

PASSWORD



THE EL PASO COUNTY HISTORICAL SOCIETY

VOL. IX - No. 3

FALL, 1964

P A S S W O R D

Published quarterly by THE EL PASO COUNTY HISTORICAL SOCIETY

EUGENE O. PORTER, *Editor*

Vol. IX, No. 3

EL PASO, TEXAS

FALL, 1964

Contents

<i>The Founding of San Elizario</i> By EUGENE O. PORTER	87
<i>The Mexican Village — Then and Now</i> By LEONARD CARDENAS, JR.	99
<i>El Paso's Water Shortage Problem</i> By ALVIN WALLACE PAST	105
<i>James Eli Terry, Pioneer El Pasoan</i> By NANCY JANE HOWELL	113
<i>Book Reviews</i>	116
RICHARDSON, <i>The Frontier of Northwest Texas, 1846 to 1876: Advance and Defense by the Pioneer Settlers of the Cross Timbers and Prairies</i> — F. A. EHMANN	
WOODS, <i>Ghost Towns and How to Get to Them</i> HERTZOG, <i>The Gringo & The Greaser</i> — EUGENE O. PORTER	
<i>Historical Notes</i>	119
<i>Contributors to this Issue</i>	120

Copyright 1964 by The El Paso County Historical Society, El Paso, Texas

The El Paso County Historical Society disclaims responsibility
for the statements and opinions of the contributors.

Second-class postage paid at El Paso, Texas

Published quarterly by THE EL PASO COUNTY HISTORICAL SOCIETY

EUGENE O. PORTER, *Editor*

JACK C. VOWELL, JR., *Associate Editor* CARL HERTZOG, *Design Editor*

Correspondence in regard to articles for **PASSWORD** should be directed to
DR. EUGENE O. PORTER, Texas Western College, El Paso, Texas

PASSWORD is distributed free of charge to MEMBERS of the Society
It is *not* available to the general public

MEMBERSHIP is \$5 per year, payable to Mr. Chris P. Fox,
Treasurer, c/o State National Bank, El Paso, Texas. Questions
regarding back numbers of **PASSWORD** should be addressed to
Mrs. Paul Heisig, *Secretary*, 1503 Hawthorne, El Paso, Texas.

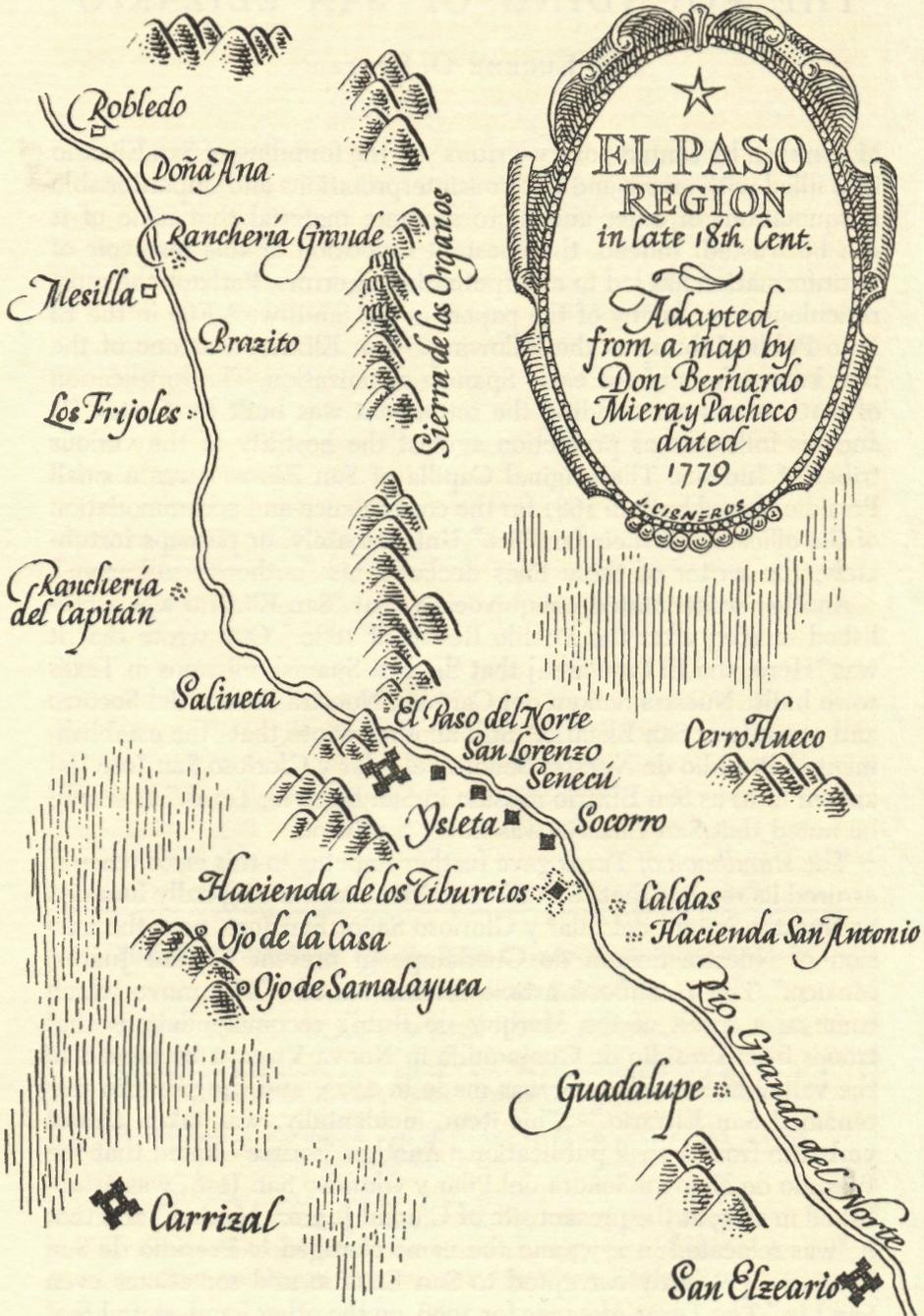
THE FOUNDING OF SAN ELIZARIO

by EUGENE O. PORTER

MATERIAL by contemporary writers¹ on the founding of San Elizario is so filled with errors and with misinterpretations and unpardonable misquotations of older and more accurate material that none of it can be trusted. Indeed, the constant repetition of this reservoir of misinformation has led to a perpetuation of errors. Perhaps the most ridiculous error in any of the papers in the Southwest File in the El Paso Public Library is the following: "San Elizario was one of the best known forts of the early Spanish colonization. The fortification of earth works surrounding the settlement was built by Cortez [!] and his followers as protection against the hostility of the various tribes of Indians. The original Capilla of San Elizario was a small Presidio chapel built in 1681 for the convenience and accommodation of the officers and their families." Unfortunately, or perhaps fortunately, the writer of these lines declared his "authority unknown."

Another writer stated unequivocally that "San Elizario was established in 1683 after the Pueblo Revolt of 1680." One wrote that it was "Here [the El Paso area] that the first Spanish missions in Texas were built: Nuestra Señora del Carmen, Nuestra Señora del Socorro and presidio of San Elizario."² Still another wrote that "the establishment of Presidio de Nuestra Señora del Pilar y Glorioso San José [is] known to us as San Elizario mission in San Elizario, Texas." It should be noted that San Elizario was never a mission.

The *Handbook of Texas* gave further impetus to this error when it assured its readers that "San Elizario Presidio was originally founded as Nuestra Señora del Pilar y Glorioso Señor San José, near the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe in present Ciudad Juárez, Mexico." The *Handbook* article further stated: "The move which came as a result of the Marquis de Rubí's recommendations that troops from Presidio de Guajuquilla in Nueva Vizcaya be moved to the valley of San Elizario, was made in 1773, and the presidio was renamed San Elizario."³ This item, incidentally, was taken almost verbatim from a 1938 publication.⁴ Another "source" stated that the Presidio de Nuestra Señora del Pilar y Glorioso San José "was established in 1583 at the present site of Ciudad Juárez, Mexico," and that it "was relocated in 1773 and the name changed to Presidio de San Elizario, presently corrupted to San Elizario and sometimes even San Liz." *The Texas Almanac* for 1936, on the other hand, stated that



San Elizario was established in 1718, but cited no authority and offered no proof. And from the Southwest File it was learned that "there was a pueblo called San Elizario at its present site in 1751," but again there was no citation of authority.

Misquotations in contemporary writing on San Elizario are very common but three examples should suffice to illustrate the depth of this sea of confusion. One author wrote: "He [Cruzate] finally placed the presidio which was called Nuestra Señora del Pilar y el Glorioso San José about seven leagues from the pueblo Paso del Norte at a place that came to be called San Elizario." For authority the author cited Miss Anne Hughes. But Miss Hughes never said this. What she did say was: "He [Cruzate] finally placed the presidio . . . about seven leagues from the pueblo of El Paso and *midway between that place and the Real de San Lorenzo*."⁵ But where was San Lorenzo? The exact sites of the early settlements in the vicinity of the Pass are not known. The presidio San José could have been founded on the present site of San Elizario but there is no evidence that it was, just as there is no evidence that a complete building was ever constructed at its original site. Furthermore, nowhere in her excellent and authoritative book did Miss Hughes mention the name San Elizario. Be that as it may, this same author again misquoted Miss Hughes in the very next paragraph: "Because Cruzate brought to San Elizario only twenty of the fifty soldiers he was required to enlist, . . ." Actually, Miss Hughes had written: "As Cruzate brought to *El Paso only twenty soldiers*,"⁶ etc. And, finally, this author stated: "The Presidio at Huajuquilla was moved to San Elizario, and it was at this time that the original church known as Nuestra Señora del Pilar y Glorioso San José was built." As a matter of fact there never was a church of that name. It was the name of a presidio established in 1683 somewhere in the vicinity of the Pass and moved to the mission of Guadalupe (Paso del Norte) in 1684 where it remained until 1774 when it was moved to Carrizal, Chihuahua, in accordance with the *Reglamento* of 1772.

