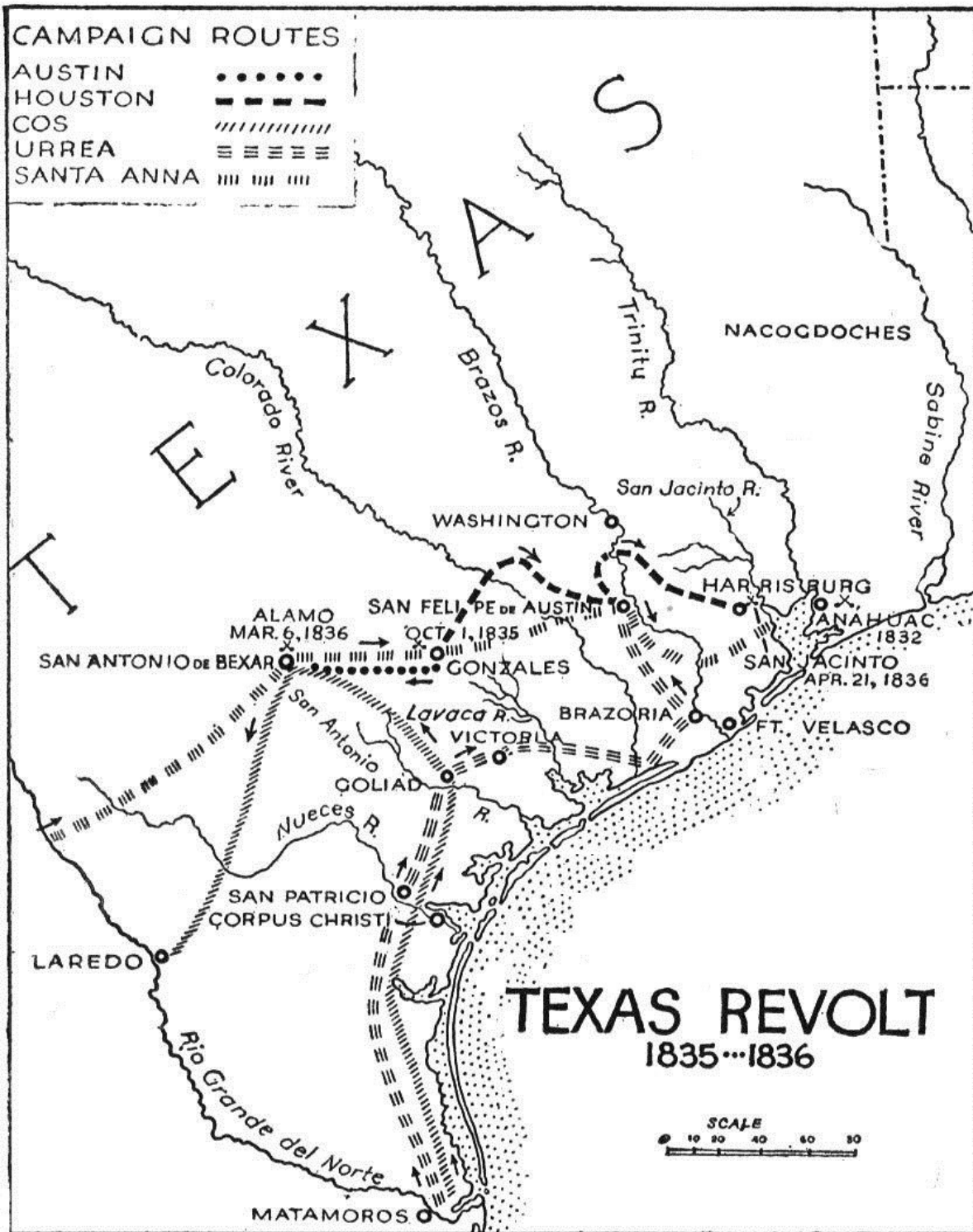
On February 16, 1836, the Mexican army, eventually growing to more than 8,000 troops, crossed the Rio Grande and moved toward San Antonio, a journey *northeast* of about 150 miles. Unfortunately for Santa Anna's army, his logistical support was sparse. He apparently had hoped to supplement his supplies by living off the land, but the area south of San Antonio could not sustain him. Furthermore, the weather that spring was unusually cold and wet. Some of Santa Anna's troops, recruited from the Yucatán, died of hypothermia. Meanwhile, in San Antonio, the few Texans remaining retreated inside the confines of the mission San Antonio de Valero, in time known simply as the Alamo.



Painting, Dawn at the Alamo, by Henry Arthur McArdle, hanging in the Senate Chamber of the Texas State Capitol in Austin, Texas. Courtesy of the Library of Congress. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

On February, 23, 1836, Santa Anna's advance force arrived in San Antonio and began preparations for a siege. Santa Anna ordered the raising of a red flag atop the San Fernando Church, signifying no quarter and demanded that the Texans surrender unconditionally. Travis replied with a cannon volley. For thirteen days, (February 23–March 6) the Texans held their position behind the inadequate defenses of the

mission, while awaiting reinforcements. Travis sent an urgent plea for help to “the People of Texas and All Americans in the World...I shall never surrender or retreat...VICTORY or DEATH.” Juan Seguin and other scouts rode through the Mexican lines and carried messages for help. James Fannin, commander of a sizeable force of about 400 men at Goliad, started for San Antonio, but returned to his fort. A few others trickled in, including David Crockett with his Tennessee volunteers and Albert Martin with thirty-two men from Gonzales, who slipped over the Alamo walls on March 1. It soon became apparent that Santa Anna not only wanted San Antonio as a Mexican outpost, but also desired the utter destruction of the Texas defenders, whom he wanted to make an example.



Campaigns of the Texas Revolution Map, original image drawn by Joseph L. Cain. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

The final assault on the Alamo occurred at dawn on March 6, 1836. Santa Anna, with approximately 1,800 men, chose to force the issue with a bloody attack, as the *degüello* played—a bugle call indicating no quarter to the enemy; all were to die. The Texans, surrounded and outnumbered by ten to one, were overwhelmed by sheer force of numbers. In bitter fighting, within about an hour, all of the defenders—Travis, Bowie, Crockett, Bonham, Tejanos Juan Abamillo and José Esparza and others--perished either in battle or by execution. Historians differ on the exact number of fallen Texans, from 182 to 189, even as high as 257. Mexican officer José Enrique de la Peña later claimed that David Crockett was captured and then executed by Santa Anna. The exact fate of Crockett's death is still debated. Santa Anna lost some 600 of his men, or roughly a third of his assault force. Several Alamo noncombatants were spared. Among them were Susanna Wilkerson Dickinson, her small child Angelina, six Bexareñas, and Travis's slave Joe, who watched the battle from a hiding place. The women were taken before Santa Anna for interrogation, received two silver pesos and a blanket, and released. Dickinson traveled to Gonzales to inform General Houston of the fate of the Alamo defenders. Joe also stood before Santa Anna, who questioned him about the rebel army, and then abruptly dismissed him under guard. Joe successfully evaded his imprisonment and escaped, joining Dickinson on the road to Gonzales. To be sure, the generalissimo was delighted, calling the battle "a small affair," but little had been gained save the destruction of the mission, and that success could have come without the gory price. Furthermore, though the Alamo story initially struck fear in the hearts of the Texans, it subsequently led to a relentless thirst for vengeance.

Heroism and courage occurred on both sides of the battle of the Alamo. At the same time both sides should have avoided the fight. For Santa Anna it was not strategically important to his battle plans. San Antonio did not control land or water routes into Texas or even lines of communication. The Texan defense stood on a triangle; on the west was San Antonio, on the south was San Patricio, and on the northeast was La Bahía (Goliad). Militarily speaking, Goliad was the main prize for the self-styled Napoleon of the West. It held approximately 400 insurgents under the command of Fannin, while a divided command under Bowie and William B. Travis at the Alamo comprised only about 150 men, with some 30 more reinforcements. If Santa Anna had bypassed San Antonio and marched into the settlements to the east, he would have controlled the heavier populated areas, leaving few pockets of resistance, and saving precious time, critical supplies, and men's lives. Further, by targeting the Alamo, he delayed his planned march eastward by several weeks, allowing Travis's stand to become a cause to rally the Texans. Military considerations aside, the general was also determined to march on San Antonio, in part, because of the humiliation visited upon his family by the defeat of

his son-in-law Cós, as well as a desire to restore control of an important center of Texan resistance and teach the insurgents a lesson.

Strategically, the defenders at the Alamo also should have withdrawn from the grounds of the mission San Antonio de Valero. Recognizing the weak position of the outpost, Sam Houston had ordered Col. James C. Neill, Alamo commander, to remove all military supplies, withdraw the garrison, and destroy the Alamo. There were too few soldiers to man such a long—nearly a quarter of a mile—perimeter against a force of more than several thousand. The mission walls, although strong, were never built to serve as a fort and could not withstand the Mexican artillery indefinitely. Further, there was no redoubt to command the entire fort and one wall was still incomplete. While appeals for reinforcements were received, for the most part they were futile. Despite the hopelessness of the conditions, Neill and Bowie recognized the symbolic importance of the Alamo and elected to stay, while Travis wrote: “We consider death preferable to disgrace which would be the result of giving up the Post which has been so dearly won.”



The Runaway Scrape. Courtesy of the San Jacinto Museum of History. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

As news of the fall of the Alamo spread, the Runaway Scrape—a mass exodus of settlers ahead of the Mexican army—ensued. Largely a female event due to the absence of men who had joined the Texan army, thousands of civilians—men, women, children, and slaves—fled their homes and evacuated eastward toward the Sabine River. Hardships, suffering, epidemics, and loss took their toll on many along the way. The roads were choked with those fleeing for their lives; the rivers were swollen and impassable; and children were lost along the way. Once the hostilities ended and they could safely return to their homes, they found their homes plundered and burned, their property and crops destroyed.

Simultaneously with Santa Anna's progress, cutting across the Rio Grande at Matamoros was a smaller force under Gen. José de Urrea, a canny fighter and inspiring leader, who, though a Federalist, put his politics aside and delivered a

devastating blow to the Texan heartland. Urrea captured San Patricio with a swift thrust that caught the Texans by surprise. This success was followed by another at the **battle of Agua Dulce Creek**, in which Dr. James Grant was defeated and killed. In short order, Urrea also descended upon Lt. Col. William Ward's party. But these actions, though significant in themselves, were incidental matters to Urrea, who was bound for Goliad. Fannin had gathered men to attack Matamoros, despite Houston's opposition. When he heard that Urrea already had consolidated that position, he changed his mind and fell back to Goliad. Houston had earlier ordered him to relieve the men at the Alamo, but by March 14 rescinded that order and issued a new one. Fannin was to proceed with his entire command to Victoria, where a linking of forces would occur. However, learning that Ward and Aaron King and all their men had been defeated by Urrea, Fannin vacillated between defending Goliad and retreating to Victoria. Finally, on March 19, he decided too late to leave Presidio La Bahía and move toward Houston. Urrea immediately set out in pursuit. Fannin, fearing the exhaustion of his men and animals, halted after a march of only six miles. The Texans were not far from **Coletto Creek** with its water and protective tree line when Urrea's cavalry appeared, blocked Fannin's path, and seized the creek. When Urrea's main body arrived, Fannin could only form a square and wait. The next morning Urrea received reinforcements, including artillery. As Mexican cannons leveled their guns on the Texans and the Mexican infantry formed attack columns, Fannin accepted the inevitable and asked for terms. He received what he, at least, regarded as an assurance that his army would be treated honorably as prisoners of war. The Texans were marched back to Goliad, imprisoned, and assured of their release. Upon hearing the terms of surrender, Santa Anna countermanded them and issued orders for their execution. On March 27 approximately 350 Texans were killed, while those who escaped took word of the massacre back east to Houston.

As the siege of the Alamo and the massacre at Goliad played out, fifty-eight delegates to a constitutional convention convened on March 1, 1836, at Washington-on-the-Brazos. The next day, March 2, those assembled declared Texas independence, including three Tejanos, Antonio Navarro, Lorenzo de Zavala, and José Francisco Ruiz. They also prepared a constitution for the new Republic of Texas. The document, adopted on March 17, created a federal form of government, composed of three branches of government, **and guaranteed protection of slavery**. They then chose leaders for an interim government until elections could be held. David G. Burnett was named interim president and Lorenzo de Zavala became vice president. The convention also took steps to address the emergency, naming Sam Houston as commander-in-chief with authority to raise a Texas army.

Throughout the revolt the Texas army faced manpower problems, frequently leaving the ranks of Houston's forces short-handed. Not all Texans supported the insurgency against Mexico and often dodged military service or dissented. Referred to as "Tories," they included prominent citizens and others who held financial ties to Mexico and hoped for a peaceful settlement. Despite a divided population, volunteers typically came from the ranks of Texians, Anglo-Americans from the United States; Tejanos such as Juan Seguin, who led the Tejano cavalry and fought at San Jacinto; and a few black Texans, who acted as spies for Houston. Many of the Anglo men who served were "citizen soldiers" who would fight in times of crisis and then return home to take care of their families and farms. During the chaotic Runaway Scrape, soldiers became concerned for the safety of their families and often left their posts to rejoin them. Men also "came and went" due to illness, reassignment, or frustration with the lack of adequate supplies and political wrangling. As a consequence, the Texas army was often numerically inferior on the battlefields. Both the defeats at the Alamo and Goliad resulted from too few recruits who were overwhelmed by superior enemy forces. While exact numbers of the strength of the armies are unknown, estimates place Houston's army at about 1,200 during March–April, 1836, with 900 battle troops engaged at San Jacinto with an additional 250 as rear guard. Santa Anna's massive force numbered approximately 6,000, which he divided among his generals, leaving the Mexican army at San Jacinto with about 1,300 and thus saving Houston from facing the full force of his attack.

Although noncombatants, women also did what they could to support the Texas army on or near the battlefields. Many replaced the men who had joined the army by running farms and plantations. Others such as Dilue Rose Harris melted lead in a pot to mold bullets for the army. Still others nursed the sick and wounded at the Alamo, such as María Andrea Castañon Villanueva (known as Madam Candelaria), while Pamela Mann placed her oxen in service to the army.

With the fall of the Alamo, Santa Anna assumed that the war was over, and the news of Goliad only confirmed his view. It was necessary for his officers to convince him that the job was not yet finished; he still had to run down Houston and the remaining Texan forces. Finally accepting their remonstrations, he planned a three-pronged offensive through East Texas. Gen. Antonio Gaona was initially to take a northerly route via Bastrop toward Nacogdoches, but shortly thereafter Santa Anna ordered him instead to proceed from Bastrop toward San Felipe. Gen. Joaquín Ramírez y Sesma was also ordered to San Felipe, whence he would strike in an easterly direction with the probable destination of Anahuac. Sesma's troops were to act as the spearhead of the thrust. Finally, Urrea was to secure the right flank of these

movements while maintaining a northerly route in the hope of joining the main forces should a mass formation be necessary. Houston was thus to be snared, his army crushed or captured, and the rebellion finished.

On March 20 Sesma, in torrid pursuit of Houston, but at the head of only 800 men, reached the Colorado River. Houston's army at this time probably outnumbered the Mexicans, but the Texas general refused to fight, for several reasons. He realized that although his army was patriotically motivated, it was poorly-trained. Furthermore, his enemy had artillery, and he did not. Finally, Santa Anna's plan allowed for rapid communication and consequently quick reinforcements. Houston believed that he could not risk it, for if he lost, there would be nothing to stop Santa Anna from marching unimpeded across Texas. In Houston's mind, nothing less was at stake than independent nationhood. Nevertheless, disappointed that he did not attack, a number of his troops began to question his leadership, and a discipline problem developed that lasted all the way to San Jacinto.

SAN JACINTO AND INDEPENDENCE

The Battle Develops

When Houston learned of Fannin's destruction, his withdrawal became a retreat, and he turned northward toward the Brazos River and Jared Groce's plantation. **Houston went by way of San Felipe de Austin, which he torched.** By now, his disgruntled force had shrunk to no more than 800 men. Some allege that Houston wanted to retreat as far as the Trinity River, others that he merely intended to teach his little army the fundamentals of the drill while waiting for reinforcements. In either event, captains Wyly Martin and Moseley Baker balked, claiming that they would fight the enemy on their own. Houston solved the problem by ordering these men and their followers to establish a rear guard to hold up a Mexican advance. But discontent came not only from the ranks, but from the government. Houston was strongly criticized by President David G. Burnet as well. In the meantime, Burnet and his cabinet fled New Washington, the most recent capital of the new government, for Harrisburg (*present day Houston*). Time passed slowly at Groce's plantation, but the troops did receive the rudiments of battlefield drill and formation. The weather remained terrible, and disease became a problem. In these troubles, Houston's command was buttressed by two loyal supporters, Col. Thomas J. Rusk and Col. Edward Burleson.

Upon hearing of Burnet's flight, Santa Anna also decided to move on Harrisburg. Because of this error he lost sight of his objective—Houston's army. In addition, this pursuit meant that he would be required to divide his force further. Nevertheless, Santa Anna decided on the chase and personally led the advancing force. When he arrived in Harrisburg, Santa Anna discovered that the Texas government had fled again, so he ordered Col. Juan N. Almonte ahead. Almonte nearly succeeded in capturing the escaping officials. By now, however, Houston was on the move again, this time to the east. At the fork between the road to Nacogdoches and that to Harrisburg, the army swung toward the latter, and the character of the campaign changed. Houston, who had been slow and deliberate in his manner, now became swift and animated, and his strike toward Harrisburg resembled a forced march. On the way, he intercepted Mexican couriers, from whom he learned the location and size of Santa Anna's force. Gathering his men around him, Houston eloquently addressed them and called upon them to “Remember the Alamo!” and “Remember Goliad!”



