THE INVISIBLE MINORITY

Report of
The NEA-Tucson Survey
On the Teaching of Spanish
to the Spanish-Speaking

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"Bestow great attention on Spanish and endeavor to acquire an accurate knowledge of it. Our future connections with Spain and Spanish America will render that language of valuable acquisition. The ancient history of that part of America, too, is written in that language. I am sending you a dictionary."

—Thomas Jefferson, in a letter to his nephew, Peter Carr, in 1787.
The most acute educational problem in the Southwest is that which involves Mexican-American children. In the elementary and secondary schools of five states in that region—Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico and Texas—there are approximately 1.75 million children with Spanish surnames. Many of these young people experience academic failure in school. At best, they have limited success. A large percentage become school dropouts.

Little headway is being made against the problem. While teachers and administrators are and have been deeply concerned about it, they are also for the most part perplexed as to just what to do. The traditional approach has been simply to ignore the unique circumstances of children from Spanish-speaking homes, to assume that even with little or no experience in speaking English they would somehow learn as easily as their English-speaking classmates. Obviously, this did not happen. As a result, some schools have attacked the problem directly by grouping all their Mexican-American children in a pre-first grade where they would spend a year learning English and laying a foundation for regular school experiences. Such a procedure has the built-in disadvantage of creating an over-age group of students who must then go all the way through school a jump behind their peers.

More recently some experimental approaches using new materials and new techniques have been tried. Non-English-speaking children have been integrated with English-speaking children in the early grades. Pre-school experiences have been provided to help the non-English-speaking child get ready for school at the normal age. The approach appears to have much promise.

Teachers with insight into the problems of Spanish-speaking children have come to realize that two separate but parallel purposes need to be pursued. One is to help the Mexican-American student adjust to the dominant “Anglo” culture. The other is to foster in him a pride in his Spanish-speaking culture and Mexican origin. These teachers have chosen to recognize the Spanish-speaking ability of Mexican-American students as a distinct asset and to build on it rather than to root it out. They have found that Spanish properly used can be a bridge to the learning of English instead of an obstacle and that Mexican-American students can become truly bilingual and bi-cultural.
The National Education Association, recognizing the dimensions of the problem and aware that some teachers and some school systems were developing forward-looking solutions built on this base of bilingualism, set about early in 1965 to pull together as much information as could be obtained. It was the NEA’s belief that a survey of the bilingual programs currently under way would (1) call attention to some of the constructive approaches to the problems of the Spanish-speaking children, and (2) make possible a sharing of the ideas, methods and materials which apply to a bilingual system of teaching.

Accordingly the NEA approached a group of Tucson teachers who were interested in the problem and who for many years had been building bilingual “bridges” of their own. Most of these teachers were Spanish-speaking and of Mexican ancestry. The NEA asked them to serve as a team to survey what was being done in the five-state area of the Southwest—an area which in the 1960 census enumeration contained nearly 3.5 million people of Spanish surname. The project became known as the “NEA-Tucson Survey on the Teaching of Spanish to the Spanish-Speaking.” This bulletin is a report of the findings of the survey team.

More than a year of thought and effort have gone into the project. Numerous meetings were held and detailed plans developed before the specific activities of the Survey could actually get under way. A schedule for visits to school districts where promising and innovative programs for Spanish-speaking children were reported to be in operation was organized. Singly and in pairs, the Survey group visited these schools, observed student groups in action, talked with teachers and administrators and prepared detailed written reports of their visitation experience.

Excerpts from only a few of the visitation reports are included in this bulletin. To include them all would be redundant. Some of the programs observed were clearly superior, even inspiring. The description selected for incorporation in the text of this report are regarded by the Survey team as something of a cross-section of the better programs observed. They are included in the hope that they will provide guidance and inspiration to others.

The NEA-Tucson Survey has not been a research project in a formal sense. Studies related to the school adjustment problems of non-English-speaking children have been done and undoubtedly more will be undertaken in the future. But the need is for action—now!