Simply stated the solution of this problem of the founding of present-day San Elizario is this: sometime previous to 1760 the Hacienda de los Tiburcios⁷ was staked out near Socorro in the present San Elizario area. Meanwhile the *Reglamento* of 1772 provided that the presidio at Guajuquilla (sometimes written Huajuquilla and also Guajoquilla) be moved to the "Valle de San Elizario." But the valley of San Elizario was not the present Elizario but a stretch or block of the Río Grande river at the present site of El Porvenir. The

presidio was built there in 1774. Its ruins are still visible. They are located on the valley floor on the west bank of the Río Grande about fifty-four miles southeast of present-day Juárez. At the time the presidio was constructed the river at that point formed an ox-bow in a broad valley. Since then the river has changed its channel. At least, the ox-bow has disappeared and the ruins are now some distance from the river. The presidio remained there only six years. Then, in 1780, it was moved to the Hacienda de los Tiburcios and with its transfer went its name, Presidio de San Elizario. For further evidence that such a move was made, a government report on presidios made in 1814 by Simon Elias stated that Huajuquilla was moved from San Elceario to Tilnacio (Tiburcio?) further up the Río del Norte and about 40 l[eagues] from Carrizal."⁸ The date of the removal, however, was not given. Furthermore, Lafora's map of 1771 shows the "llano de San Elizario" just west of the present site of El Porvenir and the Miera y Pacheco map made sometime in the 1770's shows the presidio of San Elizario on the river near the present site of El Porvenir and Los Tiburcios on the river at the present site of San Elizario.

In line with the moving of the presidio is the naming of San Elizario. Most temporary writers insisted that the presidio was named for the saint because, they deduced, the fort was dedicated on September 27, St. Elzear's day,⁹ for which, however, there is absolutely no evidence. Actually, as noted above, it was the valley that was named for the saint and the presidio took its name from the valley. It is not too far-fetched to imagine some weary traveler, very likely a friar or someone familiar with the Saints' Calendar, happening upon the Río Grande at or near the present site of El Porvenir on St. Elzear's day and giving the valley the saint's name. Then when the presidio was transferred from Guajuquilla to the "Valley of San Elizario" it assumed the name of the valley and when it was later moved to the Hacienda de los Tiburcios it retained its name, just as Fort Bliss retained its name although it was moved several times.

Turning now to the *Reglamento* of 1772, mentioned above, that called for the moving of the presidio of Guajuquilla to the Valley of San Elizario, it must be noted that the *Reglamento* also provided for a complete reorganization of the northern defenses of New Spain. Such a reorganization was necessary, due to the changed international situation which had come out of the Seven Years' War and due also to the Indian problem on the northern frontier. The Peace of Paris of 1763 which ended the war (called in Anglo-American the

French and Indian) created new problems for Spain in America. France had been forced to cede the Western Lands — the lands between the Alleghany Mountains and the Mississippi River and between the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico — to Great Britain. At the same time France had been forced to cede to Spain the Louisiana Territory which stretched from the Gulf up the west bank of the Mississippi to Canada. Thus Great Britain had become Spain's neighbor and enemy along the entire length of the river. And Great Britain had in her thirteen North American colonies the material for an army and in Jamaica a naval station and was thus in a position to strike a telling blow at Spain in her Viceroyalty of Nueva España.¹⁰ In addition, Russia was marching southward along the Pacific coast from Alaska, threatening Spain's Californias. And the Pacific Ocean was no longer a Spanish lake but an international body with British, French, Dutch and Russian ships plying the once forbidden waters.

Between these two extremes, on an arc fifteen hundred miles in length, was the heart of Spain's North American empire.¹¹ And along this arc which extended from Altar, Sonora, on the Gulf of Lower California, eastward across northern Mexico to Los Adaes, Texas, near the Louisiana border, Mexico was being harassed by Apaches and Comanches as well as by a multitude of wild mountain tribes. For instance, between the years 1771 and 1778, in Nueva Vizcaya alone, "the Indians murdered 1963 persons, depopulated 116 ranches and settlements, and stole 77,000 head of stock." The Governor of New Mexico reported in 1772 and again in 1777 that the enemies¹² were harrying his province "with incessant robberies, attacks and murders" so that "in all its region there is no safe place in which to keep horses or heads of cattle."¹³ Thus one thing was certain. The missionary influence so potent a factor in the advance of the frontier during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, was utterly powerless for defending the frontier in the eighteenth.

The Indians causing the greatest problems were the Apaches. These belonged to the Athabascan family and were of many tribes and sub-tribes.¹⁴ They had lived mostly by following the buffalo but early in the eighteenth century the Comanches, likewise followers of the buffalo, began to drive the Apaches southward and they in turn crowded the Coahuiltecan and other tribes towards the coast.¹⁵ The Apaches were less intelligent, less bold and less warlike than Indians of the North, such as the Pawnee, Kiowa or the Sioux. They would never stand and fight. Rather, their expeditions were directed to the plundering of small ranches and settlements where they would

drive off herds of cattle and other live stock, murder helpless and remote settlers and carry off children. These they would either adopt into their tribes or reduce to miserable slavery.¹⁶ However, insofar as taking captives and reducing them to slavery was concerned, the Apaches acquired this custom from the Spaniards. During this period of Mexico's history and down until the American occupation in 1846, there was not a settlement in the Río Grande valley in the vicinity of the Pass that did not number among its inhabitants a large number of Indian slaves.¹⁷ James Pattie who spent three years in Mexico previous to 1846 noted that "these poor creatures are bought and sold like horses and mules."¹⁸

One of the difficulties in controlling or punishing the Apaches as well as the other Indians was the impossibility of overtaking them or bringing them to an engagement. Upon the approach of a body of armed men, the Indians would scatter "like a covey of quail to all points of the compass," only to reunite at some point far removed from any danger of attack.¹⁹ Furthermore, the fighting equipment of the Spaniards in the late eighteenth century was, on the whole, inferior to that of the Indians. The soldier wore the long, heavy four or six ply leather coat for protection against the Indians' arrows and lances but the coat was ineffective, as the bows were powerful enough to drive the arrows through the jacket.²⁰ It is true that the Spaniard's gun had greater range than the bow and arrow but the Indians soon learned to stay out of range or to attack from ambush. Also the speed with which the Indians could discharge their arrows far overbalanced the effect of the more powerful but slower muzzle-loaders.²¹

Another difficulty in bringing the Indians to bay was the fact that the soldier on campaign was burdened down with equipment. In addition to his gun he also carried a pistol, a sword, a lance and a shield and he generally used six horses for riding and two or three mules for transporting equipment and carrying food and other supplies. Such a large herd of horses and mules proved disadvantageous. Not only did the large herd make it impossible to surprise the Indians but it also created a problem of finding sufficient water and forage. Too, the Spaniard's effectiveness was further reduced by an inadequate supply which oftentimes left a presidio without arms to replace those worn out or lost. In such instances recourse was had to the Indians' weapon, the bow and arrow,²² but here the soldier was outmatched as though he were a raw recruit.

Returning now to the presidial system, it was noted above that a complete reorganization of the frontier defenses of New Spain

was necessary following the Seven Years' War. Consequently King Charles III not only commissioned the Marqués de Rubí to make a tour of inspection of the northern provinces, sometimes called unofficially the *Provincias Internas*, but also imposed upon him the responsibility for overhauling the entire military organization. Rubí's tour lasted two years, during 1766-1768. He was accompanied by Nicolás de Lafora (also La Fora), Captain of the Royal Engineers, who kept a diary and later made a map, mentioned above, and produced a manuscript of the tour.²³ Rubí's recommendations formed the basis for the *Reglamento* of 1772.²⁴ In fact, the royal *cédula* of September 10, 1772, directed that the line of defense be established as recommended by Rubí²⁵ and that the provisions be carried out under the superintendency of Hugo Oconor (also written O'Connor) as *commandante inspector*.²⁶ In making his recommendations Rubí realized the need for defending New Spain's long frontier with the small military force available without increasing the cost, because Spain was practically bankrupt. This entailed establishing the shortest line possible for the protection of the northern provinces. In view of this, Rubí proposed the following: "Let us imagine a line," he wrote, ". . . drawn from the coast on the Pacific Ocean, beginning between the presidio of El Altar and the ruined mission of San Miguel Sonaytac at about 30 degrees latitude, and extending to the mouth of the Río de Guadalupe on the coast of the Gulf of Mexico, also at 30 degrees north latitude. . . . The difference in longitude between them, according to the most recent maps and observations, is approximately 29 degrees and 15 minutes. Consequently the shortest distance from one point to the other is about 585 leagues."