Painting, The Battle of San Jacinto (1895) by Henry Arthur McArdle. Courtesy of the Texas State Library and Archives Commission. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

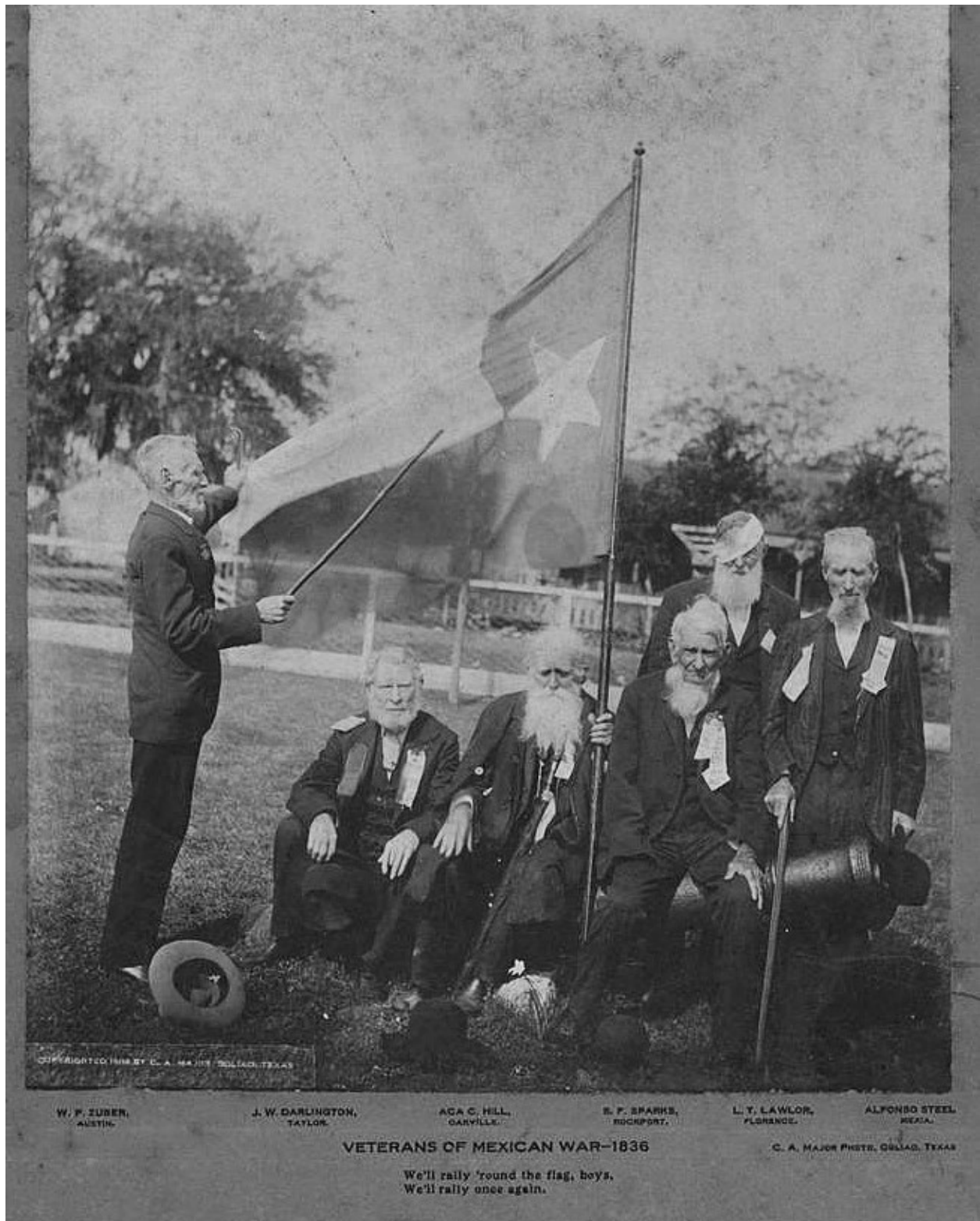
By now, both Houston and Santa Anna, on separate roads, were headed for Lynch's Ferry on the San Jacinto River. Still concerned about reinforcements, for he knew that General Cós would soon join his adversary, Houston crossed and then destroyed Vince's Bridge. During the remainder of the campaign, the possibility of Mexican reinforcements was never far from his mind. The Texans reached Lynch's Ferry, at the confluence of the San Jacinto River and Buffalo Bayou. On the banks

of both bodies of water was marshland, flanked by heavy foliage, mostly live oak, spread laterally. By this time Houston had received much-needed artillery, in the form of two six-pound cannons, the “Twin Sisters,” presented by the citizens of Cincinnati, Ohio, in support of the Texan cause. On April 20 in the tree line beside Buffalo Bayou, Houston aligned his force. Later the same day, Santa Anna's army, surprised by the Texan presence, also arrived. In the late afternoon, there was a brief, but sharp clash, between elements of the two armies, but nothing serious developed. Apparently, Santa Anna decided to wait for reinforcements, which arrived the following morning in the form of Cós's command.

Meanwhile Houston held his first council of war, wherein the merits of an offensive or defensive battle were debated. Some were critical of Houston's continual delays and retreat, while others suggested that he feared a fight.

The Battle

On the afternoon of April 21, Houston finally issued attack orders to his small force of around 900 men to face Santa Anna's army, numbering approximately 1,300 men. Santa Anna had concluded that the Texans were on the defensive, and he permitted his troops to retire to their tents and rest in preparation for an offensive attack the next day. Because of this costly miscalculation, Houston surprised and completely overran the enemy. While the battle lasted only eighteen minutes, the killing continued until twilight, hours after the battle was over. Despite Houston's order to end the slaughter and take prisoners, virtually the entire Mexican army was killed, scattered, or captured. In effect, the Mexicans lost everything, including 630 soldiers dead, 730 captured, and 280 wounded. The Texans, by comparison, lost 9 men with 34 wounded. Santa Anna, commander-in-chief and president of Mexico, managed to escape. He was found the next day and brought before General Houston, who was wounded and leaning against a tree. On Houston's command Santa Anna ordered his second-in-command, General Vicente Filisola, to withdraw all his troops from Texas and never return. If the Mexican army had remained in Texas, it is probable that the war would have continued. Many Texans wanted Santa Anna's life, but Houston, aware of the Mexican general's value alive, spared him.



Photograph of Last reunion of Veterans of the 1836 Army of the Republic of Texas, held April 21, 1906 at Goliad by C. A. Major. Pictured are William Physick Zuber of Austin, John Washington Darlington of Taylor, Aca C. Hill of Oakville, Stephen Franklin Sparks of Rockport, L. T. Lawlor of Florence, and Alfonso Steele of Mexia. All of these men participated in the Battle of San Jacinto, as well as other battles.

Courtesy of the Bee County Historical Commission, Beeville, Texas. Image available on the Internet and included in accordance with Title 17 U.S.C. Section 107.

Legalizing Independence

Two treaties of Velasco, one public, the other secret, officially concluded the revolt. The first was published as soon as possible, and its contents held conditions very favorable to Texas. By its terms, Texas independence was recognized, hostilities were ended, the Mexican army retired beyond the Rio Grande, confiscated property would be restored, and prisoners would be exchanged. The secret treaty agreed to Santa Anna's release in exchange for his promise that he would do all he could to secure within the Mexican government the provisions of the public treaty, as well as their enforcement. Santa Anna agreed, however, the remaining Mexican government refused to accept these terms.

The stunning victory at San Jacinto brought an immediate end to hostilities, independence for Texas, and the birth of the Republic of Texas. However, due to the brevity of the rebellion—about seven months—the Texas Revolution did not wrench apart for Texans the political and social order. Lacking any profound restructuring of society, some historians question whether it was a revolution at all, especially for those of Hispanic or African descent, as well as women. Further, in light of uprisings in several Mexican states at the time, the revolt and emergence of an independent Texas has been viewed by other scholars as actually part of a regional separatist movement. Whether revolution or evolution, Texas became not only a de facto state, but also a de jure state in the eyes of many nations. For the future, the Texas Revolution would hold wide-sweeping significance for the people of Texas, leading to a challenging, but brief experiment with nationhood, the Mexican War, annexation to the United States, and U.S. acquisition of almost one-third of the territory of the American Southwest.

Sealing the Deal?

President Andrew Jackson requested of Sam Houston that Santa Anna be sent to Washington DC, which Houston did in November 1836. The purpose was to politically secure Texas independence. It is said that the U.S. offered money to Mexico to that effect. The United States recognized Texas independence on March 3, 1837, the day before President Andrew Jackson left office. But Mexico refused

recognition, considering Texas a rebel province. Texas attempted negotiations with Mexico, without success, and both sides came close to war several times in the following years. The two governments sent raids against each other, but Mexico never had the financial resources to mount a full-scale reconquest.

Meanwhile, the issue of Texas annexation became a dividing line in U.S. politics. The Van Buren administration (1837-1841) opposed Texas annexation. The Tyler administration (1841-1845) supported annexation, but Tyler's Whig Party opposed it. Texas annexation brought a "dark horse" candidate, James Knox Polk, the Democratic nomination for president in 1844. Polk won the election, and while he waited to take office, President Tyler opened negotiations for Texas to enter the United States. Polk completed the annexation on December 29, 1845.

Mexico considered this an act of war. Almonte, as ambassador to the United States, broke off diplomatic relations, and the two sides moved their armies to the region. General Zachary Taylor's army crossed into a disputed zone, and war came when the two armies shed blood in that disputed zone in 1846. U.S. forces captured Mexico City in September 1847. In the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed on February 2, 1848, Mexico recognized the United States's annexation of Texas, and sold the present-day southwestern United States.

BIBLIOGRAPHY for Texas Handbook information:

Eugene C. Barker, *The Life of Stephen F. Austin* (Nashville: Cokesbury Press, 1925; rpt., Austin: Texas State Historical Association, 1949; New York: AMS Press, 1970). William C. Binkley, *The Texas Revolution* (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1952; rpt., Austin: Texas State Historical Association, 1979). Gregg Cantrell, *Stephen F. Austin, Empresario of Texas* (New Haven: Yale University Press 1999). James E. Crisp, *Sleuthing the Alamo: Davy Crockett's Last Stand and Other Mysteries of the Texas Revolution* (New York: Oxford University Press, 2005). Jesús F. de la Teja, ed., *Tejano Leadership in Mexican Revolutionary Texas* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 2010). Stephen L. Hardin, *Texian Iliad: A Military History of the Texas Revolution* (Austin: University of Texas Press, 1994). James L. Haley, *Sam Houston* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2002). Sam W. Haynes and Gerald D. Saxon, eds., *Contested Empire: Rethinking the Texas Revolution* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 2015). Marquis James, *The Raven: A Biography of Sam Houston* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1929; rpts., New York: Paperback Library, 1967, Atlanta: Mockingbird Books, 1977). Ron J. Jackson, Jr., and Lee Spencer White, *Joe the Slave Who Became an Alamo Legend* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 2015). Paul D. Lack, *The Texas Revolutionary Experience: A Political and Social History* (College Station: Texas A&M University Press, 1992).

Walter Lord, *A Time to Stand: The Epic of the Alamo* (Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press, 1961; 1978). James W. Pohl, *The Battle of San Jacinto* (Austin: Texas State Historical Association Press, 1989). James W. Pohl and Stephen L. Hardin, "The Military History of the Texas Revolution: An Overview," *Southwestern Historical Quarterly* 89 (January 1986). Ben H. Procter, *The Battle of the Alamo* (Austin: Texas State Historical Association, 1986). Randy Roberts and James A. Olson, *A Line in the Sand: The Alamo in Blood and Memory* (New York: Free Press, 2001). Antonio López de Santa Anna, et al., *The Mexican Side of the Texan Revolution*, trans. Carlos E. Castañeda (Dallas: Turner, 1928; 2d ed., Austin: Graphic Ideas, 1970). Mary L. Scheer, ed., *Women and the Texas Revolution* (Denton: University of North Texas Press, 2012). David M. Vigness, *Revolutionary Decades: The Saga of Texas, 1810–1836* (Austin: Steck-Vaughn, 1965). David J. Weber, *The Mexican Frontier, 1821–1846* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1982). Richard Bruce Winders, *Sacrificed at the Alamo: Tragedy and Triumph in the Texas Revolution* (Abilene: State House Press, 2004).

APPENDIX A MASONRY / FREEMASONRY

Masonry or freemasonry is the oldest and was at times the most powerful organization on earth. The Kings of England were heads of the Grand Lodge of England, many U.S. Presidents, and many leaders of Mexico including the infamous Santa Anna. Most of the founders of the Republic of Texas were Masons, hence the title of this work.

Early Masons

Early masons in England and Scotland organized themselves in the eleventh century. There were also masonic guilds in continental Europe, predominantly in Germany. The original fraternity of the Masons of today was that of actual masons, who are called “operative” Masons. They designed and erected buildings of stone primarily in the Middle Ages. Those operative Masons took stones from quarries, cut and refined them, and assembled them into buildings. There were the *master masons* who designed and/or supervised construction, journeymen or *fellows of the craft* masons who did the actual construction, and *apprentices*. Current Masons are now considered “Speculative” Masons, but the nobility also belonged earlier masonic organizations.

Many of the buildings constructed by those operative masons still stand, including churches and cathedrals, castles, mansions, London Bridge and educational edifices. Many trades had *guilds*, including masonry, carpentry, metal smithing and other manual and commercial trades. Guilds flourished in Europe between the 11th and 16th centuries and formed an important part of the economic and social fabric in that era. Functions of guilds were training of apprentices, setting wages, morality, faith and rules of conduct, and often lodging. The guilds often had secret codes of recognition and often secret operative methods of the respective trades. Operative masons were often required to travel, and they constructed lodges: huts to store their tools. When traveling early Masons would stay at inns or residences of friends and family. Today Masonic groups and their buildings are called *Lodges*. Later non-craft gentlemen were permitted to join masonic lodges, and they are known as *speculative* masons. Nearly all Masons of today are speculative.

Masons or Freemasons?

Early masons used hard stone for the main structure and soft or “free stone” for the detail, akin to sculpting. The latter masons were called “free stone masons”, then “freemasons.” The freemasons were the rarest and most skilled of masons and received higher wages. Later all of the fraternity of Masons were called Freemasons. Thus today, Masonry is called either “Masonry” or “Freemasonry.” There are other theories for the name Freemasons, but this is the most reasonable.

Characteristics of Freemasonry

Objective Primarily the object of Freemasonry is to take a good man and make him better.

Secrecy The secrecy in Masonry was born of necessity, being often assaulted by the Roman Catholic Church and the government. The Catholic Church was supreme in England until 1534, when King Henry VIII broke from it and formed the Church of England (Anglican or Episcopal). The Pope had issued several edicts (Bulls) condemning the fraternity of Masons, and governments frequently outlawed Freemasonry.

Wages & Taxation The government at one time set maximum wages of most trades, including masons. However due to the law of supply and demand, the maximum wages and other limitations on masons were often ignored. For these reasons, until 1717 when the *Grand Lodge of England* was formed most Masonic Lodges remained clandestine and had secret signs and passwords to identify one another.

Liberal Deism One common principle and requirement of lodges in English speaking countries is the belief in a Supreme Being, who in Masonry is referred the Supreme Architect of the Universe. Encyclopedia Britannica defines Deism as:

“An unorthodox religious attitude that found expression among a group of English writers beginning in the first half of the 17th century and ending in the middle of the 18th century. These writers subsequently inspired a similar religious attitude in Europe during the second half of the 18th century and in the colonial United States of America in the late 18th and early 19th centuries. In general, Deism refers to what can be called natural religion, the acceptance of a certain body of religious knowledge that is inborn in every person or that can be acquired by the use of reason and the

rejection of religious knowledge when it is acquired through either revelation or the teaching of any church.”

By “liberal deism” is meant that in the Lodge only God is referred to as “The Supreme Architect of the Universe”, but individual Brothers maintain their monotheistic religious beliefs. *Deism survives in Masonry probably because its philosophy flourished at the time of the emergence of the proliferation of Freemasonry. (Author’s note)*

Peace and Harmony is essential in the Lodge. Religious and political debate is not permitted, and strife between Brothers is strongly forbidden.

Dedication to Orphans and Brothers’ Widows – orphanages were authorized and maintained in Grand Lodges, there are few if any still operative due to low numbers and other, primarily religious institutions. All widows are invited to attend open Lodge functions and given assistance as necessary.

Charity – Masonic charities are varied, but primarily are dedicated to education. Outstanding students are given scholarships and specific assistance is given to needy children. The first public schools in the Republic of Texas were in Masonic Lodges.

The Degrees and Rites of Speculative Masonry

A degree in Masonry expounds morality, faith, and loyalty and consists first of an initiation including the taking of an obligation, then committing the initiation rite to memory, and completion by repeating the work by questioning before a formal meeting of the lodge. Once completing the third degree, a Brother (Mason) is a Master Mason for the rest of his life, he need not take any further degrees. Lodges open to all Master Masons are called “blue” lodges. The first three degrees are involved with the building of King Solomon’s Temple, which is Freemasonry’s main symbol.


A rite of freemasonry consists of lodges each having a unique set of degrees beyond the first three; e.g., Scottish Rite, York Rite, The Grand Orient of France. A country may have several rites. Every rite requires the same basic three degrees, taken in sequence: Entered Apprentice, Fellowcraft, and Master Mason (the “third degree”), but the content of these degrees (fourth and further) varies among grand lodges and orients.

The **structure of a blue lodge** has its leader, the Master. Under him is the Senior and Junior Wardens and officers of lesser rank.

Grand Lodges

The parent body of Masonic lodges in English speaking countries is the *Grand Lodge*. In some other countries it is the *Orient*. In many countries the Grand Lodge or Orient includes the entire country. In the United States, each state has its independent Grand Lodge; e.g. The Grand Lodge of Texas.

Each rite has its own set of degrees, varying in number. For example, the Scottish Rite has 33 degrees, the highest of which is reserved as a high honor. The York Rite consists of three sub-rites: Chapter of Royal Arch Masons (4 degrees), Council of Royal and Select Masters (3 degrees), Commandery of Knights Templar (4 degrees).

The main symbol of Freemasonry  is called the “Square and Compasses”, being the essential tools of operative masons. The “G” represents God. However, certain lodges and orients permit atheism, in many of the symbols of those fraternities the “G” does not appear. Rites beyond the Blue Lodges have symbols of their own, but the Square and Compasses are always included.

MASONRY IN ENGLAND

THE REGIUS MANUSCRIPT/POEM ca. 1390. One of the oldest Masonic documents to be discovered, it was written between 1350 and 1450 and has been dated by authorities at about 1390. It is in the form of an epic poem and was probably the work of a priest or monk who had access to older Masonic documents. These manuscripts exist today in the British Museum. In 1840 James Halliwell, a non-Mason, translated this document from middle to modern English and codified into 15 rules (Articles) for master masons and 15 rules (Points of the Plural Constitutions) for journeymen, regarding geometry as a fundamental of masonry, and professionalism, faith, morals and other conduct. It is the first of several early “Old Charges”. In that era, England was Roman Catholic and the Manuscripts reflect the influence thereof.

APPENDIX B - THE EUROPEAN OCCUPATION OF NORTH AMERICA THRU THE MEXICAN REVOLUTION

Texas was originally part of New Spain, then of Mexico. A part of East Texas was briefly held by France.

Europeans Claim the Americas

Figures 1, 2, and 3 depict the areas of European possessions thru the Mexican War of Independence.