It is hoped by all associated with the Survey that this report might stimulate action in the form of programs developed to more appropriately serve Mexican-American children. The suggestion is underlined by the fact that financial help is now available to help school systems move ahead. The provisions of recent federal
and state compensatory education legislation make it possible for schools to develop programs for the Spanish-speaking which previously might well have been beyond their financial reach. For example, opportunities for developing such programs are entirely within the scope of either Title I or Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (P.L. 89-10).

To meet the problem fully, however, further legislation and substantially increased appropriations are needed. A more intensive effort to recruit additional teachers from among the Spanish-speaking is another imperative. Additional research, especially of a demonstration nature, is yet another. An extended series of needs could be listed. But the urgent need is for action and innovation in local school districts almost everywhere.

Members of the NEA-Tucson Survey Committee are indebted to many people and organizations for their cooperation and assistance with this project:

- To the Board of Education and the administration of Tucson School District No. 1 for permitting members of the Survey team the time to travel as was required by the visitations to other school systems and for providing substitute teachers.

- To the National Education Association and particularly Monroe Sweetland, NEA West Coast Legislative Consultant, who served as Survey consultant; Robert M. Isenberg, Executive Secretary of NEA's Department of Rural Education which financed the project; and Richard B. Kennan, Executive Secretary of the NEA Commission on Professional Rights and Responsibilities for organizing a symposium held at the University of Arizona as a sequel to their study.

- To the teachers and administrators in the schools visited for their hospitality and the time they gave from busy schedules to make the visits meaningful. A full list of all the schools visited is included as an Appendix to this report.

Nea Tucson Survey on the Teaching of Spanish to the Spanish-speaking
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The NEA-Tucson Survey
On the Teaching of Spanish
to the Spanish-Speaking
"I am a Mexican"

While a majority of the Spanish-speaking people in the Southwest were born in this country and are citizens of the United States, they tend to be regarded both by themselves and others as Mexicans. The term Mexican-American would be more nearly accurate. More important than technicalities, however, is how they feel . . . how they regard themselves.

ME

To begin with, I am a Mexican. That sentence has a scent of bitterness as it is written. I feel that if it weren't for my nationality I would accomplish more. My being a Mexican has brought about my lack of initiative. No matter what I attempt to do, my dark skin always makes me feel that I will fail. Another thing that "gripes" me is that I am such a coward. I absolutely will not fight for something even if I know I'm right. I do not have the vocabulary that it would take to express myself strongly enough.

Many people, including most of my teachers, have tried to tell me I'm a leader. Well, I know better! Just because I may get better grades than most of my fellow Mexicans doesn't mean a thing. I could no more get an original idea in my head than be President of the United States. I don't know how to think for myself.

I want to go to college, sure, but what do I want to be? Even worse, where do I want to go? These questions are only a few that trouble me. I'd like to prove to my parents that I can do something. Just because I don't have the gumption to go out and get a job doesn't mean that I can't become something they'll be proud of. But if I find that I can't bring myself to go to college, I'll get married and they'll still get rid of me.

After reading this, you'll probably be surprised. This is the way I feel about myself, and nobody can change me. Believe me, many have tried and have failed. If God wants me to reach all my goals, I will. No parents, teachers, or priest will change the course that my life is to follow. Don't try.

This was a paper turned in by a 13-year old girl for an English assignment in the eighth grade of a school in one of the
Southwestern states. The assignment was to write about "Me." The Melancholy tone of the essay would suggest that the youngster was a "loner"—obscure, unattractive, not very popular. But no. She was attractive, articulate, an honor student, member of the band, outstanding in girls' athletics, popular among her fellow students, admired by her teachers. "She never seemed to be a child with a problem," remarked one of the teachers, in some puzzlement, after reading "Me."

The problem can be stated plainly and simply: The young girl who wrote that essay was Mexican-American. If she, with all her advantages, felt that her lot inevitably would be failure, how must thousands of other Mexican-American children—many of them less endowed physically and intellectually—view their own prospects?

357 YEARS OF HISTORY

To understand the problem fully, we must understand how it came about. The first white people to migrate into what is now the American Southwest were Spanish-speaking. They came by way of Mexico during the period of Spain's colonial expansion and settled portions of the Southwest even before the founding of the Plymouth Colony. Plymouth was established in 1620, but the first Spaniards settled at Santa Fe, New Mexico, a full 11 years before that—in 1609. By 1680 there were some 2,500 Spanish-speaking settlers in what we now call New Mexico. By 1790 there were an estimated 23,000 Spanish-speaking people in the five Southwestern states covered by this study area. Indeed, the white population of the Southwest—what there was of it—was practically all Spanish. New Mexico had the largest concentration.