Continuing, Rubí explained: "To this imaginary line, which to some extent bounds (disregarding New Mexico for the present) all that may be called the true dominions of the King, we shall try to approximate the real line of defense which it is planned to establish. This, because of the indentations and projections of sierras, lakes and other irregularities of the terrain, may be estimated as approximately 660 leagues in length from end to end."²⁷ Along this line Rubí proposed that six presidios be added to the fifteen already in existence. Spaced about forty leagues apart, each was to be garrisoned by forty-three soldiers in addition to a captain, lieutenant, *alférez*, chaplain, and ten native scouts. The annual estimated cost was \$18,988 for each fort.²⁸

Among the six presidios to be added to the line was the one at Guajuquilla. This fort had been erected in 1752 under the name of Nuestra Señora de las Caldas de Guajuquilla. Its personnel had num-

bered sixty-six men including three officers, but in 1766 twenty-six men and a lieutenant were transferred to the newly constructed presidio at San Buenaventura.²⁹ Now, in accordance with Rubí's plan, the remainder of the personnel was to be moved. The clause of the *Reglamento* which provided for the transfer read as follows: "At the approved distance of forty leagues or thereabouts from the place of Carrizal, where the former presidio of the Pass must be established, ought to be situated another of those [presidios] that exists in the interior of Nueva Vizcaya. It will be that of Guajuquilla, which will be transferred with all possible promptness to the Valley of San Elizario where, continuing the line of the frontier to the banks of the Río Grande del Norte, their squads will be able to impede the continuous entrances the enemies make through the gateways and gorges of La Cueva, el Nogal, Peña Blanca, and others, through which they enter as far as the Camino Real that goes from Chihuahua to Durango."²⁹ The transfer was made under the direction of Hugo Oconor, mentioned above, sometime between January 9 and March 27, 1774.³⁰ Incidentally, the description of the place of removal as given above could not possibly be the present San Elizario.

The defense of New Mexico posed another problem for Rubí. Sticking out like a sore thumb this extreme northern province was separated by several hundred miles from the thirty-degree line of defense. Yet the continued Indian raids and the memory of the Pueblo Revolt of 1680 made the New Mexicans extremely aware of the need for greater defense. Paso del Norte, within the jurisdiction of New Mexico, but greatly separated by space and time from the provincial capital of Santa Fé, was of little help in defending the province. Rubí further noted that Paso del Norte and environs had a larger population than any area outside of Durango. In his *dictamen* he wrote that along the right bank of the Río Grande within a distance of twenty miles were five pueblos and the Hacienda de los Tiburcios. The five pueblos included San Lorenzo, Senecú, Ysleta, Socorro, established as a result of the Pueblo Revolt, and Paso del Norte, established previous to the Revolt. Within these five pueblos and the hacienda were an estimated 5,000 persons. Rubí believed that these were of sufficient number to protect themselves. He recommended, therefore that the Presidio de Nuestra Señora del Pilar y Glorioso de San José at Paso del Norte be moved to Carrizal in Chihuahua. He then proposed that a new settlement be established at Robledo on the Río Grande north of the Pass and that the settlers be drawn from the more populous community of Paso del Norte. The men of the community were to be trained as a civil militia.³¹

Actually Robledo was already in existence when Rubí made his inspection. Dr. Pedro Tamaron y Romeral, bishop of Durango, made a visitation of New Mexico in 1760 and in his report placed Robledo on the west side of the Río Grande across from the settlement of Doña Ana.³²

With all of this planning and change, however, frontier conditions remained critical. Consequently King Charles III decided to accept the recommendations made by Don José de Gálvez as a result of his *visita* to the north country during the years 1764-1767. The change was effected on August 22, 1776 when the northern provinces of Nueva Vizcaya, Sonora, Sinaloa, the two Californias, Texas and New Mexico were joined to form a military district to be called³³ "*Comandancia General de la Provincias Internas de la Nueva España.*" Later the provinces of Nueva Santander (modern Tamaulipas) and Nuevo León were added. The *comandante general* of the new district was made completely independent of the viceroy in Mexico City and placed directly under the king. Teodoro de Croix, more often called El Caballero de Croix, was appointed to implement the plan.³⁴ His duties consisted of erecting the *comandancia* into a buffer state against English, Russian and French aggression and observing "an adequate Indian policy towards the hostile tribes who dwelt within and near his dominion."³⁵

But conditions on the frontier continued to deteriorate to a point where collapse appeared imminent. As a result there were almost constant changes in the administration of the north country. In 1785, for instance, the *comandancia* was divided into three military commands. Two years later the original plan of one district was readopted only to have it divided in 1792 into two provinces, eastern and western.³⁶ With the changes of administration also went the relocation of some of the presidios provided for in the *Reglamento* of 1772. And one of these was the Presidio of San Elizario which was moved up the Río Grande to the Hacienda de los Tiburcios.

Just when the Hacienda de los Tiburcios was established is not known. It is known, as noted above, that it was in existence before 1760, because it was mentioned in the visitation report of Bishop Tamaron of that year. The bishop listed the number of persons, families, etc., in each of the pueblos in the Paso del Norte district. Of Socorro he wrote: "This pueblo of Our Lady of Socorro has a Franciscan missionary, with 46 families of Suma Indians and 182 persons. It is one league east of Isleta and six from El Paso, downstream. There are 82 families of citizens, including those of Tiburcio, with 424 persons."³⁷ Captain Lafora, mentioned above, also took

notice of Tiburcios when he wrote in 1771: "Following the river to the east [from the Pass] along its right bank one comes to the pueblos of San Lorenzo del Real, San Antonio de Senecú, San Antonio de la Isleta, La Purísima Concepción del Socorro, and the hacienda Los Tiburcio."³⁸ Tiburcios was also placed on the map drawn sometime in the 1770's by Don Bernardo de Miera y Pacheco.³⁹ Moreover, a letter dated 1778 and now in the Juárez archives⁴⁰ stated that the *alcalde mayor* of Paso del Norte had recruited thirty-three men for military service. The letter gave the names of the men and their places of residence. One man, the letter stated, was "*natural del pueblo de Nuestra Señora de la Divina Concepción de Socorro y Vezino de la población de los Tiburcios.*"

No reason was given in the documents for moving the Presidio of San Elizario to Tiburcios. Perhaps the people in the Paso del Norte district demanded protection. It will be remembered that the only fort in the district, the Presidio de Nuestra Señora del Pilar y Glorioso San José, was moved from Paso del Norte to Carrizal, forty leagues to the south, in accordance with the *Reglamento* of 1772. Also the caravan trade between Chihuahua City and Santa Fé, New Mexico, passed through or near Tiburcios and needed military protection. Be that as it may, the Presidio of San Elizario was moved to the Hacienda de los Tiburcios in 1780. The following document from the Juárez archives, published and cited here for the first time, tells of the preparation for that move:

With this date, corresponding orders will be issued so that the Lieutenant Colonel Don Francisco Martines and Captain of San Eleceario Don Antonio de Acre, will go to the ranch of the Tiburcios, for reconnaissance and to mark the land where it is convenient for the manual fabrication to locate the Company of said Eleceario.

The land being marked, and having obtained previous documents from the owner of the land that should remain in your possession, decide to mark off the presidio at two hundred varas by [illegible] in the same dimensions of the one at the Carrizal, this one being the model that should be followed in all construction.

Immediately, you will proceed to make all the necessary adobes, before the rains come, cut the lumber, and continue the wall which should be one adobe and a half.

For these expenses, demand with love and doctrine, the reales, work promises, and other things that have been offered by the residents or Indians, having them see in general concurrence the big advantages that will result from these measures. But if against what you expect from their fidelity, there are some wayward persons that directly or indirectly produce effects that will slow the progress of the construction, proceed, the

truth being known, to arrest them, forming later the necessary summary, and send it to me to direct it to the Señor Commander General for his superior resolution.

All the above I have communicated to you by virtue of a verbal order of the said chief for your punctual execution, advising you that morally you should send news of the state of construction, and labor offered, contributed reales, and other [information], best for the subsequent determinations.

God protect your many years
Chihuahua 14 of February of 1780.

LT. GOV. DON FRANCISCO XAVIER URANGA.

R E F E R E N C E S

1. There is a large file on San Elizario in the Southwest Reference Room of the El Paso Public Library. Some of the papers have by-lines while others have not. In order not to embarrass, no names will be given to any material taken from the file.
2. Bessie Lee Fitzhugh, *Bells Over Texas* (El Paso, 1955), 9.
3. Walter Prescott Webb, ed., *Handbook of Texas* (Austin, 1953), II, 550, art., "San Elizario Presidio."
4. *Monuments Commemorating the Centenary of Texas Independence* (Austin, 1938), no pagination.
5. Hughes, *The Beginning of Spanish Settlement in the El Paso District*, 327. *Italics added.*
6. *Ibid.*, 327. *Italics added.*
7. Bancroft, *History of the North Mexican States and Texas*, I, 646.
8. *Ibid.*, I, 646 fn 24.
9. St. Elzear was born in 1285 in Provence and died in 1323. He was "rendered by his piety faithful, prudent and dexterous in the management of temporal affairs, both domestic and public, valiant in war, active in peace, faithful in every trust."—Herbert Thurston and Donald Attwater, eds., *Butler's Lives of the Saints* (New York, 1956, 4 vols.), III, 661-62.—John Coulson, ed., *The Saints: A Concise Biographical Dictionary* (New York, 1958), 157.
10. Bancroft, *History of Mexico*, III, 405.
11. Alfred Barnaby Thomas, tr. & an., *Forgotten Frontiers: A Study of the Spanish Indian Policy of Don Juan Bautista de Anza, Governor of New Mexico 1777-1787* (Norman, Okla., 1932), viii.
12. In all the Spanish documents well down into the nineteenth century the Indians are always referred to as "enemies." Also the documents show that local officials were always levying a "war tax" to fight the enemy.
13. Thomas, *Forgotten Frontier*, ix.
14. Ruben Gold Thwaites, ed., "Pattie's Personal Narrative, 1824-1830," *Early Western Travels 1748-1846* (Cleveland, Ohio, 1905), xviii, 109, fn 60.
15. Herbert Eugene Bolton, *Texas in the Middle Eighteenth Century: Studies in Spanish Colonial History and Administration* (Berkeley, Cal., 1915), 2.
16. Twitchell, *Leading Facts of New Mexican History*, II, 35.
17. *Ibid.*, II, 36.
18. Thwaites, ed., "Pattie's Personal Narrative," *loc. cit.*, xviii, 110.
19. Twitchell, *Leading Facts of New Mexican History*, II, 36.