Figure 1, North America in 1750 Wikipedia

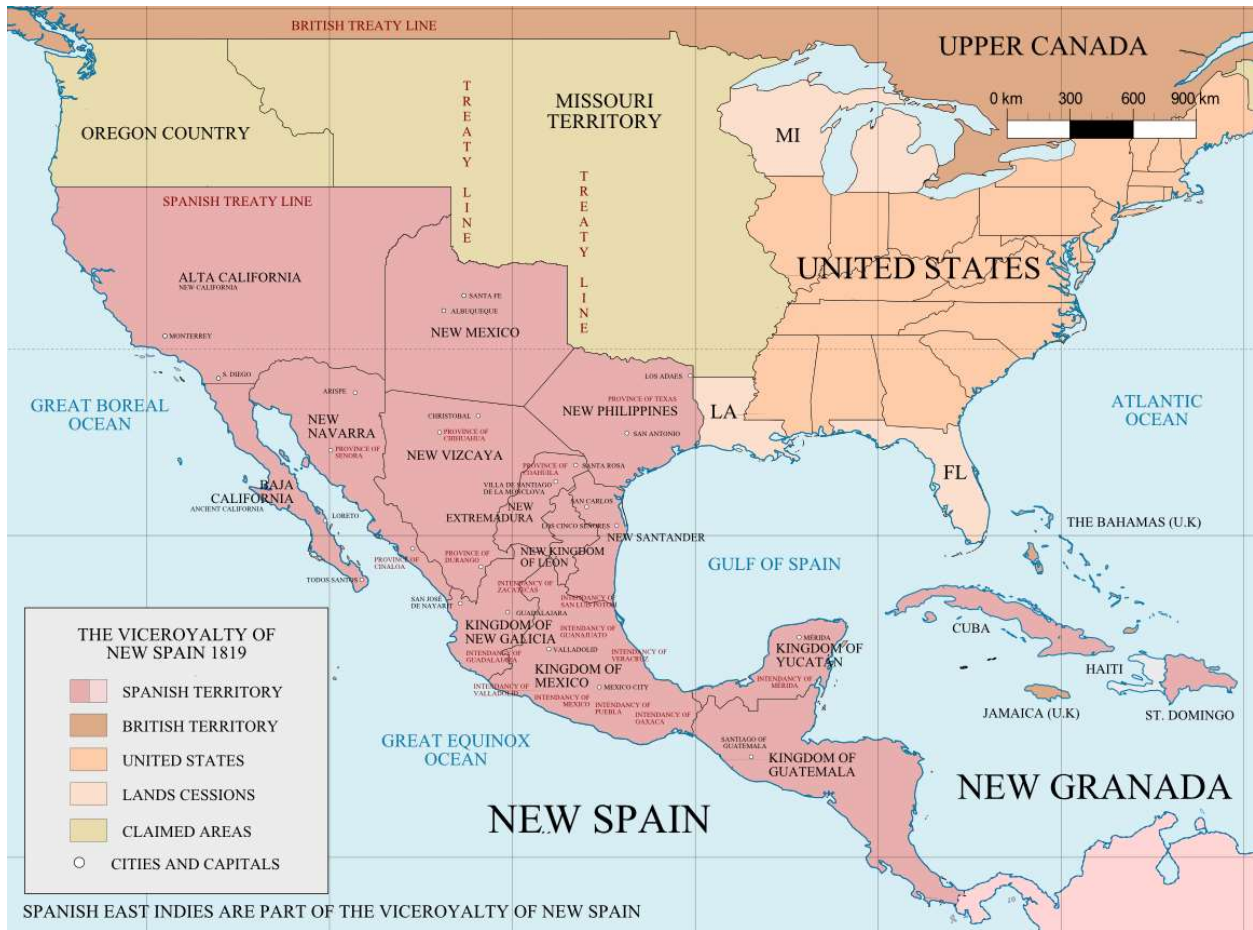


Figure 2, New Spain in 1819, becoming Mexico in 1821 *Wikipedia*



Figure 3, Louisiana Purchase and further Acquisitions, *Wikipedia*

Spain

With the discovery of the New World in **1492** by Christopher Columbus, Spain set out to lay claim to virtually the entire Western Hemisphere - **North, South and Central America**. Spain felt they had a Divine Right to these lands due to the edict issued by Pope Alexander VI in 1493. This proclamation by the Pope declared the Spanish had exclusive rights to colonize *all* of the Western hemisphere excluding Brazil (Portugal and the Dutch). However, in Spain's rush to claim it all, many of their land claims were meaningless. **The Spanish became famous for making grandiose claims to land they never set foot on, never got close to, often didn't even know what was there and felt no need to settle.**

It is necessary at this point to state that the Spanish were very good warriors on the European continent. Their cavalry used an excellent breed of horse that is a mix of Arabian (noted for ability to survive semi-desert conditions) and Spanish horse. The Spanish called these horses "mesteños" meaning of mixed breed. Descendants of these horses are known as mustangs. During the Spanish occupation, these horses became feral and the native Indians learned to ride them. The best cavalry of the 19th century were the Comanches, due in large part

to their use of mustangs. The Comanches were a big problem in the settlement of Texas.

In the period 1518-1521 Hernan Cortez conquered the future New Spain via Mexico. The most populous part of Mexico at the time was the Aztec Empire, which by then had subdued most of the Indian tribes of Mexico and part of Guatemala. See Figure 4.



Figure 4, The Aztec Empire in 1518

The Aztec capital was Tenochtitlan, which is now Mexico City. Therefore to capture Mexico was to capture Tenochtitlan. Regarding the United States of America, New Spain was west of the Mississippi including Florida and the area west that follows the Florida Panhandle. After a series of treaties, by 1821 New Spain, and subsequently Mexico, had the boundaries depicted in Figure 4.

These are also the boundaries of the Republic of Mexico after it fought and won its independence, after several attempts from Spain in 1821. The United States of America purchased the Louisiana Territory from the French (Napoleon) in 1803 and Florida from Spain in 1819.

France

The French first came to the New World as travelers, seeking a route to the Pacific Ocean and wealth. Major French exploration of North America began under the rule of Francis I, King of France. In 1524, Francis sent Italian-born Giovanni da Verrazzano to explore the region between Florida and Newfoundland for a route to the Pacific Ocean. French occupation of North America began in 1534, which included Canada, the Mississippi valley (Minnesota to Louisiana and environs). In winning the French and Indian War, England required the French to cede Louisiana to Spain in 1763. In 1800 Napoleon conquered most of Spain and seized control of the Louisiana territory. Due to the need of funds and problems he had holding his Caribbean possessions, Napoleon sold the Louisiana territory to the United States in 1803 (President Jefferson). See Figure 1.

England

English exploration of the continent commenced in the late 15th century, and Sir Walter Raleigh established the **short-lived Roanoke Colony** in 1585. With the settlement of Jamestown on the Chesapeake Bay, the English established their first successful, permanent colony in North America, which became known as the Colony of Virginia. In 1620, a group of Puritans established a second permanent colony on the coast of Cape Cod, Massachusetts and several other English colonies were established in North America during the 17th and 18th centuries. England captured the Dutch colony of New Netherland (Manhattan and environs) in the Anglo-Dutch Wars of the mid-17th century, leaving North America divided among the English, Spanish, and French empires.

The occupation of North America in 1750 appears in Figure 1. Note that French territory at the time extended into part of East Texas. Later, the Spanish claimed most of the territory west of the French territories. See Figures 2 and 3.

APPENDIX C

HISTORY OF THE REPUBLIC MEXICO THRU THE TEXAS REVOLUTION

TIMELINE OF MEXICAN HISTORY

February 1517

Francisco Hernández de Córdoba, the first European to visit Mexican territory, arrives in the Yucatán from Cuba with three ships and about 100 men. Members of the local native population clashed with the Spanish explorers, killing some 50 of them and capturing several more. Córdoba's reports on his return to Cuba prompt the Spanish governor there, Diego Velásquez, to send a larger force back to Mexico, under the command of Hernán Cortés. Like most of the first European visitors to the New World, Cortés is driven by the desire to find a route to Asia and its immense riches in spices and other resources.

February 1519

Cortés sets sail from Cuba with 11 ships, more than 450 soldiers and a large number of supplies, including 16 horses. Upon arriving in Yucatán, the Spaniards take control of the town of Tabasco, where they begin learning of the great Aztec civilization, now ruled by Moctezuma II. Defying the authority of Velásquez, Cortés founds the city of Veracruz on the Gulf of Mexico directly east of Mexico City. With an entourage of 400 (including several captive members of the native population, notably a woman known as Malinche or "Pinche", who serves as a translator and becomes Cortés's mistress) Cortés begins his famous march inward into Mexico, using the strength of his forces to form an important alliance with the Tlascalans, enemies of the Aztecs.

November 1519

Cortés and his men arrive in Tenochtitlán (the present Mexico City); they are welcomed as honored guests by Moctezuma and his people due to the Spaniard's resemblance to Quetzalcoatl, a legendary light-skinned god-king

whose return was prophesied in Aztec legend. Cortes then took Moctezuma hostage, and was able to gain control of the area.

August 13, 1521

After a bloody series of conflicts—involving the Aztecs, the Tlascalans and other native allies of the Spaniards, and a Spanish force sent by Velásquez to contain Cortés—Cortés finally defeats the forces of Montezuma’s nephew, Cuauhtémoc (who became emperor after his uncle was killed in 1520) to complete his conquest of Tenochtitlán. His victory marks the fall of the once-mighty Aztec empire. Cortés razes the Aztec capital and builds Mexico City on its ruins; it quickly becomes the premier European center in the New World.

Hidalgo, Santa Anna and War

1808

Napoleon Bonaparte occupies Spain, deposes the monarchy, and installs his brother, Joseph, as head of state. The ensuing Peninsular War between Spain (backed by Britain) and France will lead almost directly to the Mexican war for independence, as the colonial government in New Spain falls into disarray and its opponents begin to gain momentum.

How Did Father Hidalgo Become a Mason? Dr. A. W. Parson, *Symbolic Masonry in Mexico*, p. 12: “In the Years 1805 and 1806, the celebrated German Naturalists, the Arago Brothers, with the equally famous Antiquary, Fausto Ehlullar, founded the first Masonic Lodge in the Capitol of Mexico: a Lodge with which were connected the most remarkable men of the Vice-Royalty, whether of European or Mexican origin, all of whom were well capable at that time of embracing the sacred cause that animates Masonry. Amongst these enthusiastic believers was Miguel Hidalgo, Curate of the Village of Hidalgo, in the State of Guanajuato, who later on became the father of Mexican Independence.”

September 16, 1810

In the midst of factional struggles within the colonial government, Father (*and Masonic brother*) Manuel Hidalgo, a priest in the small village of Dolores, issues his famous call for Mexican independence. El Grito de Dolores set off a flurry of revolutionary action by thousands of natives and mestizos, who banded together to capture Guanajuato and other major cities west of Mexico City. Despite its initial success, the Hidalgo rebellion loses steam and is defeated quickly, and the priest is captured and killed at Chihuahua in 1811. His name lives on in the Mexican state of Hidalgo, however, and September 16, 1810, is still celebrated as Mexico's Independence Day.

1814

Another priest, Jose Morelos, succeeds Hidalgo as leader of Mexico's independence movement and proclaims a Mexican republic. He is defeated by the royalist forces of the mestizo general Agustín de Iturbide, and the revolutionary banner passes to Vicente Guerrero.

1821

After revolt in Spain ushers in a new era of liberal reforms there, conservative Mexican leaders begin plans to end the viceregal system and separate their country from the mother land on their own terms. On their behalf, Iturbide meets with Guerrero and issues the Plan of Iguala, by which Mexico would become an independent country ruled as a limited monarchy, with the Roman Catholic Church as the official state church and equal rights and upper-class status for the Spanish and mestizo populations, as opposed to the majority of the population, which was of Native American or African descent, or mulato (mixed). In August 1821, the last Spanish viceroy is forced to sign the Treaty of Córdoba, marking the official beginning of Mexican independence.

1823

Iturbide, who earlier declared himself emperor of the new Mexican state, is deposed by his former aide, **General Antonio López de Santa Anna**, who declares a Mexican republic. Guadalupe Victoria becomes Mexico's first elected president, and during his tenure Iturbide is executed, and a bitter struggle begins between Centralist (conservative, and Federalist (liberal), elements of the struggle the Mexican government that will continue for the next several decades.

1833

Santa Anna himself becomes president after leading the successful resistance against Spain's attempt to recapture Mexico in 1829. His strong Centralist policies encourage the increasing ire of residents of Texas, then still part of Mexico, who declare their independence in 1836. After attempting to quell the rebellion in Texas, Santa Anna's forces are decisively defeated by those of rebel leader Sam Houston at the Battle of San Jacinto in April 1836. Humbled, he is forced to resign power by 1844.

May 12, 1846

As a result of the continuing dispute over Texas, frictions between the U.S. and Mexican residents of the region, and a desire to acquire land in New Mexico and California, the U.S. declares war on Mexico. The U.S. quickly smother their enemy with superior force, launching an invasion of northern Mexico led by General Zachary Taylor while simultaneously invading New Mexico and California and blockading both of Mexico's coasts. Despite a series of U.S. victories (including a hard-won victory over Santa Anna's men at Buena Vista in February 1847) and the success of the blockade, Mexico refuses to admit defeat, and in the spring of 1847 the U.S. sends forces under General Winfield Scott to capture Mexico City. Scott's men accomplish this on September 14, and a formal peace is reached in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, signed on February 2, 1848. By its terms, the Rio Grande becomes the southern boundary of Texas, and California and New Mexico are ceded to the U.S. The U.S. agrees to pay \$15 million as compensation for the seized land, which amounts to half of Mexico's territory.

SUMMARY & OTHER INFORMATION

The history of Mexico can be summarized as part of New Spain with nearly 300 years of relative tranquility, then turmoil from the beginning of the Mexican War of Independence (1810) through the death of Benito Juarez in 1872. The relatively peaceful era of Porfirio Diaz followed until 1910, when the Mexican Revolution broke out (Pancho Villa, Emiliano Zapata), ending in 1920. Thereafter Mexico was relatively peaceful, with the exception of the Cristero War (1926-1929), until the emergence of the drug cartels.

The Cristero War was a revolt of faithful Catholics against President Calles' anticlerical reforms. Unfortunately, Calles was a Mason and an atheist.

It is interesting to note that the presidents of Mexico from independence to the present were of primarily of Spanish descent and corrupt – with the exception of two of primarily Indian descent: Benito Juarez (1857-1872) and Lazaro Cardenas (1934-1940).

The history of Mexico from independence (1810-1821) through the Mexican-American war (1847) follows well the life of Santa Anna, which is treated in Appendix D and also in Appendix F.

Masonry in Mexico.

Mexico is the only country known to have Masons strongly opposing each other, primarily in politics. There were Masons of the Scottish Rite (“Escosse” which was pro-Spain, conservative and centrist), and the opposing “Yorkino” York Rite Masons. It is said that both Rites were essentially for populist reforms in Mexico, the Yorkinos wanting to achieve them quickly, the Escosses gradually. Excluding the 21st century, all presidents of Mexico, including Santa Anna, were some form of Mason.

Joel R. Poinsett’s Contribution to Mexican Masonry.

Joel Poinsett was the United States’ special envoy to the Republic of Mexico, serving from 1822-1823. He was a very honorable, distinguished and intelligent man and a scientist. He worked with the initial five York Rite lodges in Mexico, and in 1825-26 requested and received for them charters from the Grand Lodge of New York. Those five lodges comprised the Gran Logia Nacional Mexicana. He was a “Republican” in the sense that wanted countries, including Mexico, to have governments of, for and by the people. In the first days of the Republic of Mexico, during Iturbide’s rule as “emperor”, the government was aristocratic, pro-Church, and pro-military, and Scottish Rite (Escosse) Masons. Poinsett, with Stephen F. Austin and others, helped establish the principles of the Mexican Constitution of 1824, which was similar to the U. S. Constitution except it established the Roman Catholic Church as Mexico’s only organized religion and prohibited slavery.

From Wikipedia on Poinsett, author’s words in italics

“Poinsett served as a special envoy of the United States to Mexico from 1822 to 1823, when the government of James Monroe became concerned about the stability of newly independent Mexico. Poinsett, a supporter of the Monroe Doctrine, was

convinced that republicanism was the only guarantee of a peaceful, free form of government for North American countries, and tried to influence the government of Agustín de Iturbide, which was beginning to show signs of weakness and divisiveness.” *In 1825 he was assigned the office of U.S. “Minister Plenipotentiary” (ambassador) to Mexico and remained as such until his expulsion by the Mexican government, who regarded him as obsessive and intrusive, in 1830.*

“On January 12, 1828, in Mexico City, Poinsett signed the first treaty between the United States and Mexico, the Treaty of Limits, a treaty that recognized the U.S.-Mexico border established by the 1819 Adams–Onís Treaty between Spain and the U.S.

“Because some U.S. political leaders were dissatisfied with the Treaty of Limits and the Adams–Onís Treaty, Poinsett was sent to negotiate **acquisition of new territories for the United States**, including **Texas**, New Mexico, and Upper California, as well as parts of Lower California, Sonora, Coahuila, and Nuevo León; but Poinsett's offer to purchase these areas was rejected by the Mexican Ministry of Foreign Affairs headed by Juan Francisco de Azcárate.^[3] (Poinsett wrote *Notes on Mexico*, a memoir of his time in the First Mexican Empire and at the court of Agustín de Iturbide.)^[4]

“After visiting an area south of Mexico City near Taxco de Alarcón, Poinsett saw what later became known in the United States as the poinsettia. (In Mexico it is called Flor de Nochebuena, Christmas Eve flower, or Catarina).^[6] Poinsett, an avid amateur botanist, sent samples of the plant to the United States, and by 1836 the plant was widely known as the "poinsettia".^[4] Also a species of Mexican lizard, *Sceloporus poinsettii*, is named in Poinsett's honor.”

APPENDIX D – BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF SANTA ANNA

NOTE: IT IS IMPORTANT THAT THE MATERIAL HEREIN IS CONTAINS MORE DETAIL OF THE HISTORY OF MEXICO THROUGH THE TEXAS WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

The following in quotes is from the Encyclopedia Britannica (information in italics inserted by author)

“Antonio López de Santa Anna, in full Antonio López de Santa Anna Pérez de Lebrón, (born February 21, 1794, Jalapa, Mexico—died June 21, 1876, Mexico City), was an army officer and statesman who was at the storm center of Mexico’s politics during such events as the Texas Revolution (1835–36) and the Mexican-American War (1846–48) occurred.

It must be state here that Santa Anna’s massacres, most famously at the Alamo and Goliad, were done in accordance with Mexican Law. Santa Anna sought and obtained from the Mexican Congress the decree of December 30, 1835, which directed that all foreigners taken in arms against the government should be treated as pirates and shot. This gives very shallow justification.

Summary

The son of a minor colonial official, Santa Anna served in the Spanish army and rose to the rank of captain. He fought on both sides of nearly every issue of the day. He was a Royalist officer in the Mexican Revolution and when defeated by the rebels, he negotiated and changed sides, being awarded a commission in the rebel army. In 1821 after changing sides, he supported rebel leader Agustín de Iturbide, but in 1823 he helped overthrow Iturbide, *who had proclaimed Mexico an empire and himself as emperor*. In 1828 he backed Vicente Guerrero for president, only to help depose him later. Santa Anna gained much prestige in 1829 when he fought against Spain’s attempt to reconquer Mexico at Tampico, and *where he lost his leg in battle*. He became known as the Hero of Tampico, This surge of glory helped him gain the presidency in 1833 as a Federalist and opponent of the Roman Catholic Church; in actuality, however, he established a centralized state. He remained in power until 1836, when he marched into Texas to quell a rebellion by primarily U.S. settlers there. During the course of this punitive expedition, Texas declared its independence from Mexico (March 2). After his army had defeated Texan forces at the Alamo and Goliad, Santa Anna then moved eastward to the San Jacinto River, where he was defeated on April 21 in the Battle of San Jacinto and was captured by Gen. Sam Houston. After signing a public treaty ending the war and a secret treaty in which he promised to do everything he could to ensure that the Mexican government adhered

to the public treaty, Santa Anna was sent to Washington, D.C., for an interview with Pres. Andrew Jackson, who returned him to Mexico, where, in the meantime, he had been deposed from power during his absence.

In 1838, when the French navy seized Veracruz and demanded an indemnity for injuries to French citizens in Mexico, Santa Anna led forces to Veracruz, only to shoot at the ships as they departed. He gained enough prestige from this event to act as dictator from March to July 1839, while the president was away. Two years later he led a revolt and seized power, which he held until he was driven into exile in 1845.

When war with the United States broke out, Santa Anna contacted U.S. Pres. James K. Polk, who arranged for a ship to take him to Mexico for the purpose of working for peace. Santa Anna *then* took charge of the Mexican forces upon his return; but instead of acting for peace, he led his men against the United States until he was routed by U.S. forces under Gen. Winfield Scott. Santa Anna again retired, moving to Jamaica in 1847 and to New Granada (*southern Central and northwestern South America*) 1853. Ten years later he sought U.S. support in an attempt to oust the emperor Maximilian, whom the French had placed on the Mexican throne; at the same time, he offered his services to Maximilian. Both proposals were refused. *He court martialed and was exiled as a traitor in 1873, escaping the death sentence.* Two years later he was allowed to return to Mexico, a year later he died, poor and blind.