But soon after the 13 colonies gained their independence from England, the migration of English-speaking Americans into the Southwest began. Mexico, its own independence newly-won from Spain, encouraged such migration. This vast Southwestern area, stretching from the western border of Louisiana to the Pacific, belonged to Mexico. She was anxious to see it settled and developed, and few Mexican colonists were moving there. So the government of Mexico granted large blocks of land to contractors who would bring in colonists. The response was large and prompt. By 1835 there were 25,000 to 35,000 American farmers, planters and traders in Texas, and more were on the way.

The deluge dismayed Mexico, and she tried to check it. Land grants were cancelled. The Texans became irked, and in 1836 they revolted against Mexican over-lordship and won their independence. Shortly afterward Texas was admitted to the Union. A dispute broke out between the U. S. and Mexico over the southwestern boundary of Texas. The result was the Mexican War and the
loss by Mexico of nearly all that remained of her Northernmost empire. To the U. S. were ceded much of New Mexico, most of Arizona, the future states of California, Nevada and Utah, and parts of Colorado and Wyoming. Five years later the Gadsden Purchase added a strip of land between the Gila River and the present southern boundary of Arizona and New Mexico, completing the American acquisition of what is now the Southwest.

ALIEN AND ALIENATED

Thus, by one of history’s ironies, the majority became a minority. Spanish-speaking people who had been the first whites to settle the Southwest became, if not an alien group, an alienated group. They were Americans, yes, but with a language and culture different from the language and culture of the region in which they found themselves. And both sides feelings had been exacerbated by the war.

Nationalistic passions have long since cooled. Mexico and the United States live side by side in peace. But in the Southwest a cultural and linguistic gulf still exists between Mexican-Americans—the "invisible minority," as they have been called—and Anglo-Americans. "Unlike the immigrant from Europe," says John M. Sharp, Professor of Modern Languages at Texas Western College, El Paso, "(the Mexican-American) is by no means willing to abandon his ancient cultural and linguistic heritage, in which he takes—however inarticulately—traditional pride, to accept the cultural pattern common to native speakers of English in our nation. His position may, perhaps, be compared to that of the Greeks in Sicily, who, though citizens of a Latin-speaking area, have maintained their language and mores for some 23 centuries." Thus the strong assimilationist impulses of other immigrant groups—Jewish, Irish, Italian, etc.—are not so conspicuous among the Mexican-Americans. Nor are all Mexican-Americans possessed of the strong materialistic drive—the "individual success psychology," as one authority has put it—of so many Anglo-Americans.

THE LEGACY OF POVERTY

There is another factor which makes the gulf difficult to bridge—which to a considerable extent, keeps the Mexican-American an "outsider" in his own land. It is the fact that so many immigrants from Mexico were well down on the economic scale when they came to this country. They were, in the main, unskilled and semi-skilled laborers, dissatisfied with conditions in Mexico, hoping that in the North they would be able to improve their lot. And, as is so often the case, first-generation immigrants tended to bequeath their property to the generations that come after them.
Thus we find poverty far more prevalent among Mexican-Americans than among Anglo-Americans. In all five Southwestern states, the average income of white people with Spanish surnames is well below that of the general population, as the following table illustrates:

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Families with Incomes under $1000</th>
<th>Families with Incomes under $3000</th>
<th>Families with Incomes of $10,000 or more</th>
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<td>21.3% 30.8%</td>
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<td>14.1 19.1</td>
<td>21.8 10.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>3.5 6.4</td>
<td>18.3 35.0</td>
<td>14.6 4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Mexico</td>
<td>6.9 11.3</td>
<td>24.4 41.5</td>
<td>14.3 4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>7.6 13.6</td>
<td>32.5 51.6</td>
<td>11.8 2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southwest</td>
<td>4.9 8.8</td>
<td>21.0 34.8</td>
<td>17.6 6.6</td>
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**Low Achievers . . . Dropouts**