20. Alfred Barnaby Thomas, *Theodoro de Croix and the Northern Frontier of New Spain, 1776-1783* (Norman, Okla., 1941), 56-7.
21. Donald E. Worchester, tr. & ed., *Bernardo de Gálvez, Instructions for Governing the Interior Provinces of New Spain, 1786* (Berkeley, Cal., 1951), 48.
22. Thomas, *Forgotten Frontier*, 358.
23. The manuscript is known as *Relación del Viaje que Hizo a los Presidios Internos*.
24. The complete title is: *Reglamento é instrucción para los presidios que se han de fomar en la linea de frontera el Rey N. S. en Cédula de la de Septiembre de 1772*.
25. Lawrence Kinnaird, *The Frontier of New Spain: Nicolás de Lafora's Description, 1766-1768* (Berkeley, The Quivira Society), ix.
26. Bancroft, *History of the North Mexican States and Texas*, I, 646. O'Connor was later governor of Louisiana and from 1785-1786, Viceroy of New Spain.
27. Quoted from Rubí's *dictamen* by Kinnaird, *Frontiers of New Spain*, 38. Kinnaird believes that 660 leagues is closer to the actual distance.
28. Bancroft, *History of the North Mexican States and Texas*, I, 646.
29. Quoted from the *Reglamento* as translated by Rex E. Gerald, Director of the Centennial Museum at Texas Western College and a recognized archeologist. Copies in the original Spanish are in the Ayer Collection, Newberry Library, Chicago, and the Bancroft Library, Berkeley, California.
30. Francisco R. Almada, an., *Informe de Hugo de O'Connor Sobre El Estado de las Provincias Internas del Norte, 1771-1776* (Mexico City, 1952), 63.
31. Kinnaird, *Frontier of New Spain*, 16.
32. Eleanor B. Adams, ed., *Bishop Tamaron's Visitation of New Mexico, 1760* (U. of New Mexico, 1954), 41.
33. Bancroft, *History of the North Mexican States and Texas*, I, 636-37.
34. Thomas, *Forgotten Frontier*, ix. Actually there were two *commandancias* in America. The other was that of Mainas in Peru. It was established in 1802 to stop the westward expansion of Brazil.
35. Herbert Ingram Priestly, *The Mexican Nation: A History* (New York, 1926), 178.
36. Bancroft, *History of the North Mexican States and Texas*, I, 640-41.
37. Adams, ed., *Bishop Tamaron's Visitation of New Mexico, 1760*, 39.
38. Kinnaird, *Frontiers of New Spain*, 83.
39. Eleanor B. Adams and Fray Angelico Chaves, tr. & an., *The Missions of New Mexico, 1776. A Description by Fray Francisco Dominguez* (Albuquerque, New Mexico, 1956), 238.
40. Texas Western College placed on microfilm all government documents in the Juárez archives for the years 1726 to 1896, inclusive. The originals are in the Municipal Palace (City Hall) in Juárez.

The Mexican Village — Then and Now*

by LEONARD CARDENAS, JR.

THE ELEMENT OF CHANGE implied in the title must be viewed within a framework reflecting the tremendous extension of the Spanish conquest of the New World in a relatively short period of time, the necessity of extensive colonial legislation through which the Spanish crown maintained control, the motivation to extend Christianity into uncharted areas, and the continued search for wealth and economic security. This is an attempt to trace historical factors which have influenced the political and social development of border communities, their principal problems and prospects for the future, using Ciudad Juárez and El Paso as specific points of reference.

One of the principal legacies of the Spanish Conquest for the New World was the Spanish form of government. Basic in the hierarchy of authority was the *municipio* or municipality. The municipality today in Latin America follows essentially the same forms that it knew in the colonial era. Briefly, the municipality is a form of government similar to county government in the United States. It includes rural as well as urban communities. The *cabecera* is equivalent to the county-seat. In the municipality of Juárez, the *cabecera* is Ciudad Juárez. The *presidente municipal* (also known as *alcalde*) and the *regidores* form the *ayuntamiento*, all of which correspond respectively to the county judge, the commissioners, and the commissioners' court in the U. S. system of county government. The similarity between the Mexican municipality and the county in the United States might well end with their structure for they differ in tradition and function.

The early Spanish explorers of Mexico came upon many and varied Indian groups which they proceeded to conquer and christianize. In keeping with Spanish traditions, there was an effort to integrate indigenous forms of law and order into the Spanish model. In time, Indian governmental practices began to influence the function if not the structure of formerly Iberian institutions. However, this was not true for the northern provinces. Since the Indian tribes that inhabited northern Mexico were nomadic, their governmental institutions were not a major influence on colonial government. The Spanish presidios and the missions established in the sparsely populated northern

* EDITOR'S NOTE: This essay is based on a talk by the author delivered as part of a series sponsored by the Young Women's Christian Association of El Paso and the El Paso County Historical Society on "The Border — It's Past, Present, and Future."

provinces can be considered the precursors of local government in some areas. With population growth came the more formal governmental institutions to meet the needs of a developing region.

The tradition of the municipality in Spain has been treated more fully elsewhere.¹ It is sufficient to say that it takes root in the *civitas*, the unit of local administration of the Roman Empire, that it persisted in Spain through the conquests of the Visigoths and the Moslems, that the cities and towns were instrumental in the reconquest of Spain from the Moors, and that, as a result, the municipalities were granted charters by the crown under which they enjoyed a large measure of autonomy in the management of their internal affairs. However, in transplanting the municipality from Spain to the New World much of this independence was lost.

The first *ayuntamiento* was established on Mexican territory by Hernán Cortés on April 22, 1519, in Veracruz. The first rules binding subsequent Mexican municipalities were proclaimed by him in 1524 and the following year. These provided for the coexistence of Indians and Spanish colonists, the duties of the colonists to the government, and the number of municipal officials that were to hold office as well as the means by which they were to be selected. The year 1681 saw the publication of the *Recopilación de Leyes de los Reynos de las Indias*, an attempt by the Spanish crown to systematize and codify colonial legislation in force throughout its overseas possessions. It contained digests of more than six thousand laws. Among these were the *Ordenanzas sobre descubrimiento nuevo y población* of 1573, which provided for the founding, extension, and political development of local communities in the colonies.

Founders of Spanish-American municipalities were instructed to take into account the climate, the quality of the soil, availability of water, the direction of sun and winds, communication facilities, and the suitability of the location for defense. It was also specified that the main plaza was the first part of the town to be laid out. It was to be one and a half times as long as it was wide, and from two hundred to eight hundred feet in length. The number and arrangement of streets, their width, the size and style of houses, the location of the church, town hall, and stores, were also subject to regulation.

As time passed, the regulations provided by the *Recopilación* were augmented by instructions and ordinances for municipal guidance issued by the viceroys and *audiencias* (administrative review boards). These combined to reduce the political functions of the municipalities. After independence, for lack of a substitute institution, the municipality as known in the colonial era remained the basic unit

of government in Mexico. Already subjected to highly centralized administration, the municipality saw its affairs closely regulated, municipal finance closely supervised by higher authorities, and the intervention of the central government in municipal administration not uncommon.

To indicate the historical significance of what has been said on the political and social development of Mexican communities, brief references will be made to the development of El Paso del Norte, the Pass of the North, which includes Ciudad Juárez in Mexico and the city of El Paso, Texas.

The expedition of Don Juan de Oñate in 1598 was most famous for pacifying the Indians known as the Pueblos, and for the colonization of New Mexico. Perhaps of greater significance, however, was his discovery of a new route which extended the *Camino Real* for an additional seven hundred miles, the link between the mining frontier in what is now the state of Chihuahua and the mission frontier of New Mexico; a life line for many missions, garrisons, ranches and towns of early New Mexico.² In order to found a settlement, Oñate had to fulfill all the requirements of Spanish colonial law, from acquiring authorization to staffing and providing the expedition. Doing this he set out with 130 men, the wives and children of many of them, arms, tools, and provisions to include 83 wagons, carts, and carriages, and approximately seven thousand head of livestock such as horses, mules, oxen, cattle, sheep, goats and pigs.³

Oñate's search for a way to the northern provinces brought him to the valley that came to be known as El Paso del Norte. In 1659 the importance of a permanent mission establishment at the gateway to the northern Spanish provinces was recognized by the priest Fray Garcia de San Francisco y Zúñiga. Upon the completion of the principal mission building dedicated to Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe in 1668, the mission settlement had many thousands of head of livestock, extensive irrigated fields, and the beginnings of orchards and vineyards.⁴ There followed the establishment of other missions nearby and the organization of presidios to protect them from the Indians.⁵ The growing importance of the mission was reflected in its designation as Villa of El Paso del Norte in 1680.⁶ Subsequently it was declared a Pueblo in 1788. In keeping with the *Recopilación*, a community was designated a *villa*, *pueblo*, or *ciudad* at the discretion of the governor of the new territory.