Santa Anna possessed a magnetic personality and real qualities of leadership, but his lack of principles, his pride, and his love of military glory and extravagance, coupled with a disregard for and incompetence in civil affairs, led Mexico into a series of disasters and himself into ill repute and tragedy.”

The Mexican War of Independence, 1810–1821 *from Wikipedia*

In June 1810, the 16-year-old Santa Anna joined the Fijo de Veracruz *Spanish* infantry regiment as a cadet against the wishes of his parents, who wanted him to pursue a career in commerce. In September 1810, secular cleric Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla rebelled against Spanish rule, sparking a spontaneous mass movement in Mexico's rich agricultural area, the Bajío. The Mexican War of Independence was to last until 1821, and Santa Anna, like most creole military men, fought for the crown against the mixed-raced insurgents for independence. Santa Anna's commanding officer was José Joaquín de Arredondo, who taught him much about dealing with Mexican rebels. In 1811, Santa Anna was wounded in the left hand by

an arrow during the campaign under Col. Arredondo in the town of Amoladeras, in the state of San Luis Potosí. In 1813, Santa Anna served in Texas against the Gutiérrez–Magee Expedition, and at the Battle of Medina, in which he was cited for bravery. He was promoted quickly; he became a second lieutenant in February 1812 and first lieutenant before the end of that year. In the aftermath of the rebellion, the young officer witnessed Arredondo's fierce counter-insurgency policy of mass executions.

During the next few years, in which the war for independence reached a stalemate, Santa Anna erected villages for displaced citizens near the city of Veracruz. He also pursued gambling, a habit that would follow him all through his life. In 1816, Santa Anna was promoted to captain. He conducted occasional campaigns to suppress Native Americans or to restore order after a tumult had begun.

When royalist officer Agustín de Iturbide changed sides in 1821 and allied with insurgent Vicente Guerrero, fighting for independence under the Plan of Iguala, Santa Anna also joined the fight for independence. The changed circumstances in Spain, where liberals had ousted Ferdinand VII and began implementing the Spanish liberal constitution of 1812, made many elites in Mexico reconsider their options. The clergy in New Spain would have lost power under the Spanish liberal regime and new Mexican clerics saw independence as a way to maintain their position in an autonomous Mexico.

Rebellion against the Mexican Empire of Iturbide, 1822–1823

Iturbide rewarded Santa Anna with the command of the vital port of Veracruz, the gateway from the Gulf of Mexico to the rest of the nation and site of the customs house. However, Iturbide subsequently removed Santa Anna from the post, prompting Santa Anna to rise in rebellion in December 1822 against Iturbide. Santa Anna already had significant power in his home region of Veracruz, and "he was well along the path to becoming the regional caudillo." Santa Anna claimed in his Plan of Veracruz that he rebelled because Iturbide had dissolved the Constituent Congress. He also promised to support free trade with Spain, an important principle for his home region of Veracruz. Although Santa Anna's initial rebellion was important, Iturbide had loyal military men who were able to hold their own against the rebels in Veracruz. However, former insurgent leaders Vicente Guerrero and Nicolás Bravo, who had supported Iturbide's Plan de Iguala, now returned to their southern Mexico base and raised a rebellion against Iturbide. Then *as* the commander of imperial forces in Veracruz, who had fought against the rebels, *Santa Anna* changed sides and joined the rebels. The new coalition proclaimed the Plan of

Casa Mata, which called for the end of the monarchy (*Empire of Mexico*), restoration of the Constituent Congress, and creation of a republic and a federal system.

Santa Anna was no longer the main player in the movement against Iturbide and the creation of new political arrangements. He sought to regain his position as a leader and marched forces from Veracruz to Tampico, then to San Luis Potosí, proclaiming his role as the "protector of the federation." San Luis Potosí, and other north-central regions, Michoacán, Querétaro, and Guanajuato met to decide their own position about the federation. Santa Anna pledged his military forces to the protection of these key areas. "He attempted, in other words, to co-opt the movement, the first of many examples in his long career where he placed himself as the head of a generalized movement so it would become an instrument of his advancement."

Santa Anna and the early Mexican Republic

"Guadalupe Victoria became the first president of the Mexican republic in 1824, following the creation of the **Federalist Mexican Constitution of 1824**, (*to which Anglo Texans accepted and were loyal*). Guadalupe Victoria came to the presidency with little factional conflict and he served out his entire four-year term. However, the election of 1828 was quite different, with considerable political conflict in which Santa Anna became involved. Even before the election, there was unrest in Mexico, with some conservatives affiliated with the Scottish Rite Masons plotting rebellion. The so-called Montaña rebellion in December 1827 called for the prohibition of secret societies, implicitly meaning liberal *York Rite Masons*, and the expulsion of the U.S. minister in Mexico, Joel Roberts Poinsett, a promoter of federal republicanism (*and who initiated the York Rite*) in Mexico. **Although Santa Anna was believed to be a supporter of the Scottish Rite conservatives, in the Montaña rebellion eventually he threw his support to the liberals.** In his home state of Veracruz, the governor had thrown his support to the rebels, and in the aftermath of the rebellion's failure, Santa Anna as vice-governor stepped into the governorship.

In 1828, Santa Anna supported the hero of the insurgency, Vicente Guerrero, who was a candidate for the presidency. Another important liberal, Lorenzo de Zavala *who was a Mason*, also supported Guerrero. Manuel Gómez Pedraza won the indirect elections for the presidency, with Guerrero coming in second. Even before all the votes had been counted in September 1828, Santa Anna rebelled against the election results in support of Guerrero. Santa Anna issued a plan at Perote that called for the nullification of the election results, as well for a new law expelling Spanish nationals from Mexico, believed to be in league with Mexican conservatives. *Here again the Escosse Santa Anna was supporting the cause of the Yorkinos.* Santa Anna's rebellion initially had few supporters, southern Mexican leader Juan Álvarez

joined Santa Anna's rebellion, and Lorenzo de Zavala, governor of the state of Mexico, under threat of arrest by the conservative *Escossino* Senate, fled to the mountains and organized his own rebellion against the federal government. Zavala brought the fighting into the capital, with his supporters seizing an armory, the Acordada. In these circumstances, president-elect Gómez Pedraza resigned and soon after left the country. This cleared the way for Guerrero to become president of Mexico. Santa Anna gained prominence as a national leader in his role to oust Gómez Pedraza and as a defender of *federalism* and democracy. An explanation for Santa Anna's support of Guerrero is that Gómez Pedraza had been in favor of Santa Anna's proposed invasion of Cuba, if successful, and if not, "Mexico might rid himself of an undesirable pest, namely Santa Anna."

Military action in Pueblo Viejo during the Battle of Tampico, September 1829

"In 1829, Santa Anna made his mark in the early republic by leading forces that defeated a Spanish invasion to reconquer Mexico. Spain made a final attempt to retake Mexico, invading Tampico with a force of 2,600 soldiers. Santa Anna marched against the Spanish expedition with a much smaller force and defeated the Spaniards, many of whom were suffering from yellow fever. The defeat of the Spanish army not only increased Santa Anna's popularity but also consolidated the independence of the new Mexican republic. Santa Anna was declared a hero. From then on, he styled himself "The Victor of Tampico" and "The Savior of the Motherland." His main act of self-promotion was to call himself "The Napoleon of the West."

In a December 1829 coup, Vice-President Anastasio Bustamante rebelled against President Guerrero, who left the capital to lead a rebellion in southern Mexico. On 1 January 1830, Bustamante took over the presidency. In 1832, a rebellion started against Bustamante, which was intended to install Manuel Gómez Pedraza (who had been elected in 1828 and unseated in a coup that year). The rebels offered the command to Gen. Santa Anna. The capture of Guerrero and his summary trial and execution in 1831 was a shocking event to the nation. The conservatives in power were tainted by the execution.

In August 1832, Bustamante temporarily appointed Melchor Múzquiz to the post of president. He moved against the rebels and defeated them at Gallinero. Forces from Dolores Hidalgo, Guanajuato, and Puebla marched to meet the forces of Santa Anna, who were approaching the town of Puebla. After two more battles, Bustamante,

Gómez Pedraza, and Santa Anna signed the Agreement of Zavaleta (21–23 December 1832) to install Gómez Pedraza as president. Bustamante went into exile. Santa Anna accompanied the new president on 3 January 1833 and joined him in the capital.

First presidency of Santa Anna, 1833–1835

Santa Anna was elected president on 1 April 1833, but while he desired the title, he was not interested in governing. "It annoyed him and bored him, and perhaps frightened him." Santa Anna's vice president, liberal Dr. Valentín Gómez Farías took over the responsibility of the governing of the nation. Santa Anna retired to his Veracruz hacienda, Manga de Clavo. Gómez Farías began to implement radical liberal reforms, chiefly directed at the power of the army and the Roman Catholic Church. Such reforms as abolishing tithing as a legal obligation, and the seizure of church property and finances, caused concern among Mexican conservatives. Gómez Farías also sought to extend these reforms to the frontier province of Alta California (*the present day state of California*), promoting legislation to secularize the Franciscan missions there. In 1833 he organized the Híjar-Padrés colony to bolster non-mission civilian settlement. A secondary goal of the colony was to help defend Alta California against perceived Russian colonial ambitions from the trading post at Fort Ross.

Santa Anna and the Central Republic, 1835 Siete Leyes and Rebellion in Zacatecas

Dr. Valentín Gómez Farías, Santa Anna's vice president 1833–34 enacted liberal reforms. Santa Anna could be watchful and wait to see the reaction to a comprehensive attack on the special privileges of the army and the Roman Catholic Church (*fueros*), as well as confiscation of church wealth. Conservatives sought to reassert power.

For the elite conservatives (*Escossinos*), the liberal reform of Gómez Farías was radical and undermined their power. Many historians consider Santa Anna's actions in allowing this first reform (followed by a more sweeping one in 1855 with the ouster of Santa Anna) a test case. Santa Anna could be watchful and wait to see the reaction to a comprehensive attack on the special privileges of the army and the Roman Catholic Church (*fueros*), as well as confiscation of church wealth. Conservatives sought to reassert power.

In May 1834, Santa Anna ordered the disarmament of the civic militia. He suggested to Congress that they should abolish the controversial Ley del Caso, under which the liberals' opponents had been sent into exile. The Plan of Cuernavaca, published on 25 May 1834, called for repeal of the liberal reforms. On 12 June, Santa Anna dissolved Congress and announced his decision to adopt the Plan of Cuernavaca. Santa Anna formed a new Catholic, centralist, conservative government. In 1835, it replaced the 1824 constitution with the new constitutional document known as the "Siete Leyes" ("The Seven Laws"). His regime became a dictatorship backed by the military. *Thus he returned from Yorkino principles to those of the Escosses.*

Several states openly rebelled against the changes: Coahuila y Tejas (the northern part of which would become the Republic of Texas), San Luis Potosí, Querétaro, Durango, Guanajuato, Michoacán, Yucatán, Jalisco, Nuevo León, Tamaulipas, and Zacatecas. Several of these states formed their own governments: the Republic of the Rio Grande, the Republic of Yucatán, and the Republic of Texas. Only the Texans defeated Santa Anna and retained their independence. Their fierce resistance was possibly fueled by reprisals Santa Anna committed against his defeated enemies. The New York Post editorialized that "had [Santa Anna] treated the vanquished with moderation and generosity, it would have been difficult if not impossible to awaken that general sympathy for the people of Texas which now impels so many adventurous and ardent spirits to throng to the aid of their brethren."

The Zacatecas militia, the largest and best supplied of the Mexican states, led by Francisco García Salinas, was well armed with .753 caliber British 'Brown Bess' muskets and Baker .61 rifles. But, after two hours of combat on 12 May 1835, Santa Anna's "Army of Operations" defeated the Zacatecan militia and took almost 3,000 prisoners. Santa Anna allowed his army to loot Zacatecas for forty-eight hours, *but spared the prisoners*. After defeating Zacatecas, he planned to move on

The book "Santa Anna of Mexico" by Will Fowler, University of Nebraska, 2007 provides a somewhat revisionist story. In it Santa Anna is described as at first liberal republican and loyal to the Mexican people until he became a centrist dictator in 1836.

At Home in Jalapa

Santa Anna was born in Jalapa (Xalapa) the capital city in the what is now the Mexican state of Vera Cruz, where he preferred to spend most of his time being among his many friends and tending to his estate there called *Mango de Clavo*. Although he was Criollo (of Spanish blood but born in the western hemisphere) many of his closest friends were Spaniards.

The Port of Vera Cruz was the primary Atlantic port of Mexico. The route between Vera Cruz and Mexico City was well travelled in Santa Anna's time, and in 1518 was Cortez' pathway to Tenochtitlan (Mexico City). Jalapa is 75 miles northwest of Vera Cruz.

Santa Anna the Mason.

He was a Mason of the Scottish Rite "Escosse" which was pro-Spain, conservative and centrist, and opposed to the liberal and anti-Spaniard the York Rite. He was close to his brother Joaquin, who was also of the Escosse Rite. Most of Vera Cruz was Escosse.

Santa Anna's Masonry had been debated for some time, but his Masonic apron (below) exists in Broken Bow, Oklahoma, owned by a descendant of the family of John Stiles, to whom Santa Anna gave at the Battle of San Jacinto in order to identify himself as a Mason.



Further, Santa Anna's Scottish Rite certificate of 1825 (below) exists in the Livingston Masonic Library of the Grand Lodge of New York.



Sometime after the Texas Revolution or after the Mexican-American war Santa Anna was stripped of his Masonry.

Why Wasn't Santa Anna a Yorkino Mason?

One would think that until he became dictator, he was very liberal, like the Yorkinos. He sided often with Yorkinos. A likely explanation is twofold. First he grew up in the region of Vera Cruz, which was strongly Escosse (conservative), then joined the military at an early age (before 1810), seeing a career advantage in Masonry and as an Escosse. Secondly the York Rite in Mexico was in its infancy when or before he was going through his first three degrees. The York Rite in Mexico was not officially chartered until 1825, before or in the same year he'd completed his Scottish Rite work.

Politics

Santa Anna was President of Mexico *six or more times*: Although a Scottish Rite Escosse Mason, he was until 1834 liberal and federalist (Yorkino principles). He reversed those principles in 1834 and became dictator by nullifying the Constitution of 1824 and creating a new one which was pro-military and pro-Catholic. The new constitution was the prime provocateur of revolution in many Mexican states including Texas. The new constitution severely reduced States Rights, including forfeiture of state militias to central government control. One serious revolution was in the State of Zacatecas in 1834, which had a strong militia which was defeated and plundered. It must be said that the republican system was failing, and the conservative and liberal members of the central Mexican government saw that a new constitution was necessary (1834). Santa Anna was quoted that he thought the

Mexican people were not ready for a republican system because they were mostly illiterate and undereducated.

Character and Vanity

- He was good in battle, until would lose. |
He lost his leg in the Battle of Vera Cruz against the French, who was seeking payment of Mexico's debt. He also lost the battle. He paraded his lost leg in Mexico City and held a lavish, expensive funeral for it. See Figure __
- He called himself the "Napoleon of the West"
- After the battle of the Alamo, one slave "Joe" and several wives and children of Texans survived. Saving the slave was likely due to Mexico's anti-slavery law. Saving the widows and orphans was likely due to his Masonic obligation, after all, he made them widows and orphans.
- He surrendered to Sam Houston in a cowardly manner for a general.
- Compare the painting of him below to the adjacent photograph. The photograph was taken some time after the painting of him:



He also lost his prosthetic replacement leg during the Mexican-American war.



Figure __ Santa Anna's Prosthetic Leg

Massacre of Prisoners

In his teens, Santa Anna entered a local Spanish military academy when Mexico was still New Spain. He fought for Spain in the Mexican War of independence (1810-1821), until he, as a general, switched sides in 1821 and fought for the Mexican side. In 1813 at the Battle of Medina, near San Antonio, he distinguished himself as a lieutenant in the Spanish army. There he helped defeat an approximately 1200 man army of Mexican- and Anglo-Texans, who called themselves "The Republican Army (Republic of Mexico)". Most of the Republicans were killed in the battle, and the remaining prisoners of war were massacred, with the exception of a few who escaped. This is likely where Santa Anna became comfortable with the murder of prisoners of war, for which in 1836 he was responsible at Goliad (nearly 445 Texians) as well as at the Alamo. The actual massacre at Goliad, which occurred after the Alamo massacre, was at the command of Mexican General Urrea, who was so ordered by Santa Anna, refused to do so, and passed the order to an inferior officer.

Surrender at San Jacinto

There has been much speculation and imagination about Santa Anna's surrender at San Jacinto on April 21, 1836.

From Fehrenbach “Lone Star” 1983 Ed., American Legacy Press, pp. 239-240:

“Santa Anna and many of his officers had been taken, but by the grace of Sam Houston’s vision, he had not been shot. On April 22, the day after the battle, the Mexican dictator and his son-in-law, General Cos, were both rounded up by Texan patrols. Santa Anna was not recognized at first, because he had escaped the battlefield only in his silk shirt and drawers, and had somewhere dressed himself in a private soldier’s rough gray trousers. The Texans smelled him out due to the immediate deference shown him when he was marched into the prisoner compound.”

Santa Anna was not executed, at the command of Houston and the request of Andrew Jackson.

From James D. Carter, “Masonry in Texas”, Committee on Masonic Education and Service for the Grand Lodge of Texas, 1955, pp 248-286

“General Santa Anna fled from the battlefield of San Jacinto, disguised himself at an abandoned house, and attempted to make his escape out of the country. On April 22, 1836 he was discovered by a Texan scouting party who were the Masons James A. Sylvester and Joel W. Robison. Sylvester was the first to reach the fugitive and took him prisoner without suspecting his identity. **There is a tradition** (*not corroborated*) that Santa Anna gave the distress signal of a Mason at that time. At least one of the scouting party wished to kill the prisoner but Sylvester would not permit him to do so. After the prisoner was identified as President Santa Anna at the Texan camp, he was carried before Houston. Houston was sleeping at the time and nursing the wound he had received in the battle. Santa Anna awakened him with a handclasp believed to be that of a Mason. Alexander Horton wrote that:

“he saw men gather from every quarter demanding the prisoner whose life they seemed determined to take at all hazards. Houston was obliged to throw a guard around him. There looked like there would be a mutiny in camp but General Houston went out amongst the men... He reasoned with them saying that the prisoner justly deserved death but it would be greatly to their credit to save his life, that when dead he would be no more than any other dead dog”

Mirabeau B. Lamar, probably as conscious of his Masonic obligations as Houston or any other Mason of influence in Texas at that time, denounced Santa Anna as the “Nero of his day and the foe of all virtue.” Santa Anna, fearing for his life, gave the Masonic distress signal to John A. Wharton. The prisoner was afterwards removed to the home of Doctor James A. E. Phelps near Columbia.

Still fearing death at the hands of enraged Texans, he appealed to Phelps as a Mason to protect him and his secretary, Juan N. Almonte, also a Mason..

APPENDIX E: A BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF SAM HOUSTON

From Wikipedia, Author's Comments in Italics. Some more specific and colorful biographies follows the Wikipedia biography.

Summary

Samuel Houston (March 2, 1793 – July 26, 1863) (*Sam's Birthday March 2 is also Texas' Independence Day*) was an American soldier and politician. An important leader of the Texas Revolution, Houston served as the first and third president of the Republic of Texas, and was one of the first two individuals to represent Texas in the United States Senate. He also served as the sixth governor of Tennessee and the seventh governor of Texas, the only American to be elected governor of two different states in the United States.