An almost inevitable concomitant of poverty is low educational achievement. Herschel T. Manuel, in his definitive book, *Spanish-Speaking Children of the Southwest: Their Education and the Public Welfare* (*University of Texas Press, Austin, Texas*), reports that one-sixth of the school-age population of the five Southwestern states is Spanish-speaking. Yet, he notes, the proportion of school dropouts among the Spanish-speaking is far higher than one-sixth. California made a study of the educational disparity between the Mexican-American and his fellow citizens as of 1960. It found that the level of education reached by that part of the population bearing Spanish surnames was well below the level of the total population and even below that of the non-white population. More than half of the males and nearly half of the females 14 years old and over had not gone beyond the eighth grade. By contrast, only 27.9 percent of the males and 25 percent of the females over 14 in the total popula-
tion had not gone beyond the eighth grade. A little over 72 percent of the males in the total population and 75 percent of the females had completed one or more years of high school, but only 48.5 percent of the males and 52 percent of the females of Spanish surnames had done so. In the total population, 23.4 percent of the males and 19.4 percent of the females had completed one or more years of college. But no more than 8.8 percent of the Spanish-surnamed males and 6.2 percent of the females had reached that educational eminence.

Why does the Mexican-American youngster drop out of school in such large numbers? For an answer, we need to look at his performance while he is still in school. Again California supplies us with some vital clues. An analysis of achievement tests was made in the Lindsay Unified School District of Lindsay, California, a city of 5,500 located about midway between Fresno and Bakersfield. It is an agricultural community with a high proportion of Mexican-Americans. The analysis showed that in all the educational fundamentals—reading, arithmetic and language—Mexican-American children lagged far behind the Anglo-Americans, as measured by the California Achievement Tests.1 In reading, 63.9 percent of the Mexican-American children were below grade level compared to 27.3 percent of the Anglo-Americans. In arithmetic, 38.7 percent of the Mexican-Americans were below grade level, compared to 20.8 percent of the Anglo-Americans. In language, the comparative percentages were 55.5 and 30.6. Total battery: 53.4 percent of the Mexican-Americans below grade level; 28.1 percent of the others.

Said the Lindsay report: "... These children (Mexican-Americans) start school with a decided handicap, fall behind their classmates in the first grade, and each passing year finds them farther behind. They are conditioned to failure in the early years of their schooling and each passing year only serves to reinforce their feelings of failure and frustration. Is it any wonder that as soon as they are 16 or can pass for 16, they begin dropping out of school?"

A FORM OF MASOCHISM

That question having been asked, we need then to ask another and more significant question: Is there something inherent in our system of public schooling that impedes the education of the Mexican-American child—that, indeed, drives him to drop out? And the answer, unhappily, must be yes. A. Bruce Gaarder, Specialist in Foreign Languages with the U. S. Office of Education, stated it well in a report which he presented at the second

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1 The test result analysis for Lindsay, California, was compiled by John Bishop, 6th grade teacher.
annual conference of the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers, November 13, 1965, at El Paso, Texas: "... The greatest barrier to the Mexican-American child's scholastic achievement ... is that the schools, reflecting the dominant view of the dominant culture, want that child to grow up as another Anglo. This he cannot do except by denying himself and his family and his forebears, a form of masochism which no society should demand of its children." Dr. Manuel puts it another way: "Ironically the child who enters school with a language deficiency and the cultural deprivation of long-continued poverty is often made unbearably aware of his disadvantages. School is supposed to help him solve these problems. Instead it convinces him that they are beyond solution."

THE SPANISH-SPEAKING HOME

Let us see what happens to the average Mexican-American child when he starts school. He comes to school speaking Spanish. He knows some English but has used it infrequently. The language of his home, the language of his childhood, his first years, is Spanish. His environment, his experiences, his very personality have been shaped by it.

To understand how totally Spanish the background of such a child may be, consider the results of a study made in 1965 in San Antonio, Texas, and reported to the El Paso conference of foreign language teachers. Six hundred Mexican-American adults were interviewed in San Antonio, and it was found that 71 percent of husbands and wives spoke only Spanish to each other. Among the grandparents, 94 percent spoke only Spanish to their children and 89 percent spoke only Spanish to their grandchildren.