The area known as the Pass of the North grew as it became a major commercial thoroughfare through which merchants from Missouri reached the interior markets of Mexico to trade their dry goods for

bullion and mules. In 1846 it was the invasion route of the American army which added New Mexico to the United States. In the 20th Century, it became the route of a major railroad and a paved highway.⁷

Each succeeding step brought greater importance to the Pass of the North. At this point, however, it is necessary to look at the development of Juárez, now having achieved the highest designation for a Mexican community, that of *ciudad*.

In keeping with tradition and historical influences, the basic form of local government is the municipality. In the early days, while predominantly an agricultural area, the settlement did not require sophisticated governmental organization. However, Ciudad Juárez, and the entire Mexican border with the United States for that matter, has experienced a greater rate of growth than the Mexican national average, especially within the last forty years. Juárez has increased in population from 24,000 in 1921, to 43,000 in 1930, to 55,000 in 1940, to 131,000 in 1950, to 309,000 in 1960. It is estimated that Juárez will have a population approximating one million one hundred thousand by the year 2,000 (only 36 years from now).⁹ The village once engaged primarily in agricultural endeavors and then a gateway for commercial activities now represents a highly urbanized area. To its now urbanized society, indispensable necessities include well paved, clean, and lighted streets, adequate sewers, regular removal of garbage and waste, a supply of pure water, competent police, fire, and health services, sufficient recreational facilities, and a good school system. The experience of the Mexican municipality as it has developed from the Spanish model has proved that, like the counties in Texas, it has been unable to meet satisfactorily the demands of a highly urbanized community. However, much as areas in the United States seek to merge city and county governments as a solution of urban problems, so is a solution being tried for Mexican border communities.

Fully recognizing pressing problems and utilizing commendable foresight, the Mexican federal government has instituted a program for the material improvement of border communities which will further change their character. Under the National Border Program, the Mexican government will seek to improve the general environment of border cities, raise their living standards, and promote a higher cultural development. The effort and the promised success in this direction can be observed in present day Juárez. An important economic objective of the Program is to provide the foreign visitor not only with Mexican goods but also with typical products of arts

and crafts from throughout Latin America. The realization of this goal will surely extend the traditional commercial influence of the Pass of the North beyond the early *Camino Real*, further enhancing its international importance.

In summary, it may be well to repeat that military forts and missions preceded the establishment of the municipality in many parts of northern Mexico. In the case of Juárez, local government was preceded by the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe. Although the tradition of the municipality as a political institution can be traced to the Iberian Peninsula, much of its traditional autonomy was lost in Mexico when it was subjected to detailed regulation of organization, financial responsibility, and functions. The Pass of the North achieved commercial prominence as an essential link of the *Camino Real* which in turn promoted its growth. As in other parts of the country, the basic unit of local government in Mexico, the municipality, has been severely tested to meet the demands of an urbanized society. Lacking the financial, technical and political skills to cope with urban problems, the municipality has come to depend on the national government for help. This is being rendered through the Mexican National Border Program.

The rapid expansion of the Spanish conquest of New Spain brought with it extensive colonial legislation which tended to restrict local expressions of self-government. The motivation to extend Christianity into uncharted areas gave rise to the establishment of the mission of Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe (now Juárez), while the continued search for wealth and economic security made the *Camino Real* a reality and brought the Pass of the North to commercial prominence. Inasmuch as it is the intention of the National Border Program to make goods available from throughout Latin America to buyers of all nations at the Mexico - United States border, the once modest commercial gateway of the Pass of the North may reach greater international heights extending its influence from the tip of southernmost Argentina to the northern reaches of Canada and beyond. Thus, the transformation of the mission of Our Lady of Guadalupe into a metropolitan and highly urbanized area promises to be a continuing one.

As a post-script it may be suggested that the settlement of the Chamizal issue can stand as a monument to international understanding, to the concern of two neighboring nations for the peaceful settlement of conflicts, and to the mutual respect among nations, whose effect in terms of international prominence and economic development for the Pass of the North has yet to be calculated.¹⁰

REFERENCES

1. See Herbert Ingram Priestley, "Spanish Colonial Municipalities," *California Law Review* (1919), 397-416; O. Garfield Jones, "Local Government in the Spanish Colonies as Provided by the Recopilacion de los Reynos de Indias," *The Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, XIX, pp. 65-90; Also, C. H. Haring, *The Spanish Empire in America* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1947), 160, passim; Leonard Cardenas, Jr., "The Municipality in Northern Mexico," *Southwestern Studies*, Vol. I, No. 1, 3-5.
2. Max L. Moorhead, *New Mexico's Royal Road* (Norman: University of Oklahoma Press, 1958), 7.
3. *Ibid.*, 8.
4. "Fray Garcia de San Francisco y Zuniga," *Twelve Travelers Through the Pass of the North* (El Paso: Carl Hertzog, 1947). See also Carlos E. Castañeda, *Our Catholic Heritage in Texas* (Austin: Von Boeckmann-Jones Company, 1939), I, 248-251.
5. Castañeda, *Ibid.*, III, 232-240; IV, 235-236.
6. Moorehead, *New Mexico's Royal Road*, 18.
7. *Ibid.*, 8.
8. Banco de México, Departamento de Estudios Económicos Regionales, Unpublished Studies, quoted in Leonard Cardenas, Jr., "Municipal Administration in Mexican Border States," (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, The University of Texas, 1964), 5.
9. *Ibid.*, 6.
10. See Gladys Gregory, "The Chamizal Settlement," *Southwestern Studies*, I, No. 2, 40.

EL PASO'S WATER SHORTAGE PROBLEM

by ALVIN WALLACE PAST

EL PASO IS A DESERT CITY. Her present location is due to the fact that the first settlers here lived close to the water, as the settlers of all of the older Western cities did. One of the reasons there are so few people in the heart of the West, the desert, is the lack of water. It is a paradox that in spite of the paucity of people in the West, it remains an urban society.¹

The first settlers in El Paso built their homes on the banks of the Río Grande to obtain their water. When the floods drove them off, they dug a system of acequias, or canals, to carry the water nearer their homes. El Paso's size in 1880, some 800 citizens, made necessary some kind of company to handle the water needs. In March of 1881, C. R. Morehead started the El Paso Water Company, but it couldn't live up to its charter and soon folded. A second company, organized by Sylvester Watts in 1882, was plagued by low pressure, leaky pipes, and muddy water, and it too collapsed. A third try, this called the International Water Company, foundered in 1903, and in 1910 the City took over the water system.²

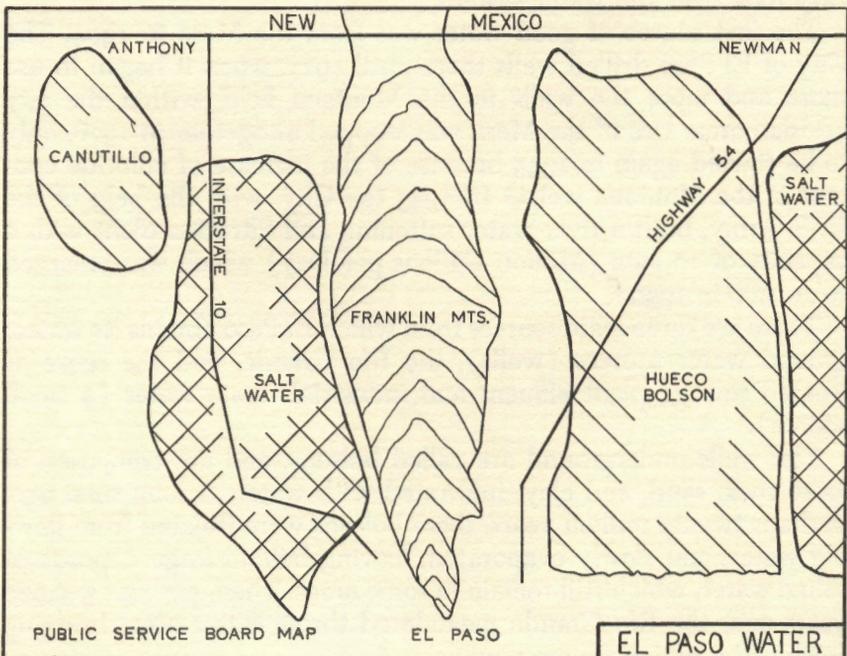
The first source of good water was from the Mesa in 1904. The City of El Paso drilled wells there until 1917, when it began to use more and more the wells in the Montana field, within the city artesian area. Use of the Mesa was stopped altogether in 1926, only to be started again in 1935 because of the increase of chloride content in the Montana wells.³ In 1943 the City, with the help of the U. S. Army, built a river-water softening and filtration plant with a capacity of 10 MGD (Million Gallons per Day) which was enlarged to 20 MGD in 1950.⁴

There are three main sources from which El Paso obtains its water: ground water sources (wells), the Río Grande, and the reuse of treated sewage plant effluent and industrial waste water (a small source).