Born in Rockbridge County, Virginia, Houston and his family migrated to Maryville, Tennessee when Houston was a teenager. Houston later ran away from home and spent time with the Cherokee, becoming known as Raven. He served under General Andrew Jackson in the War of 1812, and in 1816, he *was appointed a sympathetic government sub-agent participating in the* removal of many Cherokee from Tennessee. With the support of Jackson and others, Houston won election to the United States House of Representatives in 1823. He strongly supported Jackson's presidential candidacies, and in 1827, Houston was elected as the governor of Tennessee. In 1829, after parting with his first wife, Houston resigned from office, and joined his Cherokee friends *and family in eastern Oklahoma, then part of the* Arkansas Territory.

Houston settled in Texas in 1832. After the Battle of Gonzales, Houston helped organize Texas's provisional government and was selected as the top-ranking official in the Texian Army. He led the Texian Army to victory at the Battle of San Jacinto, the decisive battle in Texas's war for independence against Mexico. After the war, Houston won the 1836 Texas presidential election. He left office due to term limits in 1838, but won election to another term in the 1841 Texas presidential election. Houston played a key role in the annexation of Texas by the United States in 1845, and in 1846 he was elected to represent Texas in the United States Senate. He joined the Democratic Party and supported President James K. Polk's prosecution of the Mexican–American War.

Houston's senate record was marked by his unionism and opposition to extremists from both the North and South. He voted for the Compromise of 1850, which settled many of the territorial issues left over from the Mexican–American War and the annexation of Texas. He later voted against the Kansas–Nebraska Act because he believed it would lead to increased sectional tensions over slavery, and his opposition to that act led him to leave the Democratic Party. He was an unsuccessful candidate for the of the American Party in the 1856 presidential election and the Constitutional Union Party in the 1860 presidential election. In 1859, Houston won election as the governor of Texas. In this role, he opposed secession and unsuccessfully sought to keep Texas out of the Confederate States of America. He was forced out of office in 1861 and died in 1863. Houston's name has been honored in numerous ways, and he is the eponym of the city of Houston, the fourth most populous city in the United States.

Early life

Houston was born in Rockbridge County, Virginia on March 2, 1793 to Samuel Houston and Elizabeth Paxton. Both of Houston's parents were descended from Scottish and Irish immigrants who had settled in British North America in the 1730s. Houston's father was descended from Ulster Scots people (*Scots-Irish*); he could trace his ancestry to Sir Hugh de Paduinan, a Norman knight. By 1793, the elder Samuel Houston owned a large farm and slaves and served as a colonel in the Virginia militia.

Houston's father was not a good manager and got into debt, in part because of his militia service. He planned to sell the farm and move west to Tennessee, where land was less expensive, but he died in 1806. Houston's mother followed through on those plans and settled the family near Maryville, Tennessee, the seat of Blount County, Tennessee. Houston attended a primitive private academy there. At this time, Tennessee was on the American frontier, and even larger towns like Nashville, Tennessee were vigilant against Native American raids.

Houston's uncle, the Presbyterian Rev. Samuel Houston, was an elected member of the "lost" State of Franklin then in the western frontier of North Carolina, who advocated for the passage of his proposed "A Declaration of Rights or Form of Government on the Constitution of the Commonwealth of Frankland" at the convention that was assembled in Greeneville, Tennessee on November 14, 1785. Rev. Houston returned to Rockbridge County, Virginia after the assembled State of Franklin convention rejected his constitutional proposal.

He had five brothers and three sisters as well as dozens of cousins who lived in the surrounding area. According to biographer John Hoyt Williams, Houston was not close with his siblings or his parents, and he rarely spoke of them in his later life. Houston did take an interest in his father's library, reading works by classical authors like Homer (Iliad and Odyssey), Virgil as well as more recent works by authors such as Jedidiah Morse

War of 1812 and The Battle of Horseshoe Bend

In 1812, Houston enlisted in the United States Army, which then was engaged in the War of 1812 against Britain and Britain's Native American allies. He quickly impressed the commander of the 39th Infantry Regiment, Thomas Hart Benton, and by the end of 1813, Houston had risen to the rank of the third lieutenant. In early 1814, the 39th Infantry Regiment became a part of the force commanded by **General Andrew Jackson**, who was charged with putting an end to raids by a faction of the Muscogee (or "Creek") tribe in the Old Southwest. The final decisive battle was at the Horseshoe Bend of the Tallapoosa River in what is now central Alabama.

The foe was a particular branch of the Creek Indians calling themselves the “Red Sticks”, headed by Chief Red Eagle, an Anglo-Indian half-breed named William Weatherford. The Red Sticks sided with the British in the War of 1812. Most of the Creeks were relatively friendly, but the Red Sticks were opposed by other Creek tribes and Cherokees as well, therefore Houston had no qualms about fighting the Red Sticks. In a surprise attack the Red Sticks had massacred a large number of whites and friendly Indians, including women and children.

From Brands’ “Loan Star Nation” pp. 120-122:

“When Jackson’s scouts reached the Red Stick stronghold at the Horseshoe Bend of the Tallapoosa, they were impressed and daunted by what they saw. The Indians had built a fort in the bend of the river, surrounded on three sides by water and on the fourth by a breastwork of thick logs laid horizontally. The breastwork left gun holes for outbound fire, and it was curved concavely to allow the riflemen inside the fort to cover every inch of the wall. A single gate afforded the only entrance. *This strongly indicates heavy British influence on the fort’s design and supply of firearms and ammunition.* Jackson appreciated what he was up against. ‘It is impossible to conceive a situation more eligible for defense than one they had chosen,’ Jackson recorded. ‘And the skill which they manifested in their breast work was really astonishing’.

Yet Jackson refused to be deterred. He opened fire with two small cannons, whose balls bounced futilely off the heavy logs. Reconsidering, he sent a squad of swimmers to the rear of the Red Stick position, where they lit fires to distract the defenders. As some of the latter turned to fight the flames, Jackson ordered an assault against the breastworks.

Sam Houston was among the first to respond. He braved bullets in racing across the open area in front of the fort, and he scrambled to the top of the wall, where an arrow impaled him in the upper thigh. He fought on, with the arrow protruding from under his belt, and inspired his comrades in the murderous clash that followed. The Indians thrust their rifles through the gun holes and blasted the attackers, who jammed their own guns in the holes and fired back. The fighting was so close and hot, one survivor explained, that ‘many of the enemy’s balls were welded to the bayonets of our muskets. In time the attackers drove the defenders away from the wall and into the interior of the fort. At this time Houston accosted a fellow fighter and asked him to pull out the arrow. The missile was barbed and resisted withdrawal; Houston’s impromptu surgeon quailed at the damage it would do if he continued to pull. Houston insisted that he try again, and threatened violence if he declined. The man gave a mighty heave, bringing out the shaft, barbed head, and a sizable chunk of Houston’s flesh. Houston, correctly fearing that he’d bleed to death, retired from the fray and sought a real surgeon.

He was catching his breath when Jackson rode by. Pleased by what he had heard and now saw of Houston, the general ordered him to remain in the rear for the duration of the battle. But when the Red Sticks dug in, and Jackson called for volunteers for the final assault, Houston hobbled to the fore. He charged the Indian position against their desperate fire, stopping only when a bullet hit his right arm and another shattered his right shoulder. In pain and shock, he staggered in the gathering darkness and fell to the ground. The battle continued to a bloody, brutal finish. The outnumbered Red Sticks refused to surrender, which suited Jackson and his vengeful men. A body count the next day showed 900 enemy Indians killed, against twenty-six of Jackson’s soldiers and twenty-three of his Indian allies.

Houston almost joined the dead. His condition was so dire that the army surgeons, after an initial examination, triaged him in favor of those with a better chance of surviving. He fainted from shock and loss of blood and lay that night like a corpse on the clammy ground. To the surgeons’ surprise and probably his own, he awoke the next morning. At this point his wounds received more attention, and he gradually began to mend.”

Houston’s Marriage to his First Love.

“Tall, handsome, brilliant Sam Houston rarely had a problem with the ladies. Sam’s first serious romantic interest was in 1817 with a girl known only as “Miss M” and “The Princess of East Tennessee”. He referred to the opposite sex as “dear girlies”. But it wasn’t until his early 30’s that he first fell in love, deeply, with a 17 year old daughter of a prominent Tennessee family, Eliza Allen. They were married on June 22, 1829, while he was in his third year as governor of Tennessee. His love was not returned. She assented to marriage for her family’s sake. They remained together for 11 weeks and she left him and to live with her parents. In despair, Sam resigned as governor and went to live with his Cherokee family in the Arkansas Territory in what is now Northeastern Oklahoma.

Sam Houston the Cherokee

From H. W. Brands "Lone Star Nation" Anchor Books, 2005" pp 118-119:

“While lacking many educational tools, Houston’s academy possessed a copy of Homer’s “Iliad” which filled the boy’s head with dreams of romance and battle. He resisted the farm work that occupied his five brothers, and when the elder ones tried to force his hand to plow, he fled into the forest, to the lands reserved for the Cherokees. Two of his brothers followed him, tracking the runaway to an island in the Tennessee River at the foot of the Great Smokey Mountains. The island was the home of Chief Oolooteka (*John Jolly*), the local Cherokee leader; by the chief’s house the brothers discovered young Sam sprawled beneath a tree, reading Homer. They urged him to return to civilization, but he refused, saying (according to his later recollection) that he liked ‘the wild liberty of the Red Men better than the tyranny of his own brothers.’

For three years Houston dwelt among the Cherokees. Oolooteka called himself ‘John Jolly’ among the whites, and the adopted surname suited his character. He was more genial than Houston’s brothers, and the teenage boy found in him a refreshing relief from them, and a substitute for his missing (*deceased*) father. As a name for himself, Houston took Colonneh, or Raven, a bird that symbolized good luck and also wanderlust. Houston learned the Cherokee language and the arts and crafts of the lore of the tribe. He learned to hunt like a Cherokee, dance and sing like a Cherokee, and commune with Cherokee spirits and gods.”

An 1816 treaty between the federal government and a rump group of Cherokees afforded the Monroe administration a pretext for removing all the Cherokee beyond the Mississippi River. In early 1817, Houston was assigned to a clerical position in Nashville, serving under the adjutant general for the army's Southern Division. Later in the year, Jackson appointed Houston as a sub-agent to handle the removal of Cherokee from East Tennessee. In February 1818, he received a strong reprimand from Secretary of War John C. Calhoun after he wore Native American dress to a meeting between Calhoun and Cherokee leaders, beginning an enmity that lasted until Calhoun's death in 1850. Angry over the incident with Calhoun and an investigation into his activities, Houston resigned from the army in 1818. He continued to act as a government liaison with the Cherokee, and in 1818, he helped some of the Cherokee resettle in Arkansas Territory.

When in 1829 he came to the Cherokees in despair from his broken marriage to Eliza, he in his deep depression took to alcoholism that lasted intermittently for

several years. Before his leaving Eliza, Sam was not a stranger to alcohol, but he could control it. While with the Cherokees he took a wife, Diana Rogers Gentry (in Cherokee “Talahina”). She was tall, handsome and in her mid-thirties, the mostly European blooded widow of a white blacksmith who was murdered by Osage Indians, and was **also** related to John Jolly, the Cherokee chief who was Houston’s adopted father. She tolerated his alcoholism and helped him recover from his many stupors. Sam had several businesses in the Cherokee territory which he **gave her before** he left her for Texas in 1832. She was quite a woman!

Because of Houston's experience in government and his connections with President Jackson, several local Native American tribes asked Houston to mediate disputes and communicate their needs to the Jackson administration. In late 1829, the Cherokee accorded Houston tribal membership and dispatched him to Washington to negotiate several issues. In anticipation of the removal of the remaining Cherokee east of the Mississippi River, Houston made an unsuccessful bid to supply rations to the Native Americans during their journey. Houston returned to Washington in 1832 **and** kept in touch with his friend President Andrew Jackson. Rumors spread that Houston intended to filibuster in Texas; this concerned Jackson who wanted to stay on good terms with Mexico in order purchase Texas.

In mid-1832, Houston's friends, William H. Wharton and John Austin Wharton, wrote to convince him to travel to the Mexican possession of Texas, where unrest among the American settlers was growing.

Early political career

After leaving government service, Houston began an apprenticeship with Judge James Trimble in Nashville. He quickly won admission to the state bar and opened a legal practice in Lebanon, Tennessee. With the aid of Governor Joseph McMinn, Houston won election as the solicitor general for Nashville in 1819. He was also appointed as the adjutant general of the Tennessee militia. Like his mentors, Houston was a member of the Democratic-Republican Party, which dominated state and national politics in the decade following the War of 1812. Tennessee gained three seats in the United States House of Representatives after the 1820 United States Census, and, with the support of Jackson and McMinn, Houston ran unopposed in the 1823 election for Tennessee's 9th congressional district. In his first major speech in Congress, Houston advocated for the recognition of Greece, which was fighting a war of independence against the Ottoman Empire.

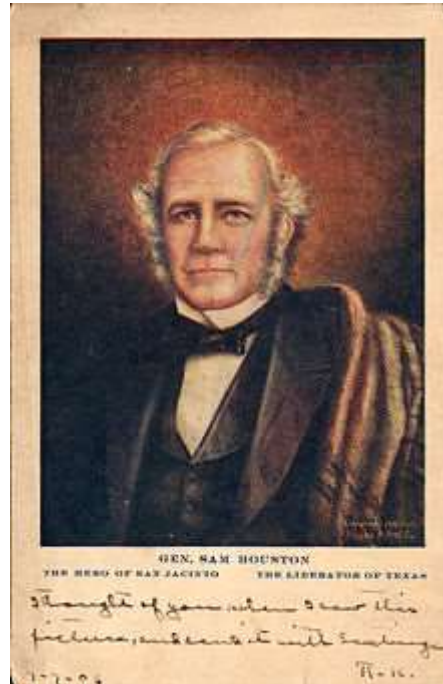
Houston strongly supported Jackson's candidacy in the 1824 presidential election, which saw four major candidates, all from the Democratic-Republican Party, run for president. As no candidate won a majority of the vote, the House of Representatives held a contingent election, which was won by John Quincy Adams. Supporters of Jackson eventually coalesced into the Democratic Party, and those who favored Adams became known as National Republicans. With Jackson's backing, Houston won election as governor of Tennessee in 1827. Governor Houston advocated the construction of internal improvements such as canals, and sought to lower the price of land for homesteaders living on public domain. He also aided Jackson's successful campaign in the 1828 presidential election.

Political exile and controversy

After Houston was reunited with Ahluidegi's group of Cherokee in mid-1829, Congressman William Stanbery alleged that Houston had placed a fraudulent bid in 1830 in collusion with the Jackson administration. After Stanbery refused to answer Houston's letters regarding the incident, Houston beat Stanbery with a cane. After the beating, the House of Representatives brought Houston to trial. By a vote of 106 to 89, the House convicted Houston, and Speaker of the House Andrew Stevenson formally reprimanded Houston. A federal court also required Houston to pay \$500 in damages.

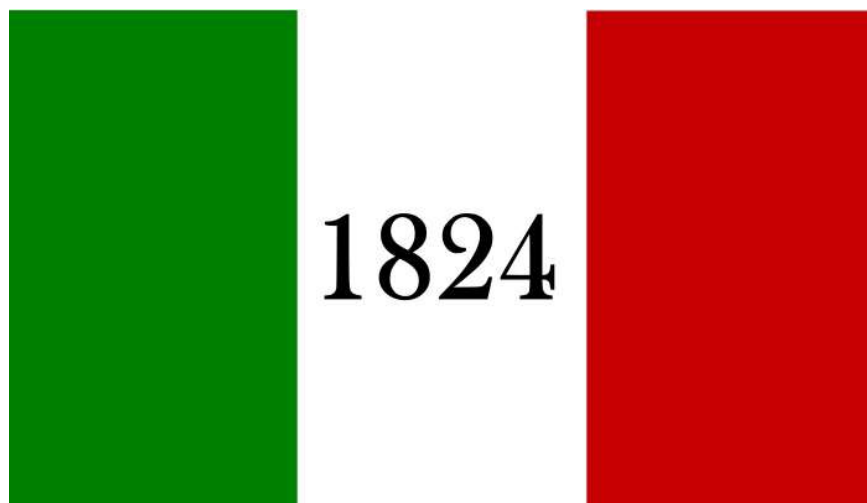
Houston was a slaveholder.

Texas Revolution



General Sam Houston (postcard, circa 1905)

The Mexican government had invited Americans to settle the sparsely populated region of Texas, but many of the settlers, including the Whartons, disliked Mexican rule. From his Cherokee family in Oklahoma, Houston crossed into Texas in December 1832, and shortly thereafter, he was granted land in Texas. Houston was elected to represent Nacogdoches, Texas at the Convention of 1833, which was called to petition Mexico for statehood (at the time, Texas was part of the state of Coahuila y Tejas). Houston strongly supported statehood, and he chaired a committee that drew a proposed state constitution. After the convention, Texan leader Stephen F. Austin petitioned the Mexican government for statehood, but he was unable to come to an agreement with President Valentín Gómez Farías. In 1834, Antonio López de Santa Anna assumed the presidency, took on new powers, and arrested Austin. In October 1835, the Texas Revolution broke out with the Battle of Gonzales, a skirmish between Texan forces and the Mexican Army. Shortly after the battle, Houston was elected to the Consultation, a congregation of Texas leaders.



Texians' Flag Flown at the Alamo

Along with Austin and others, Houston helped organize the Consultation into a provisional government for Texas. In November, Houston joined with most other delegates in voting for a measure that demanded Texas statehood and the restoration of the 1824 Constitution of Mexico. The Texians flag at the Alamo had the Mexican red white and green with “1824” in the middle. The Consultation appointed Houston as a major general and the highest-ranking officer of the Texian Army, though the appointment did not give him effective control of the militia units that constituted the Texian Army. Houston helped organize the Convention of 1836, where the Republic of Texas declared independence from Mexico. Shortly after the declaration, the convention received a plea for assistance from William B. Travis, who commanded Texan forces under siege by Santa Anna at the Alamo. The convention confirmed Houston's command of the Texian Army and dispatched him to lead a relief of Travis's force, but the Alamo fell before Houston could organize his forces at Gonzales, Texas. Seeking to intimidate Texan forces into surrender, the Mexican army killed every defender at the Alamo; news of the defeat outraged many Texans and caused desertions in Houston's ranks. Commanding a force of about 350 men that numerically was inferior to that of Santa Anna, Houston retreated east across the Colorado River.

Though the provisional government, as well as many of his own subordinates, urged him to attack the Mexican army, Houston continued the retreat east, informing his soldiers that they constituted "the only army in Texas now present ... There are but a few of us, and if we are beaten, the fate of Texas is sealed." Santa Anna divided his forces and finally caught up to Houston in mid-April 1836 approximately ten miles from the entrance of the San Jacinto River to Galveston Bay (currently known

as the San Jacinto Battleground.) Santa Anna's force of about 1,350 soldiers trapped Houston's force of 783 men in a marsh; rather than pressing the attack, Santa Anna ordered his soldiers to make camp. On the April 21, Houston ordered an attack on the Mexican army, beginning the Battle of San Jacinto. The Texans quickly routed Santa Anna's force, though Houston's ankle was shattered by a stray bullet. In the aftermath of the Battle of San Jacinto, a detachment of Texans captured Santa Anna. Santa Anna who was forced to sign the Treaties of Velasco, granting Texas its independence. Houston stayed briefly for negotiations, then returned to the United States for treatment of his ankle wound.