Understandably, therefore, the child from this Spanish-saturated environment, once embarked on his school career, finds himself in a strange and even threatening situation. The language of instruction is English. Yet English, as John M. Sharp expressed it at the El Paso conference, may be "no less a foreign language to him than it would be to a child from Argentina or Columbia. He suddenly finds himself not only with the pressing need to master an (to him) alien tongue, but, also at the same time, to make immediate use of it in order to function as a pupil. His parents, to whom he has always looked for protection and aid, can be of no help at all to him in his perplexity. Moreover, as a result of cultural and economic differences between the English-speaking and Spanish-speaking segments of his community, many of the objects, social relationships and cultural attitudes presented to him in his lessons, though perfectly familiar to an Anglo youngster, lie without the Latin American's home experience. Accordingly, the problem of learning English
is, for him, enormously increased by his unfamiliarity with what objects and situations the no less unfamiliar words and phrases stand for."

**Barriers and Bastions**

Even in schools with an almost totally Spanish-American enrollment—schools which are for all practical purposes *de facto* segregated—textbooks and curricula used are often the same as in schools with a large Anglo-American majority. As Professor Sharp tells us: "The three R's are taught in English from the first grade up, and no classes specifically with English as a foreign language are offered. Operating under such unrealistic conditions (which appear to have been devised by people who seemed to believe that if they paid no attention to the problem it would go away), conscientious teachers and administrators have done the best they could for their students. Subject matter is watered down and used as a means to teach English. During the two or three years of primary school while the pupil is acquiring a minimal knowledge of English, he falls seriously behind his English-speaking contemporaries in other sections of the community. This loss in subject-knowledge is seldom made up by the time he enters high school, where he finds himself unable to compete scholastically with his Anglo-American schoolmates."

The Mexican-American child encounters not only linguistic barriers but psychological barriers. One of the working committee reports developed at the El Paso conference described them in these words: ". . . A sudden immersion in English at six years of age, especially in an environment which lacks the plasticity and warmth of human relationships found in the home, occurring at the same time that new demands of work and discipline are made, may create psychological barriers almost instantaneously which will not disappear in a lifetime. The teacher may sense the presence of these barriers and may react by putting up barriers of his own, unconsciously attempting to compensate thereby for his sense of inadequacy in dealing with the child. The result may be that the Spanish language becomes a refuge into which the child retreats at every opportunity, and the Spanish-speaking community a bastion of defense against the outside world."

**The Laws of the Anglos**

In most states, the schools are actually mandated by law to make English the language of instruction. An appropriate comment on this type of law was forthcoming recently from Charles Olstad, Assistant Professor of Romance Languages at the University of Arizona: "I had always thought such a law archaic, a carry-over from early days of benighted ethnocentrism, a distorted form of super-patriotism which saw anything non-English
as a threat to the nation.” In some schools the speaking of Spanish is forbidden both in classrooms and on the playground, except, of course, in classes where Spanish is taught. Not infrequently students have been punished for lapsing into Spanish. This has even extended to corporal punishment. A member of our Survey team tells of one school at which such punishment was dealt out to children who lapsed into Spanish despite the fact that 99 percent of the school’s enrollment was Mexican-American! The obvious theory is that a child will learn English if he is required to speak English and nothing but English, at least during those hours of the day when he is in school. “If you want to be American, speak American,” he is admonished over and again.

FITTING THE STEREOTYPE

Nor is it only a different language that the newly-arrived Mexican-American child encounters. He also encounters a strange and different set of cultural patterns, an accelerated tempo of living and, more often than not, teachers who, though sympathetic and sincere, have little understanding of the Spanish-speaking people, their customs, beliefs and sensitivities. He is given an intelligence test in which language and cultural and socio-economic background are depressing factors. He may have fully as much intellectual potential as his Anglo-American classmates, but he shows up on the test as a “low achiever.” He tends thus to become stereotyped in the eyes of the adults whose lives impinge on his. All of them—teachers, administrators, even parents—expect little of him, and he usually measures up (or down) to their expectations.