The wells underground are called bolsons, and are composed of loose rock, sand, and clay, infiltrated with water. A long time ago, perhaps twenty million years, these bolsons were isolated from flowing water, and slowly evaporated, leaving behind large deposits of saline water, which still remain in some areas. Then, perhaps 500,000 years ago, the Río Grande meandered through this area, bringing fresh water which we are now using.⁵

Ground water comes from two main areas: the Hueco Bolson, and the aquifers in the Lower Mesilla Valley (also called the Upper Valley or Canutillo). The Hueco Bolson covers 5,000 square miles on the United States side of the Río Grande and extends ninety miles downstream from El Paso, bounded on the west by the Franklin mountains, on the east by the Hueco, Finlay, Malone, and Quitman mountains, and on the south by the Sierra de Amargosa, the Sierra Del Paso Del Norte, and the Sierra del Presidio in Mexico. (See accompanying map.) The depth of the Bolson is greatest just east of the Franklin range and tapers off to the east and south. To show how deep it is, a test made near Newman reached a depth of 4,920 feet, still within water-bearing beds.⁶ The Bolson recharges at the rate of 15 MGD, but water is being withdrawn far above this rate. During 1962, an average of 62 MGD was withdrawn, and if pumping continues to increase as it has, the Bolson will last for only fifty years.⁷

The other large ground water source is the combination of shallow, intermediate, and deep aquifers making up the Lower Mesilla Valley, or the Upper Valley. The combined rate of recharge of these three depths is probably about 27 MGD. Although there are at least 560,000 acre-feet of fresh water in these areas, less than half is recoverable before contamination by adjacent highly mineralized water.⁸ (An



acre-foot is the volume of water that would cover an acre to a depth of one foot, or about 326,700 gallons.) Results of an investigation show that water from the Lower Mesilla Valley is insufficient to yield a continuous large amount of water. The investigator suggests that 15 MGD be taken from the shallow aquifer to let the City meet any needs in an emergency.⁹

El Paso cannot rely on ground water sources for future use. No major U. S. city exists on well-water alone.¹⁰

The third and oldest source of any size is the Río Grande. The City owns nearly 2,000 acres of water right land on the river¹¹ and has three active contracts with the Bureau of Reclamation and the El Paso Valley Irrigation district for the use of water from the Río Grande. The Bureau of Reclamation and the El Paso Valley Irrigation District store the water in Elephant Butte Reservoir and Caballo Dam.¹²

Recently, new use is being made of the river. "Water from the Río Grande will be treated by the Public Service Board during winter months in an attempt to save the City's underground water supply."¹³ During the summer the South Side River Treatment Plant treats about 20 MGD, but sits idle in the winter. In the winter, the river contains about 900 million gallons of water drained from farms and wells in the area. The new plan is expected to save 5 MGD from underground sources. The cost of such a project would be 7.5 cents per thousand gallons, versus 5.5 cents for ordinary water.¹⁴

There has been continual local concern about the water problem. In 1952 the *El Paso Times* announced a study of the Hueco Bolson under the supervision of the United States Geological Survey. The project was to cost 200,000 dollars. Although the *Times* reported in 1953 that the work was nearly completed, the results of the study were not made public until 1958.¹⁵ Existing wells were analyzed and thirty-three deep ones were drilled. It was found that salt water deposits exist beneath and east of the fresh water deposits of the Bolson and also above the fresh water in the El Paso Valley area. Two cones of depression were also noted, one in the El Paso Valley where the City and Industry have pumped heavily, and the other on the Mesa near the well fields of Fort Bliss and the Mesa well field of the City. Cones of depression are formed when water is pumped out of porous ground and not replaced so that the resulting compression shows as an indentation on the surface. These cones steadily increase pumping lifts, decrease well production and develop zones of intrusion of salt water from adjacent beds.

POPULATION TRENDS

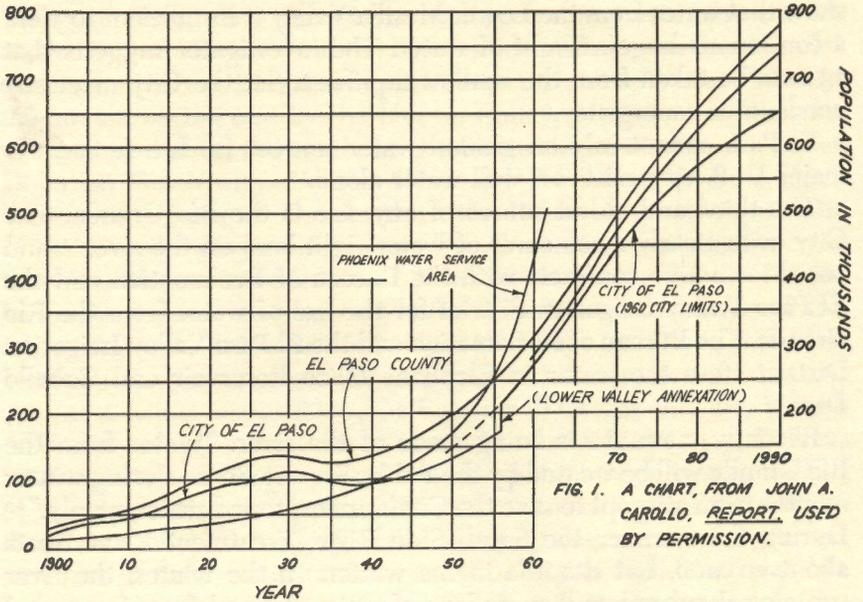
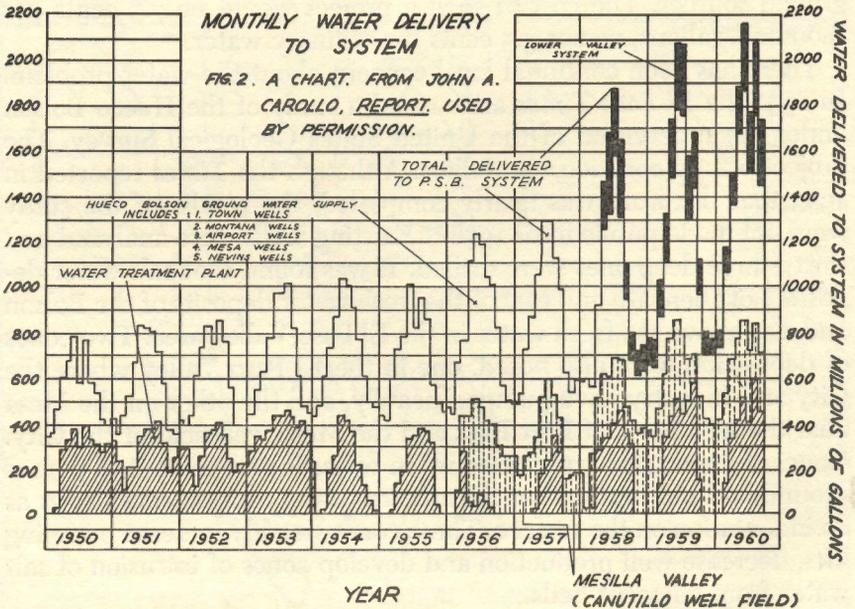


FIG. 1. A CHART, FROM JOHN A. CAROLLO, REPORT, USED BY PERMISSION.



MONTHLY WATER DELIVERY TO SYSTEM

FIG. 2. A CHART. FROM JOHN A. CAROLLO, REPORT, USED BY PERMISSION.

MESILLA VALLEY (CANUTILLO WELL FIELD)

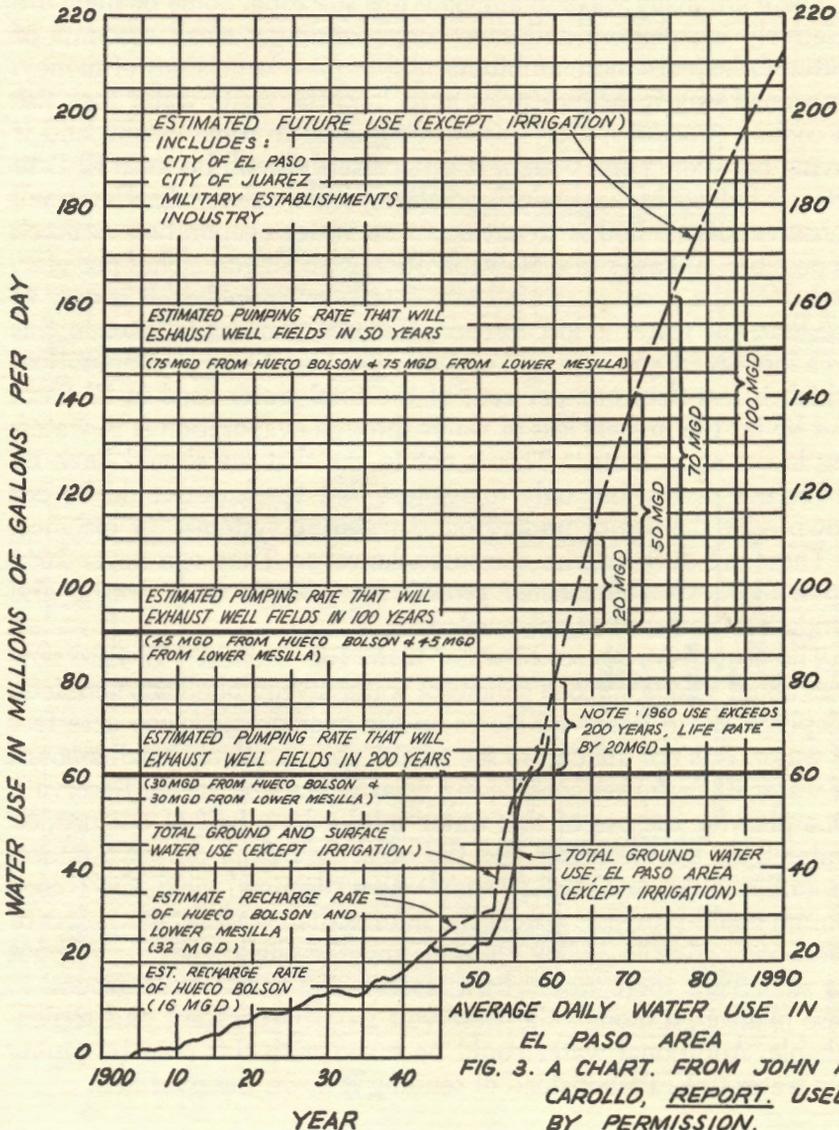
A competent engineering firm has stated that El Paso does not have an "adequate assured supply of fresh water in underground basins for coming years."¹⁶ They say that El Paso must look into and obtain other sources of water which would prove profitable. The lack of water is not the only shortage, either. The present water distribution system can handle a maximum of 115 MGD, but engineers estimate top demands for next summer to reach 120 MGD.¹⁷