Sam Houston the Intellectual

Sam Houston's intellectual gift and aptitude has been described herein, where as a youth he was interested in reading, especially the classics. He became a lawyer in six months whereas the usual time was 18 months. He wrote Texas' Declaration of Independence and chaired the committee writing the Republic of Texas' constitution, writing a good part of it. A most interesting example of his high intellect is described in his relationship with Dr. Ashbel Smith, which began in 1837 while Sam was in the Republic's capital in Houston. The following is from James L. Haley's book "Sam Houston", University of Oklahoma Press-Norman, 2002 pp. 198-199"

"Yet here was Houston's other side, tender and cultured, which he hid, fastidiously from all but his most intimate associates. One of the few privileged latter was his roommate, Dr. Ashbel Smith who happened to own perhaps the finest book collection in Texas, a kaleidoscopic library that tumbled from military tactics to phrenology to Confucius. The Roman orators were there, as were the Greek philosophers, Houston's beloved Homer, and the Enlightenment—Racine, Descartes, forty-one volumes of Voltaire. In the Executive Mansion – such as it was, with no fireplace and only a small clay stove to warm his fingers, Indian style – “four nights out of five” in their shared bedroom in the “quiet hours after midnight”, Houston liked to have Smith read to him from these classics. And if some friendly rabble invaded the hour for a little late carousing, they were welcome – after Smith first stuffed the book under a pillow.

“This intimacy with Smith lasted – despite some strain in their later years -until Houston died-, and the relationship is worth a closer look. In appearance, the contrast between the two men could not have been more complete. Houston was

now fourth-four years old, his fleshy leonine countenance was beginning to wear, but his stature of six-feet, two inches was as commanding as ever. Ashbel Smith was twelve years younger, a full eight inches shorter and then only spindly built, and homely almost to the point of cruelty, though fastidious to the point of vanity. He was subject to illnesses of the chest as well as to woeful depressions that were probably more Byronic than physiological in nature. This unimpressive frame, however, jailed a mind that radiated brilliance. A Connecticut Yankee that graduated from Yale Medical School, his mastery of classical literature rivaled Houston's own. Years spent in teaching and then practicing medicine in North Carolina gave a sternly Southern turn to his gentlemanly character. Only once, apparently, did he falter, that being a paternity affair from which he disengaged himself with two thirty-dollar payments to the wronged girl's father..... Smith's abilities coupled with the city's (*Houston, TX*) appalling lack of sanitation, made for an instantly busy medical practice.....Houston nominated him surgeon general of the Texas Army”

Masonic Article on the Life of Sam Houston

The following is from the Masonic blog “My Freemasonry” by Brother Blake Bowden. It is heart warming to Texans and Masons. Some editorial changes have been made, and some of the information is repetitive from the preceding.

Sam Houston was born in Timber Ridge Church, Rockbridge County, Virginia on March 3, 1793. His family moved to Tennessee in the Spring of 1807. His father had suffered some financial hardship and sold their farm in Virginia. He passed away before the family moved to Tennessee. The family lived on a farm that Sam's father had acquired before he died.

Sam had trouble getting along with his older brothers so he "ran away" from home and lived on an island in the middle of the Tennessee river with some Cherokee Indians. One of the tribal chiefs there "adopted" Sam as his son. This chief's name was Oo-loo-te-ka [John Jolly]. He gave Sam the Indian name of Co-lon-neh (the Raven). Sam lived with these Cherokee Indians until he was eighteen years old.

Horseshoe Bend

In 1813, Sam enlisted in the U.S. Army. Shortly thereafter he was promoted to Sergeant, then a few months later he was made an Ensign and transferred to the 39th Infantry. There he served as a Lieutenant in the Militia under General Andrew Jackson and fought the Creek Indian "Red Sticks" in the Battle of Horseshoe Bend in what is now central Alabama. He was severely wounded,

having been shot first in the thigh with an arrow, which was removed. He charged the Indians in order to inspire his men to attack. During this *second* charge Sam was shot in the right shoulder and right arm, having a ball lodged in each of them. He was left to die since the doctors didn't think his wounds could be healed. Quoting from Sam Houston's writings:

"One ball was extracted, but no attempt was made to extract the other, for the surgeon said it was unnecessary to torture me, since I could not survive till the next morning. I spent the night as soldiers do, who war in the wilderness, and carry provisions in their knapsacks for a week's march. Comforts were out of the question for any; but I received less attention than the others, for everybody looked on me as a dying man, and what could be done for any, they felt should be done for those who were likely to live. It was the darkest night of my life.

"On the following day, I was carried on a litter with the other wounded for Fort Williams, some sixty or seventy miles distant. Here I remained, suspended between life and death, for a long time, neglected and exposed. I was finally brought back, through the Cherokee Nation, to my mother's home in Maryville, where I arrived in the latter part of May nearly two months after the battle of the Horse-Shoe.

"This long journey was made in a litter, borne by horses, while I was not only helpless but suffering the most extreme agony. My diet was of the coarsest description, and most of the time I was not only deprived of medical aid, but even of those simple remedies which would, at least, have alleviated my sufferings. Our toilsome way was through the forests where we were obligated to encamp out and often without shelter. No one around me expected me to recover. When I reached the house of my mother, I was so worn to a skeleton that she declared she never would have known me except for my eyes, which still retained something of their wonted expression.

"He lay all this time before they decided that he would not die and tried to do something with his wounds. He carried bad scars of this battle for the rest of his life. He served in the 39th Infantry from July 1813, until May 1818, when he resigned. During his service in the U.S. Army, he and General Andrew Jackson met and became close friends.

Becoming a Lawyer

Sam Houston had very little formal education, however when he decided he wanted to become a lawyer and was told that it would take him approximately

eighteen months' study and work to pass the bar examination, Houston didn't believe this and studied law at Nashville, passed the Bar and became a lawyer in six months.

Masonry

Sam Houston joined Cumberland (Tennessee) Masonic Lodge, No. 8, he was Initiated on April 19, passed to the degree of Fellow Craft on June 20, and raised to the Sublime Degree of Master Mason on July 22, 1817.

Sam demitted from Cumberland Lodge on November 20, 1817, and re-affiliated on June 21, 1821. During this period he supposedly was a charter member of Nashville Lodge, No. 37. He served Cumberland Lodge as Junior Warden and, in 1824, attended Grand Lodge as a Past Master. He was recorded in one place as having demitted from Cumberland Lodge on January 20, 1831; however, he is listed in the proceedings of 1828 as having been suspended for un-masonic conduct.

Some time in 1820, Sam ran for the office of District Attorney of Davidson district in Tennessee, and was elected. He served twelve months very successfully and then resigned to return to the regular practice of law.

In September, 1821, the former enlisted man aspired to a high office----that of Major General in the Tennessee Militia----and was elected. He certainly had made good his boast that those who taunted him about joining the army in the ranks would hear from him.

Then Brother Sam was elected in 1823 and 1825 to serve two terms in the U.S. House of Representatives and was a Major General. On October 1 of 1827, he was elected Governor of Tennessee.

Love Life

Quoting Judge Jo C. Guild, who knew Sam Houston well: "Houston stood six feet six inches in his socks, was of fine contour, a remarkably well proportioned man, and of commanding and gallant bearing, had a large, long head and face and his fine features were lit up by large eagle-looking eyes; possessed of a wonderful recollection of persons and names, a fine address and courtly manners and a magnetism approaching that of General Andrew Jackson. He enjoyed unbounded popularity among men and was a great favorite with the ladies."

Then on January 22, 1829, at the age of 37, he married an 18-year Lady, named

Eliza Allen, but for some reason (speculation was, on the part of those against Houston, that she left him) was very unhappy with her so he resigned as Governor, left his wife and moved to the Indian Territory where he lived again with his adopted father and remarried to an Indian woman by the name of Talahina (Tiana), and worked closely with and for the Cherokee Indian Nation in what was to become Indian Territory, setting relations with the other Indian nations back in the early 1800's. and worked closely with and for the Cherokee Indian Nation in what was to become Indian Territory, setting relations with the other Indian nations back in the early 1800's. and worked closely with and for the Cherokee Indian Nation in what was to become Indian Territory, setting relations with the other Indian nations back in the early 1800's.

On October 21, 1829, Sam Houston was made a citizen of the Cherokee Nation (Tribe) by tribal action. He then journeyed to Washington, D.C. vested with "all the rights, privileges and immunities" of a tribal member. There he was officially received as the Ambassador of the Cherokee Nation by the then President of the United States, Andrew Jackson.

Quoting from A History of Oklahoma by Grant Foreman, page 9, "Another element of that period that was to color the history of Oklahoma was the arrival in June, 1829, of Sam Houston. From pique and disappointment he had abandoned his high office of governor of Tennessee to live among the Cherokee Indians in the future Oklahoma. He came up the Arkansas River and landed near the mouth of the Illinois to join his old Cherokee Friend, Chief John Jolly, who lived a mile or two up that stream on the east bank. After remaining there a while he continued to Fort Gibson and three miles northwest of the fort on the road to the Creek agency established himself in what he called Wigwam Neosho, where he set up a little store. Here he took deep interest in the welfare of the Indians, whose difficulties and suffering enlisted his warm sympathy. He wrote many letters to the department (*of Indian Affairs*) at Washington in which he endeavored to secure redress for them and discipline officials whom he blamed for many of their wrongs. At the same time, however, he was scheming with the influence he had with President Jackson to secure lucrative contracts to ration the Indians it was hoped would be emigrated from the East, if Jackson's plans for removal should materialize. Houston returned to Fort Gibson from Washington after his plan failed, and in 1832, departed for Texas, where he helped make history for that future state."

Actually, Talahina's name was Diana or Dianna Rogers. She was a member of a very famous Cherokee family and the Wiherokee leader, David Gentry. She was

a tall and beautiful woman, the daughter of Captain John "Hell Fire Jack" Rogers, one of the most prominent white men in the Cherokee Nation. Her brothers were: Captain John Rogers, Jr., William Rogers and Charles Rogers, all famous Cherokee Indians. She was also some kin to Sequoyah. One of her uncles was John Jolly. She appeared to be more a "white woman" because she was less than a quarter Cherokee Indian, probably closer to "one-sixteenth Cherokee and fifteen-sixteenths Scotch and English."

"The popular tale is that Houston lay in the gutter of life suffering from the wounds of his marriage failure and drank himself through a period of three years. Nothing could be farther from the truth, for this was one of the most productive periods in Houston's life. If Houston were "The Big Drunk" this is a perfect application of Lincoln's purported request to know the brand name of the whiskey which General Grant drank so that he could issue it to his other generals.

"Sam Houston accomplished more during these three years than many men do in a lifetime. During his years with the Cherokees, Houston made two trips to Washington to assist in negotiation with Jackson and the War Department, and his negotiation to end the warfare between the Osages and the Creeks and the Cherokees was the most successful in thirty years of attempted settlements. A long-range reform program in the Indian Agency system as well as removal of agents of questionable ability and honesty resulted from his intervention; through his political column in the Arkansas Gazette and the pamphlets of Tah-lohn-tusky and Standing Bear, Houston spearheaded the Indian Bureau reform programs."

In late November of 1832, he went to Texas, made application to live in the Stephen F. Austin Colony. When Sam Houston moved to Texas, he affiliated with Holland Lodge No. 36 of Louisiana. It later became Holland Lodge No. 1 of Texas. On December 20, 1837, he presided over the meeting which established the Grand Lodge of Texas. Then he demitted from Holland Lodge on July 14, 1842, and was next reported as a member of Forest Lodge No. 19, in Huntsville, Texas in 1851. Then, as a member of the first convention, April 1, 1833, he chaired a committee to write a constitution for the republic of Texas. Actually he wrote most of it himself, and then he was elected general of the militia. On November 3, 1835, Texas declared independence and Houston was elected as Major General to command the Army. On March 2, 1836, he was a member of the convention that declared absolute independence and they named him Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces. This was his 43rd birthday. It was during this time that Houston served as Commander-in-Chief during the Texas war for independence from Mexico and won a decisive victory over General Santa

Anna (another Mason) at the battle of San Jacinto where Texas lost five men and Mexico over 1000. Following the slaughters at the Alamo and Goliad, Commander-in-Chief Sam Houston and his army defeated the Mexicans at San Jacinto and took Santa Anna a prisoner. This was on April 2, 1836, and during this engagement General Sam Houston was again wounded. His right leg was terribly hurt. Then on May 5, 1836, Houston turned the command of his armies over to Major General Thomas J. Rusk because of his wound.

On May 22, 1836, Sam Houston then went to New Orleans where he was treated by the same doctor who had treated him nearly thirty years earlier. This doctor said if had Houston not been treated when he was he would have died, as mortification had already begun to set in, in his leg. This wound was to bother him a great deal for the rest of his life.

On September 5, 1836, Sam Houston was elected President of the Newly formed Texas Republic he took the oath of office on October 22, 1836. And even though his candidacy was announced only twelve days prior to the election, he received 4,374 of the total of 5,104 votes. His term expired on December 12, 1838.

On November 20, 1836, Sam Houston wrote President Andrew Jackson to inform him Santa Anna was on his way to Washington D.C. Also letting Jackson know that he, Houston, hoped Texas could become a state of the United States. He was President of the Texas Republic went it voted to become a state on February 16, 1846.

Sometime in the summer of 1839 Sam Houston met and fell head over heels in love with Margaret Lea. They were married on May 9, 1840, Sam was 47 years, two months and seven days old at the time. They had eight children.

He served two years in the House of Representatives of the Texas Republic while Mirabeau Lamar was President. Lamar was a disaster as President, spending the nation into insolvency and at the end of Lamar's term Houston was elected for the second time and served again as president from December 13, 1841, until December 9, 1844. Sam served as President of the Republic of Texas through some very trying times.

After having served as first and third President of the Texas Republic, he then labored hard for the admission of Texas to the United States and this wish came to fruition on December 29, 1845. After the United States House of Representatives voted to annex Texas in January of 1845 and the U.S. Senate in

February and President Tyler signed the bill on March 1, 1845, it was up to Texas. The people of Texas voted to ratify this action on October 13, 1845. Then on February 16, 1846, the Lone Star Flag of the Republic of Texas was lowered and the Stars and Stripes were raised over Texas.

Later in March of 1846, Sam was elected to the U.S. Senate. He served as Senator until March of 1859.

At this stage of his life Oliver Dyer wrote of Houston: "He was fifty-five years old, a magnificent barbarian, somewhat tempered by civilization. He was of large frame, of stately carriage and dignified demeanor and had a lion-like countenance capable of expressing fiercest passions. His dress was peculiar, but it was becoming to his style. The conspicuous features of it were a military cap, and a short military cloak of fine blue broadcloth, with a blood-red lining. Afterward, I occasionally met him when he wore a vast and picturesque sombrero and a Mexican blanket."

Then he was elected and inaugurated as Governor of Texas on December 21, 1859, and served from then until 1861. Thus he served as Governor of Texas; tried very hard to keep the U.S. together and tried to prevent the Civil War, even to the extent of being the people's candidate for President against Steven A. Douglas and Abraham Lincoln, withdrawing from the race during the campaign in an attempt to keep the Republican candidate, Abraham Lincoln, from being elected because Houston was not convinced that Lincoln would try and hold the U.S. together. **Sam Houston was dedicated to the U.S. first and Texas second.** Both were very important to him. When Texas seceded from the Union, Governor Houston refused to accept it. When the roll was called and Houston's name was called he was no where to be found so the Lt. Governor was inaugurated as Governor.

Later, on his way home, he stopped in Brenham, where Houston was asked to make a speech he refused. His old soldier comrades and other friends at Brenham insisted that he speak. He firmly refused until the excitement became intense; excited groups of secessionists gathered upon the street corners, and declared that it would be treason against the Confederate Government to permit Governor Houston to speak against the secession. The court house was densely packed, and as Governor Houston arose to speak, cries were heard: "Put him out; don't let him speak; kill him." At this moment Mr. Hugh McIntyre, a wealthy planter of the community, and a leading secessionist, sprang up on the table and drew a large Colt revolver saying, "I and 100 other friends of Governor Houston

have invited him to address us, and we will kill the first man who insults, or who may, in any way attempt to injure him. I, myself, think that Governor Houston ought to have accepted the situation, and ought to have taken the oath of allegiance to our Confederate Government, but he thought otherwise. He is honest and sincere, and he shed his blood for Texas independence. There is no othore right to be heard by the people of Texas. Now, fellow-citizens, give him your close attention; and you ruffians, keep quite, or I will kill you."

The Civil War turned out just as Sam had predicted. He had said all along that the South didn't have a chance of winning. Sam Houston died *in the middle of* the Civil War on July 16, 1863, at the age of 70 years, four months and thirteen days.

One of Houston's writings was: "The great misfortune is that a notion obtains with those in power that the world, or the people, require more governing than is necessary. To govern well is a great science, but no country is ever improved by too much governing. Govern wisely and as little as possible! Most men think when they are elevated to position that it requires an effort to discharge their duties and they leave common sense out of the question."

When he died, Sam Houston left behind his wife and eight children.

In summary: Houston was elected to congress in 1823 and 1825. He was elected Governor of Tennessee in 1827. Then served as Commander-in-Chief of the Texas Military, was elected and served as President of the Texas Republic twice and a member of the house of representatives once, served as Senator from the State of Texas and served two terms as Governor of Texas. Quite a career, even for a great Mason.

Source: Bob Ellenwood, MPS

Comparison Between George Washington and Sam Houston

	WASHINGTON	HOUSTON
Military	Fought bravely for the British as a lieutenant in the French & Indian War, where he came close to death as witnessed by the bullet holes in his coat. Led the Continental Army to victory over the English in five years, while suffering from lack of support from Congress, the elements and many defeats.	Fought heroically in the War of 1812 as a U.S. lieutenant against England's ally the Red Stick Creek Indians at Horseshoe Bend in Alabama. Was severely wounded in two assaults on the enemy's fort and nearly died three combat wounds. Won Texas independence at Battle of San Jacinto, where he was wounded in the ankle. Fought Mexico for about one year, was in last battle.
Political	Attended the Constitutional Convention and was the first U.S. President serving two consecutive terms. Did not like politics but served as President in the necessity of holding the new nation together.	Congressman and Senator in the U.S. gov't, twice President of the Republic of Texas, twice Governor of the State of Texas. Governor of Tennessee. Federal sub-agent to the Indians. Opposed Texas secession from the U.S., left governorship when Texas seceded.
Intellectual	Was surveyor in the colonial era.	Highly intellectual, favoring classic literature.
Personal	Married once, no children. No abuse of alcohol. Tobacco farmer. Outstanding demeanor. An active Mason.	Married three times, having eight children by his third wife. Rustic with periods of alcoholism. Adapted to and adopted by Cherokee Indians, with whom he lived several years. Mason initially in Tennessee then in Texas.
Physical	Tall and trim.	Tall and robust.
Historical	Rightly considered the Father of his Country	Although Stephen F. Austin is rightly considered the Father of Texas, he died in Dec. 1836, whereas Houston actively served Texas until his death in 1863.

APPENDIX F - BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF STEPHEN F. AUSTIN

The following is from Wikipedia. Changes made by author are in *italics*.

Stephen Fuller Austin (November 3, 1793 – December 27, 1836) was an American empresario. Known as the "**Father of Texas**", and the founder of Texas, he led the second, and ultimately, the successful colonization of the region by bringing 300 families from the United States to the region in 1825.

Early Life

Born in Virginia and raised in southeastern Missouri, Austin served in the Missouri territorial legislature before moving to Arkansas Territory and later Louisiana. His father, Moses Austin, received an empresario grant from Spain to settle Texas. After Moses Austin's death in 1821, Stephen Austin won recognition of the empresario grant from the newly independent state of Mexico. Austin convinced numerous American settlers to move to Texas, and by 1825 Austin had brought the first 300 American families into the territory. Throughout the 1820s, Austin sought to maintain good relations with the Mexican government, and he helped suppress the Fredonian Rebellion. He also helped ensure the introduction of slavery into Texas despite the attempts of the Mexican government to ban the institution. He led the initial actions against the Karankawa people in this area.