If he knows little or no English, he may be placed in a special class with other non-English-speaking children for a year and then “promoted” to the first grade the following year. But that means he must go through school a year behind other children of his age, and this embarrasses him.

Even if he speaks both English and Spanish, he may be only nominally bilingual—not truly so. He may have, as he often does, a low level of literacy in both languages. He watches television at home, as do his Anglo-American schoolmates. He listens to the radio. Soon he is speaking a language which is neither Spanish nor English but a mixture of the two—a kind of linguistic hybrid. He doesn’t speak English correctly and he doesn’t speak Spanish correctly.

There is something sadly paradoxical about the schools’ well-meaning effort to make the Mexican-American child “talk American”—to eradicate his Spanish. For they are at the same time working strenuously to teach Spanish to the Anglo-American student, acclaiming the advantages of being able to communicate
fluently in a language other than one's own. The National Defense Education Act is providing funds to schools to strengthen the teaching of modern foreign languages as well as mathematics, science, and other subjects. And so, while they strive to make the monolingual student bilingual, they are making—or trying to make—the bilingual student monolingual.

**Compulsion Breeds Withdrawal**

The prohibition against speaking Spanish leads to some curious situations. For one thing, the school cannot enforce it. Or, rather, it cannot accomplish what the rule is intended to accomplish, which is the universal speaking of English. “Obviously,” says James Burton, who teaches English and speech to Mexican-American students at Jefferson High School in El Paso, Texas, “it is impossible to make a person speak a language. Any teacher in control of his classroom can prevent his students from speaking Spanish, but the result is likely to be a thundering silence; it is certainly no guarantee that fluent, idiomatic English will gush forth like the water from the biblical rock. Arrogance or even thoughtlessness in enforcing such a regulation is easily self-defeating. If the student is somehow left with the feeling that the person doing the enforcing is belittling him in an alien language for his normal use of his own language, bitter resentment is sure to ensue. Punitive measures in this case are only too likely to prove ineffectual under most circumstances. After all, few students speak Spanish as a deliberate act of defiance.”

John M. Sharp of Texas Western remarks, too, on the absurdity of a dictum that says a teacher facing a class of Spanish-speaking youngsters may never use an occasional word of Spanish to clarify a point. Yet it may be perfectly clear, he observes, “that the point being made is not ‘getting across’ in English.” And he adds, “It should be noted here, to the credit of teachers, that conscientious instructors frequently violate this prohibition.”

**The Damaged Self-Image**

The harm done the Mexican-American child linguistically is paralleled—perhaps even exceeded—by the harm done to him as a person. In telling him that he must not speak his native language, we are saying to him by implication that Spanish and the culture which it represents are of no worth. Therefore (it follows) the people who speak Spanish are of no worth. Therefore (it follows again) this particular child is of no worth. It should come as no surprise to us, then, that he develops a negative self-concept—an inferiority complex. If he is no good, how can he succeed? And if he can't succeed, why try? Suddenly the full import of the essay about “Me”—the poignant outcry of the Mexican-American girl who “never seemed to be a child with a problem”—becomes crystal clear.
"Somewhere along the way," says Marcos de Leon, School-Community Coordinator of the Los Angeles Public Schools and member of the board of the Latin-American Civic Association and the board of the Council for Mexican Affairs of Los Angeles, "the Mexican-American must make a stand and recognize the fact that if there is to be progress against those barriers which prevent and obstruct a more functional citizenship, he must above all things retrieve his dignity and worth as a person with a specific ethnic heritage, possessing a positive contribution to civilization. No man can find a true expression for living, or much less think right, who is ashamed of himself or his people."

At a Mexican-American seminar held in Phoenix in 1963, Daniel Schreiber, then Director of the NEA’s Project Dropout, spoke of the need of young people to "achieve confident self-identity." "The youngster," he said, "whose school experience begins and ends in failure—and those of minority children too often do—having discovered that he is good at nothing, stands a strong chance of becoming good for nothing. And far too many young lives, with all the potentials and real talents and capabilities they embody, are being wasted and crushed. The challenge is to redeem them, through inventiveness and energy and dedication."