There are many ways to alleviate this situation. Some of them are relatively inexpensive and save correspondingly small amounts of water. Others are more ambitious and require large sums of money. One small way is for industries to reclaim the waste water they use in cooling processes, etc. This is being done to some extent, and is saving between 3 and 6 MGD. It is necessarily small because El Paso attracts industries that use comparatively little water.¹⁸ Another small conservation method is to cut down on water evaporation as much as possible. El Paso's rate of evaporation is about 100 inches per year, and since the average rainfall rate is only seven inches, it is easy to see that this water is lost forever. The two man-made lakes in this area lose about 500 acre feet of water per year through evaporation, which is less than one per cent of the total water used in El Paso. But by far the biggest loss of water through evaporation is in watering lawns and plants.¹⁹ This is not to say that we should have no lawns nor plants, but only to suggest that the losses could be cut down — by the use of underground watering systems, for instance.

These are only interim measures, however. They can never keep up with El Paso's expected growth rate. Much more drastic and fundamental measures are needed.

The next major source of water is the Río Grande.²⁰ El Paso now uses about 16,000,000,000 gallons of water a year, or 48,000 acre feet. Elephant Butte Reservoir stores on the average 1,000,000 acre feet of water. It is not difficult to see what a comparatively small amount of water El Paso uses considering what is available in the Reservoir. One plan for the use of this water would draw half of our needed water from the Reservoir and the other half from our own underground sources, or about 45 MGD.²¹ As a sustained yield, the Hueco Bolson could provide 15 MGD, the intermediate and deep aquifers of the Lower Mesilla Valley 13 MGD, and the shallow aquifers about 14 MGD. Thus there would be a reserve supply left underground in case of need, although the Reservoir is fairly constant and replenishable. Additional water could be saved with this plan by piping the water to El Paso instead of sending it down the river bed.

The next major source of water is salt water conversion. As stated earlier, El Paso has a large amount of salt water, perhaps as much as there is fresh. The present cost per thousand gallons of fresh water is five cents for preparation and twenty cents for delivery. Salt water conversion would probably add thirty cents to this, which, while it may seem expensive, cannot be considered too much when the life of a community is at stake.²² To date, the most successful desalting



process is electro dialysis,²³ involving diffusion through semipermeable membranes with the aid of an electric current.

Another large water source is the use of reclaimed sewage effluent. It is to be expected that many people would object to such a plan, but even though the water is perfectly usable, it could be devoted to non-potable usage, such as trading gallon for gallon with irrigation farmers who would normally use the potable water from Elephant Butte and Caballo Dam.²⁴

A more remote possibility is development of the Bolson and Mesilla areas in New Mexico, now doubtful because of legal barriers. It is possible and even probable that due to the structure of the area, the Canutillo wells are draining water from the New Mexico side of the Bolson, anyway.²⁵

Another remote possibility is bringing water from Dell City (poor in quality) or Van Horn (of better quality, but 100 miles away). The chief objection to this plan would be the cost: fifty million dollars just to reach there and another twenty million dollars in El Paso to enlarge the existing water system.²⁶

Two more unlikely plans would be sending pipelines to the Missouri River or the Gulf of Mexico, or a scientific break through such as weather control. Weather control is not impossible, but it is very unpredictable, and cannot be relied upon.

El Paso has enough water for today and enough for tomorrow, but we must start planning for tomorrow now. The Public Service Board is doing this, but it needs the support of the citizens.

Still, the question remains: "Enough water for tomorrow — but how many tomorrows?" In spite of the reassuring possibilities immediately ahead, it is foreseeable that in the distant future El Paso will outgrow its water supply. Perhaps the population will reach an equilibrium with the desert. Or perhaps as the preacher said, "One generation passeth away, and another generation cometh: but the earth abideth forever." Might not the desert?

REFERENCES

1. Walter Prescott Webb, "The American West: Perpetual Mirage," *Harper's Magazine* (May, 1957), 25-26.
2. John Middagh, *Frontier Newspaper: The El Paso Times* (El Paso: Texas Western Press, 1958), 115-119.
3. John A. Carrollo, *Report on the Feasibility of Industrial Use of Municipal Waste Waters*, hereafter *Report* (John A. Carollo Consulting Engineers, Phoenix, Arizona, 1960), 2-3.
4. E. R. Leggat, Bulletin 6204: *Development of Ground Water in the El Paso District, Texas, 1955-60, Progress Report No. 8* (Texas: Texas Water Commission, March, 1962), 11.

5. William Strain, Associate Professor of Geology, Texas Western College, in an interview on February 8, 1964, hereafter *interview*.
6. *El Paso Times*, July 24, 1963.
7. "Citizens Advisory Council Bulletin No. 2" (City of El Paso).
8. *Idem*.
9. John A. Carollo, *Report*, 3.
10. C. C. Cason, in an interview on February 22, 1964, hereafter, *interview*.
11. *The El Paso Herald Post*, January 28, 1964.
12. *The El Paso Times*, March 5, 1964.
13. *The El Paso Herald Post*, November 12, 1963.
14. *Idem*.
15. *The El Paso Times*, August 12, 1953.
16. "Citizens Advisory Council Bulletin, No. 2" (City of El Paso).
17. *El Paso Herald Post*, January 28, 1964.
18. Peter deWetter, of the Chamber of Commerce, in answer to a question on November 11, 1963.
19. C. C. Cason, *interview*.
20. *Idem*.
21. Robert G. Williams, *A Discussion of the Water Supply Outlook for the City of El Paso* (El Paso: John Carollo Engineers, September, 1963).
22. C. C. Cason, *interview*.
23. *The El Paso Times*, March 5, 1964.
24. C. C. Cason, *interview*.
25. William Strain, *interview*.
26. C. C. Cason, *interview*.

JAMES ELI TERRY, PIONEER EL PASOAN

by NANCY JANE HOWELL

ONE OF EL PASO'S PIONEERS who led a very interesting and successful life was James Eli Terry, a member of the Texas Rangers.

Terry was born in Alabama but moved to Texas when he was nineteen years of age. He was soon employed as a driver on the overland mail route of The Butterfield Stage Line. His run was from El Paso to old Fort Concho, which is now San Angelo. The route came through what we know as Hueco Tanks. Indians lived there and he had several battles with them. Terry was an expert marksman with a rifle and pistol. He was also fearless. He soon had the respect of the Indians, who kept a safe distance from him. His name, along with the date, is carved in the stone near the springs at Hueco Tanks.

Mr. Terry made El Paso his headquarters but when war was declared between the States he enlisted for service in the Confederate Army, joining a local company at El Paso. This was unattached at first and they acted as minutemen. When General John R. Baylor, a native Texan and frontiersman, came up the Río Grande Valley with the old Second Texas Regiment and captured Fort Stanton, New Mexico from the federal troops, Mr. Terry joined the brigade as a cavalryman. He was a member of Company "A". Later he joined the regiment commanded by Colonel George Wythe Baylor, a brother of Gen. John R. Baylor. He saw much active service up and down the west bank of the Mississippi River, participating in all the battles fought in that part of the country. He established a splendid record of bravery and reliability as a trooper. He left the army on a crutch because of wounds sustained in the service.

Just after the battle southeast of El Paso not far from Signal Peak, Col. Baylor issued a Citation for Valor and Courage to J. E. Terry of El Paso, Texas. From memory of his daughter Mrs. Susie Pattison, this citation issued to each of his three daughters recites about as follows:

We had a wounded soldier in his leg. This soldier said for those in retreat to go on and leave him because nobody could help him just then. But this brave and strong 6 ft. 2 soldier Mr. J. E. Terry pulled the crippled man up on his back and carried him to safety amid shots and shells from the Union forces near by.

This citation was signed by Col. Baylor but the three originals have been lost in the past 80 years or more, since it happened.

Reproduced memory Citation by Col. Baylor.

Just after the battle Southeast of El Paso not far from Signal Peak, Col. Baylor issued 3 copies of a Citation for valor and courage to J. E. Terry of El Paso, Texas. From memory of his daughter Mrs. Susie Pattison, of El Paso, Texas.

Citation from Memory.

To J. E. Terry:

This Citation issued after a battle to each of his 3 daughters recites about as follows.