As Texas settlers became increasingly dissatisfied with the Mexican government, Austin advocated conciliation, but the dissent against Mexico escalated into the Texas Revolution. Austin led Texas forces at the successful Siege of B exar before serving as a commissioner to the United States. Austin ran in the 1836 Texas presidential election but was defeated by Sam Houston. Houston appointed Austin as secretary of state for the new republic, and Austin held that position until his death in December 1836.

Numerous places and institutions are named in his honor, including the capital of Texas, Austin in Travis County, Austin County, Austin Bayou, Stephen F. Austin State University in Nacogdoches, Austin College in Sherman, and a number of K-12 schools.

Stephen F. Austin was born in the mining region of southwestern Virginia (Wythe County) in what is known as Austinville today, some 256 miles (412 km) southwest of Richmond, Virginia. He was the second child of Mary Brown Austin and Moses Austin; the first, Eliza, lived only one month. On June 8, 1798, when Stephen was four years old, his family moved west to the lead-mining region of present-day

Potosi, Missouri, 40 miles west of the Mississippi River. His father Moses Austin received a *sitio* from the Spanish government for the mining site of *Mine à Breton*, established by French colonists. His great-great-grandfather, Anthony Austin (b.1636), was the son of Richard Austin (b.1598 in Bishopstoke, Hampshire, England), he and his wife Esther were original settlers of Suffield, Massachusetts, which became Connecticut in 1749.

When Austin was eleven years old, his family sent him back east to be educated, first at the preparatory school of Bacon Academy in Colchester, Connecticut. He studied at Transylvania University in Lexington, Kentucky, from which he graduated in 1810. After graduation, Austin began studying to be a lawyer, reading the law with an established firm.

At age 21, he was elected to and served in the legislature of the Missouri Territory. As a member of the territorial legislature, he was "influential in obtaining a charter for the struggling Bank of St. Louis."

Left penniless after the Panic of 1819, Austin decided to move south to the new Arkansas Territory. He acquired property on the south bank of the Arkansas River, in the area that would later become Little Rock. After purchasing the property, he learned the area was being considered as the location for the new territorial capital, which could make his land worth a great deal more. He made his home in Hempstead County, Arkansas. Two weeks before the first Arkansas territorial elections in 1820, Austin declared his candidacy for Congress. His late entrance meant his name did not appear on the ballot in two of the five counties, but he still placed second in the field of six candidates. Later, he was appointed as a judge for the First Circuit Court. Over the next few months, Little Rock did become the territorial capital. But Austin's claim to land in the area was contested, and the courts ruled against him. The Territorial Assembly reorganized the government and abolished Austin's judgeship.

Austin left the territory, moving to Louisiana. He reached New Orleans in November 1820, where he met and stayed with Joseph H. Hawkins, a New Orleans lawyer and former Kentucky congressman. He made arrangements to study law with him.

Moving to Texas

During Austin's time in Arkansas, his father traveled to Spanish Texas and received an empresarios grant that would allow him to bring 300 American families to Texas, they would be called "The Old 300." Moses Austin caught pneumonia soon after returning to Missouri. He directed that his *empresario* grant would be taken over by his son Stephen.

Although Austin was reluctant to carry on his father's Texas venture, he was persuaded to pursue the colonization of Texas by a letter from his mother, Mary Brown Austin, written two days before Moses Austin would die. Austin boarded the steamer, *Beaver*, and departed to New Orleans to meet Spanish officials led by Erasmo Seguín. He was at Natchitoches, Louisiana, in 1821, when he learned of his father's death. "This news has effected me very much, he was one of the most feeling and affectionate Fathers that ever lived. His faults I now say, and always have, were not of the heart."

Austin led his party to travel 300 miles (480 km) in four weeks to San Antonio with the intent of reauthorizing his father's grant, arriving on August 12. While in transit, they learned Mexico had declared its independence from Spain, and Texas had become a Mexican province, rather than a Spanish territory. José Antonio Navarro, a San Antonio native with ambitious visions of the future of Texas, befriended Stephen F. Austin, and the two developed a lasting association. Navarro, proficient in Spanish and Mexican law, assisted Austin in obtaining his empresario contracts. In San Antonio, the grant was reauthorized by Governor Antonio María Martínez, who allowed Austin to explore the Gulf Coast between San Antonio and the Brazos River to find a suitable location for a colony. As guides for the party, Manuel Becerra and three Aranama Indians, went with the expedition.

Austin advertised the Texas opportunity in New Orleans, announcing that land was available along the Brazos and Colorado rivers. A family of a husband, wife, and two children would receive 1,280 acres (520 ha) at twelve and a half cents per acre. Farmers could get 177 acres (72 ha), and ranchers 4,428 acres (1,792 ha). In December 1821, the first U.S. colonists crossed into the granted territory by land and sea, on the Brazos River in present-day Brazoria County, Texas.

Empresario Austin



Stephen F. Austin was an important figure in early Texas

Austin's plan for an American colony was thrown into turmoil by Mexico's gaining independence from Spain in 1821. Governor Martínez informed Austin that the *junta instituyente*, the new rump congress of the government of Agustín de Iturbide of Mexico, refused to recognize the land grant authorized by Spain. His government intended to use a general immigration law to regulate new settlement in Mexico. Austin traveled to Mexico City, where he persuaded the *junta instituyente* to approve the grant to his father, as well as the law signed by the Mexican Emperor on January 3, 1823.

The old imperial law offered heads of families a league and a labor of land, 4,605 acres (1,864 ha), and other inducements. It also provided for the employment of agents, called *empresarios*, to promote immigration. As an *empresario*, Austin was to receive 67,000 acres of land for each 200 families he brought to Texas. According to the law, immigrants were not required to pay fees to the government. Some of the immigrants denied Austin's right to charge them for services at the rate of 12.5 cents/acre (31 cents/ha).

When the Emperor of Mexico, Agustín de Iturbide, abdicated in March 1823, the law was annulled once again. In April 1823, Austin induced the congress to grant him a contract to bring 300 families into Texas. He wanted honest, hard-working people who would make the colony a success. In 1824, the congress passed a new immigration law that allowed the individual states of Mexico to administer public lands and open them to settlement under certain conditions. In March 1825, the legislature of the Mexican state of Coahuila y Tejas passed a law similar to the one authorized by Iturbide. The law continued the system of *empresarios* (see Appendix G), as well as granting each married man a league of land, 4,428 acres (1,792 ha), with the stipulation that he must pay the state \$30 within six years.

By late 1825, Austin had brought the first 300 families to his settlement, the Austin Colony; these 300 are now known in Texas history as the Old Three Hundred. Austin had obtained further contracts to settle an additional 900 families between 1825 and 1829. He had effective civil and military authority over the settlers, but he was quick to introduce a semblance of American law - the Constitution of Coahuila y Tejas was agreed on in November 1827. Also, Austin organized small, informal armed groups to protect the colonists, which evolved into the Texas Rangers. Despite his hopes, Austin was making little money from his endeavors; the colonists were unwilling to pay for his services as *empresario* and most of his revenues were spent on the processes of government and other public services.

The Karankawas

The following, shaded in purple, is Britannica's portion on slavery in this article:

Austin laid claim to rich tracts of land near bays and river mouths populated by the Karankawa. The Karankawa relied on these bays for the fish and shellfish that provided their winter protein sources and thus were fiercely protective of that land. Austin wrote upon scouting the land that extermination of the Karankawa would be necessary, despite the fact that his first encounter with the tribe was friendly. He spread rumors among the settlers of cannibalism and extreme violence of the Karankawa, sometimes more specifically the Carancaguases. Research has suggested that these accusations of cannibalism were false, possibly caused by confusion with another tribe, and that the Karankawa were horrified by cannibalism when they learned of it being practiced by shipwrecked Spaniards. Austin's stories primed the colonists to believe that the Karankawa would be impossible to live among, and may have contributed to the Skull Creek massacre in which an Karankawa village was razed and 19 Kawankawa Indians were killed. After the massacre Austin continued to encourage violence both against and between the

Indian tribes, culminating in 1825 with his order for all Kawankawa to be pursued and killed on sight.

It has been stated earlier in this document that the Karankawas massacred LaSalle's Matagorda colony in the late 1600's.

From H. W. Brands: "In light of the Karankawa's bad reputation—they, too, practiced cannibalism, and were considered treacherous by the Spanish...(Austin's words: 'these Indians may be called universal enemies to man. They killed of all nations that came in their power, and frequently feast on the bodies of their victims....An American population will be the signal of their extermination for there will be no way of subduing them but extermination.')....."During its first few years the Austin colony encountered persistent violence from Indians. Karankawas posed the principal danger." Quoting one of the colonists battling the Karankawas could "shoot with their bows and arrows one hundred yards with great accuracy as an American can with his rifle"...their rate of fire was much faster than rifles.

"In December 1823, following a series of Karankawa attacks along the lower Colorado, Austin summoned 'all the settlers able to bear arms' to join a militia against the Indians....to make war against the Karankawas... they fled to and took refuge at the mission at La Bahia (Goliad), where the Fathers urged Austin to accept a truce requiring the Indians to stay west of the San Antonio River for one year. The Indians accepted. Austin knew that in that time the number of colonists would be far greater and that of the Indians lesser.

Austin the Mason

During these years, Austin, a member of Louisiana Lodge No. 111 at Ste. Genevieve, Missouri, sought to establish Freemasonry in Texas. Freemasonry was well established among the educated classes of Mexican society. It had been introduced among the aristocracy loyal to the House of Bourbon (Spain), and the conservatives had total control over the Order. By 1827, Americans living in Mexico City had introduced the United States York Rite of Freemasonry as a liberal alternative to the established European-style Scottish Rite. (See the last few paragraphs of Appendix C)

On February 11, 1828, Austin called a meeting of Freemasons at San Felipe to elect officers and to petition the Masonic Grand Lodge in Mexico City for a charter to form a lodge. Austin was elected Worshipful Master of the new lodge. Although the petition reached Matamoros, and was to be forwarded to Mexico City, nothing more was heard of it. By 1828, the ruling faction in Mexico was afraid the liberal elements

in Texas might try to gain their independence. Fully aware of the political philosophies of American Freemasons, **the Mexican government outlawed Freemasonry on October 25, 1828.** In 1829, Austin called another meeting, where it was decided that it was "impolitic and imprudent, at this time, to form Masonic lodges in Texas."

He was active in promoting trade and currying the good favor of the Mexican authorities, aiding them in the suppression of the Fredonian Rebellion of Haden Edwards. Some historians consider the Fredonian Rebellion to be the beginning of the Texas Revolution. Although "premature ... the Fredonian Rebellion sparked the powder for later success." *For this event, Austin raised troops to fight with Mexican troops against the Fredonian Texas rebels.* With the colonists numbering more than 11,000 by 1832, they were becoming less amenable to Austin's cautious leadership, and also, the Mexican government was becoming less cooperative. It was concerned with the growth of the colony and the efforts of the U.S. government to buy the state from them. The Mexican government had attempted to stop further U.S. immigration as early as April 1830, but Austin's skills gained an exemption for his colonies. He granted land to immigrants based on 640 acres (2.6 km²) to the husband, 320 to the wife, 160 for every child, and 80 for every slave.

Slavery

Slavery was a very important issue to Austin, one he called "of great interest" to him. Austin was a periodical slaveowner throughout his life; however, he had conflicting views about it. Theoretically, he believed slavery was wrong and went against the American ideal of liberty. In practice, however, he agreed with the social, economic, and political justifications of it, and worked hard to defend and expand it. Despite his defense of it, he also harbored concerns that the long-term effects of slavery would destroy American society. He grew particularly concerned following Nat Turner's rebellion, stating:

"I sometimes shudder at the consequences and think that a large part of America will be Santo Domingonized in 100, or 200 years. The idea of seeing such a country as this overrun by a slave population almost makes me weep. It is in vain to tell a North American that the white population will be destroyed some fifty or eighty years hence by the negroes, and that his daughters will be violated and Butchered by them."

While Austin thought it would be advantageous some day for Texas to phase out of slavery, up until the Texas Revolution he worked to ensure that his colony's

immigrants could bypass the Mexican government's resistance to it. Doing so ensured the population growth and economic development of his colony, which was primarily dependent on the monocropping of cotton and sugar.

Arguing that the loss of slaves would be ruinous to the colony, he arranged for his settlers to receive eighty acres of land for each slave they brought with them to Texas. In August 1825, he recommended that the state government allow immigrants to bring their slaves with them through 1840, with the caveat that female grandchildren of the slaves would be freed by the age of 15, and males by age of 25. His recommendation was rejected.

In 1826, when a state committee proposed abolishing slavery outright, 25 percent of the people in Austin's colony were slaves. Austin's colonists, mostly pro-slavery immigrants from the south, threatened to leave Texas if the proposition passed, while prospective Southern immigrants hesitated to come to Texas until slavery was guaranteed there.

Austin conceded that **the success of his colony was dependent on slavery**. Without slaves, the colonists would lack the mass labor to cultivate the land, which would stall the pace of immigration needed to develop and increase the value of the land, which would deflate the economy and motivate his colonists to leave.

Austin went before the legislature and pleaded that, at the least; his original 300 colonists should be allowed to keep their slaves. He argued against the "bad faith" of freeing them, demanded reparations to slaveowners for every slave emancipated by the state, warned that the loss of slaves could leave some colonists destitute, and reasoned that freeing them would not only leave his settlers alone in the harsh Texas environment, but would also expose them to the discomfort and nuisance of living amongst freed slaves, who would become vagrants seeking retribution upon their former owners. While he waited for the legislature's verdict of his request, Austin went into a deep depression over the issue and sent his brother, Brown Austin, to further lobby the legislature on his behalf.

In March 1827, the legislature of *Mexico* signed Article 13 into law. Despite the law complying with some of his requests, Austin called it "unconstitutional." He contested the law as it freed the children of slaves at birth, established a six-month grace period before fully emancipating all slaves in the state, and included provisions to improve the conditions of slaves and transitioning freedmen. Austin — who had been so effective in persuading the legislature, however, that the author of Article 13 (before its passage) requested to withdraw it — helped his colonists evade the

law by advising them to legally supplant the word "slave" with the words "*indentured servants*", "workingmen," "family servants," and "laborers," and by working to pass a decree that banned freedmen from Texas and forced emancipated slaves to work for their former slaveowners until the accrued "debt" (e.g. clothing, food), incurred for their own enslavement, was worked off, *therefore indenturing them*.

In 1828, Austin petitioned the legislature to guarantee that slaveowners, immigrating to Texas, could legally "free" their slaves before immigrating, and contract them into a lifetime term of indentured servitude, thereby avoiding recognizing them as slaves. He lobbied to help his colony elude Vicente Guerrero's 1829 attempt to legally emancipate slaves in the province, and to bypass the government's effort to prohibit slavery when it passed the Law of April 6, 1830. In 1830, Austin wrote that he would oppose Texas joining the United States without guarantees that he should "insist on the perpetual exclusion of slavery from this state [Texas]." In 1833, he wrote:

“Texas must be a slave country. Circumstances and unavoidable necessity compel it. It is the wish of the people there, and it is my duty to do all I can, prudently, in favor of it. I will do so.”

In May 1835, Austin's colonists learned that Mexico's tolerance for the evasions of slaveowners was drawing to a close, with its proposal of new abolition legislation. Alarmed, and with Austin imprisoned in Mexico for pushing for independence, (*of Texas from the current state of Coahuila y Texas*) colonists turned against the Mexican government, calling it "oppressive" and a "plundering, robbing, autocratical government" without regard for the security of "life, liberty or property." Resisting the impact a changed slavery policy would have on economic growth, and fearing rumors of Mexico's plan to free the slaves and turn them loose upon the colonists, shortly after Austin returned from Mexico, he and his colonists took up arms against the Mexican government. Austin later gained U.S. Government support for his revolution when he wrote to Senator Lewis F. Linn and pleaded that Santa Anna planned to "exterminate" all of the colonists and fill Texas "with Indians and negroes [freed slaves]."

Relations with Mexico



Austin's 1836 map of Texas

The application of the immigration control and the introduction of tariff laws (*Law of 1830*) had done much to dissatisfy the colonists, peaking in the Anahuac Disturbances. Austin became involved in Mexican politics, supporting the upstart Antonio López de Santa Anna. Following the success of Santa Anna, the colonists sought a compensatory reward, proclaimed at the Convention of 1832—resumption of immigration, tariff exemption, separation from Coahuila, and a new state government for Texas. Austin did not support these demands; he considered them ill-timed and tried his hardest to moderate them. When they were repeated and extended at the Convention of 1833, Austin traveled to Mexico City on July 18, 1833, and met with Vice President Valentín Gómez Farías. Austin did gain certain important reforms; the immigration ban was lifted, but a separate state government was not authorized. Statehood in Mexico required a population of 80,000, and Texas had only 30,000.

Believing that he was pushing for Texas independence and suspect that he was trying to incite insurrection, Austin was arrested by the Mexican government in January 1834 in Saltillo, Coahuila, Mexico. He was taken to Mexico City and imprisoned. No charges were filed against him as no court would take jurisdiction. He was moved from prison to prison. He was released under bond in December 1834 and required to stay in the Federal District. He was fully freed under the general amnesty in July 1835 and in August 1835 left Mexico to return to Texas via New Orleans.

Texas Revolution

Main article: Texas Revolution

In his (*Austin's*) absence, a number of events propelled the colonists toward confrontation with Santa Anna's centralist government. Austin took temporary command of the Texian forces during the Siege of Béxar from October 12 to December 11, 1835. After learning of the Disturbances at Anahuac and Velasco in the summer of 1835, an enraged Santa Anna made rapid preparations for the Mexican army to **sweep Anglo settlers from Texas**. War began in October 1835 at Gonzales. The Republic of Texas, created by a new constitution on March 2, 1836, won independence following a string of defeats with the dramatic turnabout victory at the Battle of San Jacinto on April 21, 1836, and the capture of Santa Anna the following morning. He (*Santa Anna*) was then imprisoned.

Austin in the Republic of Texas

Further information: Republic of Texas

In December 1835, Austin, Branch Archer, and William H. Wharton were appointed commissioners to the U.S. by the provisional government of the republic. On June 10, 1836, Austin was in New Orleans, where he received word of Santa Anna's defeat by Sam Houston at the Battle of San Jacinto. Austin returned to Texas to rest at Peach Point in August. On August 4, he announced his candidacy for president of Texas. Austin felt confident he could win the election until two weeks before the election, when on August 20, Houston entered the race. Austin wrote, "Many of the old settlers who are too blind to see or understand their interest will vote for him." Houston carried East Texas, the Red River region, and most of the soldiers' votes. Austin received 587 votes to Sam Houston's 5,119 and Henry Smith's 743 votes.

Houston would appoint Austin as the first secretary of state of the new republic; however, Austin only served approximately two months before his death.

Death and Estate

In December 1836, Austin was in the new capital of Columbia (now known as West Columbia) where he caught a severe cold; his condition worsened. Doctors were called in, but could not help him. Austin died of pneumonia at noon on December

27, 1836. He was at the home of George B. McKinstry, near what is now West Columbia, Texas. He was 43. Austin's last words were "The independence of Texas is recognized! Don't you see it in the papers?..." Upon hearing of Austin's death, Houston ordered an official statement proclaiming: "The Father of Texas is no more; the first pioneer of the wilderness has departed." Originally, Austin was buried at Gulf Prairie Cemetery in Brazoria County, Texas. In 1910 Austin's body was reinterred at the Texas State Cemetery in Austin.