We had a wounded soldier in his leg. This ^{soldier} said for those in retreat to go on and leave because nobody could help him just then. him

But this brave and strong 6ft. 2 soldier Mr. J. E. Terry pulled the crippled man up on his back and carried him to safety amid shots and shells from the Union forces near by. This Citation was signed by Col. Baylor but the 3 originals have been lost in the past 80 years or more, since it happened.

Mrs. Pattison has just read this and O.R. 12 it in substance Respectfully Albert Ault

When James Terry (mostly called "Eli") was separated from the army he settled again in Texas and married Miss Elizabeth Jane Nelson. He lived on a farm and had nothing to wear except his uniform for a period of time. When he left the army he was given a trunk in which was a bolt of cloth for a suit of clothes. His wife made him a suit, but he warned her he would not try it on for a fit. However, she made it and on Sunday he put it on to wear to church. When he went out later to feed the hogs, he called many times but they would not come in to be fed until he changed into his old uniform.

When railroad construction was inaugurated in Texas in the early 1870's Mr. Terry became a railroad contractor, first working on the Houston & Texas Central Line and later on the Texas & Pacific Line working westward to El Paso. At this time two lines were under construction to El Paso and the company reaching El Paso first would be given priority. According to family information, Terry worked on the first one to reach El Paso.

Eli Terry was one of El Paso's pioneer contractors. One of his most notable contracting jobs was his building of the old part of St. Clement's Episcopal Church on Montana and Campbell Streets. This beautiful church is still in busy use.

Mr. Terry was a kind and benevolent employer to the Mexican people. These people thought very highly of him and often came to him for help in solving their problems. At Christmas he piled a little two-wheeled cart with food, especially fruit, and gifts and distributed it to the poor people. Little children thought he was really Santa Claus because of his long white beard. He enjoyed this immensely.

Mr. Terry's three daughters, Sudie (Susan), Mary and Comfort were enrolled in the first class opened by the El Paso Public Schools on March 5, 1883. The building was a temporary wooden structure divided into two rooms. Mr. D. A. McKay was the principal and first teacher. Miss Laura English was the second teacher employed to teach the fifty-three students enrolled the first day. A complete list of the students enrolled was recorded in the Jubilee Number of the *El Paso Herald*, May 12, 1923 edition.

Randolph Terry, the only son, was graduated from the first high school, Central, in the class of 1890. Randolph became one of El Paso's pioneer attorneys and was associated for a time with Volney Brown, who resides in El Paso today.

This material was given to me by Eli Terry's great granddaughter, Mrs. Lowell E. (Thelma) Smith.

The editor often rounded out his columns with jokes. The following is one of the better ones:

“Judge. “There is on this docket a case against you for *arseny*, guilty or not guilty?”

Prisoner. ‘Guilty.’

Judge. “The sentence of the court is, that you pay a fine of two hundred dollars, or marry the girl.’”

The two present volumes do not detract in any way from the excellence of the first of the series.

— EUGENE O. PORTER

Texas Western College

THE FRONTIER OF NORTHWEST TEXAS, 1846 TO 1876:
ADVANCE AND DEFENSE OF THE PIONEER SETTLERS
OF THE CROSS TIMBERS AND PRAIRIES

by *Rupert Norval Richardson*

(Glendale, California: Arthur H. Clark Co., 1963. \$12.00.)

Professor Richardson’s study deals with that part of the state known as Northwest Texas about the middle of the nineteenth century. After 1876, with the passing of the Indian peril and the beginning of rapid expansion to the west, Northwest Texas came to mean the area of the South Plains and the Texas Panhandle. But Professor Richardson’s Northwest Texas is the area circumscribed “by drawing a line from the Red River a little to the west of Sherman and Dallas to Waco, thence westward to San Angelo, and northward, near Abilene to Wichita Falls.” From 1846 to 1876 this area was the scene of almost continuous Indian raids, most often by the Comanche, but at times by aggregations of renegades from assorted tribes which had been displaced by white settlers.

The Frontier of Northwest Texas, 1846 to 1876, however, is not just another book on Indian wars (the number of these is already large, as Professor Richardson admits in a recent book review), but is a study of life and settlement during a period of Indian raids. The book examines the effect of the Indian problem on the lives of settlers during these three decades. Consequently it is of greater significance as regional history than would be a mere chronology of raids, catalogue of abuses, and list of casualties, for it reveals how the institutions and conditions of daily living were modified by the Indian menace.

Professor Richardson discusses the settlement of the region, noting the geographical conditions encountered by the settlers and the skills required for survival in this area, for Northwest Texas was the last extent of wooded country, a place where cross timbers and plains met. He comments on the estimates of this territory made by the settlers and reveals a great deal about their hopes and character. He is interested in the occupations of the country, limited mainly to farming or stock raising (and commonly a mixture of both) and accounts for the growth of the ranching industry by men such as Loving, Goodnight, and Slaughter. And, of course, he is interested in the response of people when Indian war is supplemented by Civil war.

But he is also interested in Northwest Texas as a society, and he also examines such matters as diet, medicine, and recreation during this period of Indian uprisings. Furthermore, he notes the social significance of the practice of moving to towns for safety while the men visited, as rarely as they could, their isolated lands during peak Indian troubles. *The Frontier of Northwest Texas, 1846 to 1876* is a history of people more than Indian wars.

In spite of his enthusiasm for Northwest Texas history, Professor Richardson avoids, as one expects of a scholar of his reputation, the great pitfalls of the regional historian, the inability to write objectively and to recognize what is significant. Too many historians writing about the regions of their origin become either apologists or propagandists. Professor Richardson, although he describes his work as a "labor of love," presents a model of objectivity with his work. He is also aware of what is historically important. Regional history is based on the problems and responses of individuals, but the amateur historian, when writing about regional affairs, often ends by merely spinning a succession of anecdotes about pioneers (usually deceased relatives). Professor Richardson, on the other hand, selects for attention only people who had a formative influence on the territory or a rare insight into its history. His work, therefore, is rich in the specific details which can come only from the experiences and comments of individuals without becoming a biographical potpourri. *The Frontier of Northwest Texas, 1846 to 1876* is a major contribution to the history of the West.

— F. A. EHMANN

Texas Western College

HISTORICAL NOTES

Annually the El Paso County Historical Society holds a history-writing contest for seventh graders in the El Paso school system. It is in the seventh grade, incidentally, that the teaching of history begins. The prizes are \$75 for first place, \$50 for second and \$25 for third.

In the third annual contest held this year the winners, the subjects of their papers, and their schools were as follows:

First place: Melvin Kubota, "Fort Bliss From Infantry to Artillery"—Logan;

Second place: Nancy Jane Howell, "James Eli Terry, Pioneer El Pasoan"—Austin;

Third place: Preston R. Hooten, "Richard Fenner Burges"—Coronado.

It is the policy of *PASSWORD* to publish one of the winning articles. In this instance the editorial committee decided to publish the second-place paper because a great amount of material on Fort Bliss has already been published in *PASSWORD* and therefore, it was believed, the first-place paper, although excellent, would be more or less repetitious.

Miss Howell whose paper appears herein lives with her parents, Mr. and Mrs. Paul Howell at 2620 Justus Street, El Paso. She has one sister, Judy, who was graduated from Austin High School this past spring. Nancy is thirteen years of age.



Society President Conrey Bryson presents checks to winners of El Paso County Historical Society annual Junior Historians contest. Winners, left to right, are Nancy Jane Howell, Austin High School, second place; Melvin Kubota, Logan School, first place; and Preston R. Hooten, Coronado High School, third place.

› CONTRIBUTORS to this ISSUE ‹

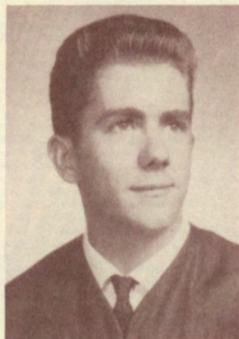


LEONARD CARDENAS, JR., Assistant Professor of Government at Texas Western College, received his B.S. and A.M. degrees at St. Louis University and his Ph.D. from the University of Texas. He was Research Fellow, Organization of American States from August, 1961 through January, 1962, serving in Mexico. During the years 1957-1959 he served as Political Officer, United States Embassy, La Paz, Bolivia.

Dr. Cardenas is the author of *The Municipality in Northern Mexico*, one of the TWC Southwestern Studies. It was published in the Spring of 1963, and reviewed in *PASSWORD*, VII, 4 (Winter, 1963).

JOSE CISNEROS is one of El Paso's best known illustrators. For his design on the front cover of *PASSWORD* he was made a life member of the Society. In this issue the map with the article on San Elizario is an example of his fine lettering technique and his knowledge of the Spanish period in our area.

ALVIN WALLACE "CHIP" PAST, the son of Dr. and Mrs. Ray Past, was born in Oakland, California but has lived in Texas since he was six months old and in El Paso since he was two. He is a senior at Austin High School, El Paso, where he plays first-chair trumpet in both the band and orchestra. Also he was soloist for two years at the Border Music Festival at Texas Western College where his father is Professor of English.



His article, herein published for the first time, won first prize in the regional Junior Academy of Science competition. It was then sent to Washington, D. C., where it was read at the national competition.

F. A. EHMANN is Assistant Professor of English at Texas Western College. He will be remembered for his excellent article: *The Effect of the Railroad on New Mexico*, *PASSWORD*, viii, 2 (Summer, 1963).