Austin never married, nor did he have any children. He bequeathed all his land, titles, and possessions, to his married sister, Emily Austin Perry.

Summary

Stephen F. Austin life and character can be summarized thus:

- He was devoted to his parents and siblings
- He was successful before becoming an empresario
- He struggled to help his father through his misfortunes
- He struggled, at least with the Republic of Mexico, to maintain his father's grant of empresario
- He proved to be a skillful diplomat dealing with Mexico, the U.S. and his own colony.
- He was very diligent in selecting the first 300 Americans to settle his land grant in Texas
- He became devoted to his grant as an empresario, seeing little or no profit from that venture
- Per his agreement as an empresario, he became and was a loyal Mexican citizen, until he was arrested and imprisoned in Mexico for a about a year.
- He risked his life leading fights against the Karankawas, and he commanded the Texians' siege and capture of San Antonio in the first stage of the Revolution.

It has been stated in the literature that his goal Texas was financial success. This apparent revisionism of history disagrees with the above.

APPENDIX G: EMPRESARIOS

Definition and Rules

An **empresario** was a person who had been granted the right to settle on land in exchange for recruiting and taking responsibility for settling the eastern areas of Coahuila y Tejas in the early nineteenth century. The word is Spanish for entrepreneur. In Stephen F. Austin's case, as empresario, for his services he was to receive a large tract of land and a one-time fee from the settlers 12.5 cents per acre. His obligation to New Spain is as follows:

- Settlers were supposed to own property or have a craft or useful profession
- Settlers were to be of good character
- Settlers must become citizens of and loyal to Spain and expected to learn Spanish
- Settlers must convert to Roman Catholicism
- all people wishing to live in Texas were expected to report to the nearest Mexican authority for permission to settle
- people who did not already possess property in Texas could claim 4438 acres of irrigable land, with an additional 4438 acres available to those who owned cattle.
- Empresarios and individuals with large families were exempt from the limit
- The rules were widely disregarded and many families became squatters.

A more detailed discussion of the laws from Spain through the Republic of Mexico follows the chart below.

Empresarios and their Colonies

Empresario	Colony Location	Capital	Notes
			Empresido of Mexico in New Madrid (in what is now Missouri), Spanish Louisiana Territory
Philip Alston	New Madrid	New Orleans	Sold land grants
Stephen F. Austin	Austin's Colony between Brazos and Colorado Rivers	San Felipe de Austin	Took over his father Moses' empresario contract
David G. Burnet	East Texas, northwest of Nacagdoches		Sold his land grant to the Galveston Bay & Texas Land Company

Martin de Leon	De Leon's Colony	Victoria	Only colony that was primarily Tejano and not Anglo-American
Green DeWitt	DeWitt Colony	Gonzales	
Haden Harrison Edwards	East Texas – from the Navasota River to 69 west of the Sabine River, and	Nacogdoches	Expelled from Texas after launching the Fredonian Rebellion in 1827
Empresario	Colony Location	Capital	Notes
Haden Harrison Edwards (continued)	from 69 miles north of the Gulf of Mexico to 52 miles north of the town of Nacogdoches		
Benjamin Drake Lovell and John Purnell			Attempted to establish a socialist colony in 1826; land was later given to McMullen & McGloin
James Power and James Hewelson	Land between Guadalupe and Lavaca rivers.	San Patricio and Refugio	Half of settlers were to come from Ireland, the other half from Mexico
John McMullen & James McGloin		San Patricio	Of Irish descent, these men recruited primarily European settlers
Sterling C. Robertson	An area along the Brazos River about An area along the Brazos River about 100 miles wide and 200 miles long, centered on Waco, comprising all of thirty present-day counties in Central Texas	Sarahville	All various times also called Robertson's All various times also called Robertson's Colony, the Texas Association, Leftwich's Grant, the Nashville colony, o the upper colony.
Lorenzo de Zavala	Southeastern Texas in the Galveston Bay Area		Transferred ownership to the Galveston Bay and Texas Land Company

Henri Castro	Southwestern Texas on the Medina River	Castroville	
--------------	--	-------------	--

The immigration laws originated with Spain, were changed by Iturbide’s Empire of Mexico, and finally by the Republic of Mexico. In the laws of the Republic of Mexico there was a federal set of laws under which the state (Coahuila y Texas) could write further laws, similar to the legal system of the United States. Below is from the “Handbook of Texas History” of the Texas State History Association:

Mexican Colonization Laws

On January 17, 1821, the government of the eastern division of the *Provincias Internas (of Spain)* granted a permit to **Moses Austin** to settle 300 families in Texas. While preparing to inaugurate this settlement, Austin died. His son, **Stephen F. Austin**, appeared in San Antonio in August 1821 and was recognized by *Spanish* Governor **Antonio Martínez** as his father's successor to carry out the enterprise. Among other provisions agreed upon by Austin and Martínez were the terms for distribution of land to colonists. Austin embodied the final form of these terms in a letter to Martínez dated October 12, 1821. He proposed to grant to each head of a family 640 acres in his own right, 320 acres in virtue of his wife, 160 acres for each child, and 80 acres for each slave. Austin's compensation for service in obtaining land, duly surveyed and with title delivered at his expense, was to be at the rate of **12 ½ cents an acre**. A colonist could reduce the normal grant to fit his resources or, with Austin's permission, augment it. **Austin's permit was granted by Spanish officials. Mexico became independent in 1821, however, and the provisional government failed to recognize Austin's grant but chose rather to settle terms of colonization and immigration by a general law.**

The Imperial Colonization Law. All legislative bodies of the provisional and regular governments appointed committees to frame a colonization law, but the first such law was that passed by the *Junta Instituyente*, Emperor **Agustín de Iturbide's** rump congress, on January 3, 1823. This law **invited Catholic immigrants** to settle in Mexico; provided for the employment of agents, called **empresarios**, to introduce families in units of 200; defined the land measurement in terms of labores (177 acres each), leagues or sitios (4,428 acres), and haciendas (five leagues each); and defined the privileges and certain limitations of immigrants and empresarios. Families who farmed were promised at least a labor of land, those who raised cattle, a league, those who both farmed and raised cattle, a labor and a

league. Settlers were free of tithes and other taxes for six years and subject only to half payments for another six years; families might import "merchandise" free of duty and tools and materials for their own use to the value of \$2,000; and settlers became automatically naturalized citizens upon residence of three years, if married and self-supporting. An **empresario** might receive premium lands to the amount of three haciendas and two labors (roughly 66,774 acres) for settling 200 families. Total premiums and permanent holdings of empresarios were limited. Article 30 of the law, by inference, permitted immigrants to bring slaves into the empire but declared children of slaves born in Mexican territory free at the age of fourteen and prohibited domestic slave trading, a limitation that was sometimes evaded. The law provided for settlement by the local governments of immigrants not introduced by empresarios. The law was annulled by the abdication of the emperor in March 1823, but the provisional government that succeeded Iturbide applied its terms by special decree to Austin's first colony in April 1823.

The National Colonization Law. After the fall of Iturbide, Mexico adopted a federal system similar to that of the United States, and the federal Congress passed the national colonization law on August 18, 1824. This law and the state law of **Coahuila and Texas** of March 25, 1825, became the basis of all colonization contracts affecting Texas except Austin's first contract. In effect, the national law surrendered to the states authority to set up regulations to dispose of unappropriated lands within their limits for colonization, subject to prescribed limitations. All state laws had to conform to this act and to the federal constitution; no lands could be granted within twenty leagues of an international boundary or within ten leagues of the coast without the approval of the federal executive authority; Congress agreed to make no major change in the policy of immigration before 1840 but reserved the right to stop immigration from particular nations in the interest of national security. Titles were limited to residents and were not to exceed eleven leagues to an individual.

The State Colonization Law. The state law specifically accepted the limitations imposed by the federal act; gave heads of families who immigrated a league of land with the provision that they should pay the state a nominal fee in installments at the end of the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth years after settlement; and authorized the executive to enter into contracts with empresarios for the introduction of specified numbers of families, for which service they should receive five leagues of land per hundred families after their settlement. For ten

years following settlement the colonists were to be tax-free, except for contributions to repel invasion. Colonists acquired citizenship by settlement. Land commissioners who issued titles and surveyors were to be paid by the colonists. Thirty or more empresario contracts were made, contemplating introduction of some 9,000 families. Some of the contracts were concluded under this law by surrender, annulment, or consolidation of previous contracts. All grants were defined by more or less definite geographical boundaries, all empresarios had six years in which to carry out contracts, and in effect this provision deprived the state of control of vast areas during the pendency of the contracts.

On April 6, 1830, the federal government made use of a reservation of the law of August 18, 1824, and forbade settlement of emigrants from the United States in Texas and suspended contracts in conflict with this prohibition (see LAW OF APRIL 6, 1830). By interpretation, Austin obtained exemption from suspension for his own contracts and that of Green DeWitt. Congress repealed the anti-immigration articles of the law in May 1834; all contracts were automatically restored and extended by the state congress or legislature for four years to compensate for the previous suspension. All Mexican contracts ended with the Texas Declaration of Independence.

BIBLIOGRAPHY:

Eugene C. Barker, *The Life of Stephen F. Austin* (Nashville: Cokesbury Press, 1925; rpt., Austin: Texas State Historical Association, 1949; New York: AMS Press, 1970). Eugene C. Barker, *Mexico and Texas, 1821-1835* (Dallas: Turner, 1928). Hans Peter Nielsen Gammel, comp., *Laws of Texas, 1822-1897* (10 vols., Austin: Gammel, 1898). Mary Virginia Henderson, "Minor Empresario Contracts for the Colonization of Texas, 1825-1834," *Southwestern Historical Quarterly* 31, 32 (April, July 1928). David J. Weber, *The Mexican Frontier, 1821-1846* (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1982).

APPENDIX H -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 (*of 1824*), 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 everready 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 rights 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 posterity, 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 justification 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 colonize its wilderness under the pledged faith of a written constitution (*Mexican Constitution of 1824*), 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 1824) of his country, now offers us the cruel alternative, either to abandon our homes, acquired 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 distant 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 government, and have, in accordance with the provisions of the national constitution, presented to the general Congress a republican constitution, which was, without just cause, contemptuously rejected.

It incarcerated in a dungeon, for a long time, one of our citizens, for no other cause but a zealous endeavor to procure the acceptance of our constitution (of 1824), and the establishment of a state government. (*Stephen F. Austin*)

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 citizens, 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 interest of its human functionaries, rather than the glory of the true and living God. (The Constitution of 1824 required emigrants to become Roman Catholic, which it did not enforce until Santa Anna became dictatorial).

It has demanded us to deliver up our arms, which are essential to our defence, 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. (*Questionable*)

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 defence of the national constitution (*of 1824*). 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 therfor 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 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.

[Signed, in the order shown on the handwritten document]

John S. D. Byrom, Francis Ruis,, Antonio Navarro, Jesse B. Badgett, Wm D. Lacy, William Menifee, Jn. Fisher, Matthew Caldwell, William Motley, Lorenzo de Zavala, Stephen H.

Everett, George W. Smyth, Elijah Stapp, Claiborne West, Wm. B. Scates, M. B. Menard, A. B. Hardin, J. W. Bunton, Thos. J. Gazley, R. M. Coleman, Sterling C. Robertson,

Richard Ellis, President of the Convention and Delegate from Red River

James Collinsworth, Edwin Waller, Asa Brigham, Charles B. Stewart, Thomas Barnett, Geo. C. Childress, Bailey Hardeman, Rob. Potter, Thomas Jefferson Rusk, Chas. S. Taylor, John S. Roberts, Robert Hamilton, Collin McKinney, Albert H. Latimer, James Power, Sam Houston, David Thomas, Edwd. Conrad, Martin Parmer, Edwin O. Legrand, Stephen W. Blount, Jms. Gaines, Wm. Clark, Jr., Sydney O. Pennington, Wm. Carrol Crawford, Jno. Turner, ,Benj. Briggs Goodrich, G. W. Barnett, James G. Swisher, Jesse Grimes, S. Rhoads Fisher, John W. Moore, John W. Bower, Saml. A. Maverick (from Bejar), Sam P. Carson, A. Briscoe, J. B. Woods

H. S. Kimble, Secretary

APPENDIX I - HONOR ROLL OF MASONS CREATING THE REPUBLIC OF TEXAS

From James David Carter, "MASONRY IN TEXAS---Background, History, and Influence to 1846", Committee on Masonic Education and Service for the Grand Lodge of Texas, A.F.&A.M., Waco Texas, 2nd Edition, 1958

Masons in Battle in Texas War of Independence

BATTLE	DATE	ESTIMATED FORCE	MASONS	DETAILS
Medina	8/27/1813	Approx. 1200	?	Conclusion of Guitierrez-Magee expedition, where Anglo filibusters, Mexicans and Indians revolted against the Spanish Royalists who governed Texas. The Royalists won, executing 327 prisoners.
Anahuac	6/10/1832	130	11	Conflict between Anglo settlers and centrist Mex. Govt over escaped slaves and duties on merchandise entering Galveston Bay.
Velasco	6/26/1832	112	31	Part of Anahuac conflict.
Nacogdoches	8/2/1832	200	22	Conflict over the implementation of law of April 6. 1830 where settlers were required to surrender their arms. Texans were successful. Often considered the start of the Revolution.
Gonzales	10/2/1835	160	26	Famous "Come and Take It" battle against Mexicans under General Cos. Texans won
Goliad I	10/9/1835	47	9	Texans took mission, fort and area
Concepcion	10/28/1835	92	12	Successful battle to set camp near San Antonio by the Texans, including Masons Jim Bowie, Juan Seguin & James Fannin
Lipantitlan	11/5/1835	60	4	Successful by Texans, to cut Mexican communications between San Antonio & Rio Grande
Grass Fight	11/26/1835	100	11	Near San Antonio, successful by Texans, included Jim Bowie
Bexar	12/5/1835	300	64	The capture of San Antonio, including Masons Austin, Bowie, Milam (killed there), and Seguin. Mexican army retreated beyond the Rio Grande
Alamo	2/23/1836	189	6	All defenders executed, including Masons Travis, Crockett, & Bowie
Coletto Creek (Goliad II)	3/19/1836	400	10	Fannin lost to Gen. Urrea, Texan prisoners taken from this and other battles in the area.
Execution of Prisoners at Goliad	3/27/1836	342 executed, 28 escaped, 20 spared for service to enemy	?	Santa Anna ordered, insisted. Gen. Urrea would not, left to Mason Col. de la Portilla, who could not refuse order.
San Jacinto	4/21/1836	800	151	Santa Anna surrendered for Mexico

Masons Among Austin's First 300 Settlers

Alley, William	Ingram, Seth	Randon, John
Angier, William T	Jones, Henry	Richardson, Stephen
Austin, Stephen F.	Jones, Randall	Roberts, Noel G.
Battle, Mills M.	Kerr, James	Ross, James
Brown, George	Knight, James	Scott, James
Bell, Josiah H.	League, Hosea H.	Smith, John
Clark, John C.	McCroskey, John	Tone, Thomas J
Duke, Thomas M.	Mitchel, Asa	Walker, James
Earle, Thomas Sr.	Mitchel, Eli	Wells, Francis F.
Hall, George B.	Moore, John H.	White, Joseph
Hall, John W.	Morton, William	Williams, Samuel M.
Harris, William	Phelps, James A. E.	
Ingram, Ira	Rabb, Thomas J.	
Ingram, Seth	Randon, David	

Masons at the Battle of Velasco

Austin, W. T.	Caldwell, James P.	Parrott, T. F. I.
Bennet, Valentine	Hodge, John	Patton, William H.
Brigham, Asa	Kallers, John	Phillips, Sidney
Burleson, Johnathan	May, Samuel	Phillips, Z. R.
Byrom, John S. D.	Mitchell, Asa	Robison, Joel W.
Calder, Robert J.	Morgan, James	Smith, William P.
Thompson, James	Tone, Thomas J.	

Masons Fighting the Anti-Mexican Uprising in Nacogdoches

Anderson, R. W.	Edwards, Hayden	Steadham, Samual
Augustine, Henry W.	Horton, Alexander	Sterne, Adolphus
Bowie, James	Hotchkiss, Augustus	Taylor, Charles S.
Brown, Hiram	Huston, Almanzon	Thompson, J. H.
Burton, Isaac W.	Jones, George W.	Thorn, Frost
Carter, James	Lacy, William Y.	
Clark, William Jr.	McFarland, Thomas S.	
Durst, John	McFarland, William	

Masons at the Battle of Gonzales (Come & Take It)

Turner, Winslow	Burleson, Edward	Kerr, James
Arrington, Wm. W.	Dennis, Thomas M.	Pease, E. M.
Bennett, Valentine	Fannin, James W.	Robison, Joel W.
Dickenson, Almeron	Gazley, Thomas J.	Russell, Wm. J.
Davis, G. W.	Goheen, R. M.	Smith, Wm P.
Mason, Charles	Hodge, Archibald	Smithwick, Noah
Alley, Wm. A	Jack, Patrick C.	Williamson, R. M.
Archer, Branch T.	Jones, Augustus	

Masons at the Battle of Concepcion (1st Battle for Bexar)

Bennett, Valentine	Bowie, James	Calder, Robert J.
Davis, George W.	Russell, Wm J.	Robison, Joel W.
Russell, Wm. J.	Seguin, Juan N.	Taylor, Creed
Tom, John Files		

Masons at the “Grass Fight (2nd Battle for Bexar)

Bowie, James	Richardson, Stephen	White, Francis M.
Burleson, Edward	Robison, Joel W.	
Burleson, James	Taylor, Wm. S.	
Deen, Caloway	Tom, John Files	
Hill, Wm. G.	Wade, Nathan	

The writer is having problems with Microsoft Word, and the list of names of Masons who participated in the siege of San Antonio (final battle) and at San Jacinto will, for a while, be posted as a separate file.

Masons Executed at Goliad: Known were James W. Fannin and Abishai Dickson

Masons Escaping Execution at Goliad: *J. H. Callahan, A. C. Horton, J. C. F. Kenneymore, Wm. H. Magee, A. H. Osburn, Richard Rutledge, John S. Thorn and B. H. Holland.*

NOTE: *The execution, ordered by Santa Anna, was conducted by Col. Jose Nicolas de la Portilla, a Mason. His commander, Gen. Urrea, refused to execute the men.*

Known Masons Killed at the Alamo: *John C. Clarke, Almaron Dickenson, William B. Travis, James Bonham, James Bowie, and David Crockett.*

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Information and Text for this document were taken from the following sources:

- Barker, E.C. and J.W. Pohl, Texas Handbook or The Handbook of Texas, Texas State Historical Society, Aug. 2010
- Brands, H.W., Lone Star Nation, Anchor Books, 2004
- Carter, James David Masonry in Texas (thru 1846), Committee on Masonic Education and Service for the Grand Lodge of Texas AF&AM, Waco, TX, 2nd Ed., 1955
- Charles River Editors, Stephen F. Austin, the Life and Legacy of the Father of Texas, Mar. 2020
- Encyclopedia Britannica on Line
- Fehrenbach, T.R., Loan Star: A History of Texas and Texans, American Legacy Press, NY, 1983 Ed.
- Fowler, Will, Santa Anna of Mexico, University of Nebraska Press, 2007
- Haley, James L., Sam Houston, University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, 2002
- Wikipedia (some narrative, most illustrations)