This is the challenge that the public schools face in the education of tens of thousands of Mexican-American children in the five Southwestern states. It is a challenge which, with an appropriate approach and sound techniques, can be fully and triumphantly met. We believe these techniques are at hand.
What Is
Being Done: Some Specifics

ENCOURAGING and exciting programs directed specifically to a more appropriate educational accommodation of children in bi-cultural communities have been developed in some places. The following reports are illustrative of the wide variety of innovative practice the NEA-Tucson Survey Committee observed in the schools selected for visitation. While more lengthy reports of observations were prepared, the excerpts included here briefly describe the type of program that these specific communities have developed.

LAREDO, TEXAS

Laredo is a Texas border community of some 65,000 population, located on the Rio Grande, just opposite its Mexican counterpart, Neuvo Laredo. Its economic sustenance derives in good part from the pursuits of agriculture and a busy Air Force base.

Two school districts serve the metropolitan area of Laredo. The larger of the two in population is the Laredo Independent School District, serving the city of Laredo proper. Far larger in area is the United Consolidated Independent School District. It is larger, in fact, than Rhode Island, taking in no less than 2440 square miles and entirely surrounding the Laredo Independent School District on three sides, with the Rio Grande constituting the fourth side. Located within the far-flung boundaries of the United Consolidated Independent School District are the suburban homes of some of Laredo's Air Force families and ranches and farms where many Mexican-American families live.

The district operates three elementary schools and a unique high school, much of which has been built underground. This school was built underground to provide fallout protection in case of a nuclear attack on Laredo Air Force Base, to shut out the disrupting screams of jet planes, and for economy's sake. An underground school uses less land, is more economical to air condition, requires no shades or blinds or window cleaning and offers no tempting midnight target for vandals with air rifles.
The educational program of United Consolidated Independent School District has one strong common denominator: Bilingualism. Students, Anglo-American as well as Mexican-American, are encouraged to become truly bilingual—speaking, reading and writing fluently in both English and Spanish. English instruction and Spanish instruction go on side by side.

A BILINGUAL DIALOGUE

Two members of our Survey team visited a first grade class at Nye Elementary School—one of the three in the district. It was early fall. School had been under way only three weeks. There were 26 students in the class. Half were Mexican-American (some having been born in Mexico); half were Anglo-American. None of the Anglo-American children knew any Spanish when school began. Few of the Mexican-American children knew any English.

The teacher was a trim, attractive woman, Mrs. Dolores Earles, herself a Mexican-American, born in Monterey, Mexico and married to an “Anglo.” As the bell signalled the beginning of the school day, Mrs. Earles greeted her class first in English, then in Spanish. She asked for a volunteer to lead the pledge of allegiance. Everybody volunteered and a Mexican-American child was chosen to lead the pledge in English: “This is my left hand. I place my left hand on my side. This is my right hand. I place my right hand over my heart. I pledge allegiance to the flag . . .” Then a blond “Anglo” child was chosen to lead the pledge in Spanish: “Esta es mi mano izquierda. Pongo mi mano izquierda a mi lado. Esta es mi mano derecha; la pongo sobre mi corazón. . . .”

Mrs. Earles praised the children and continued: “Yesterday we listened to the story of the big bad wolf. Remember? And the big bad wolf had a big nose, and a big mouth, and big eyes, and big ears.” She touched her eyes, “What are these?”

“The eyes,” chorused the class.

“Why does the big bad wolf need them?”

“To see better!”

She did the same with ears, nose and mouth. Then:

“Cómo se dice ‘wolf’ en español? Se dice lobo.”

“Lobo.”

“¿Qué son estos?”—touching her eyes.

“Son los ojos!”

“¿Para qué necesita el lobo los ojos?”

“Para ver mejor!”
HOW CAN WE BE TWO PERSONS?

There was some work with vowels and consonants in English and in Spanish. A song, “Teensy Weensy Spider” was sung first in English, then in Spanish. And then Mrs. Earles asked: “Wouldn’t it be fun if we could each be two persons? How many of you think you would like to be two persons?”

Everybody did.

“How can we be two persons? That’s right—by speaking two languages. But remember—we have to be careful to speak only one language at a time. Does your teacher mix the two languages?”

“No!” responded the children and she shook her head in affirmation.

“We must always be careful to learn each language well so that we don’t have to mix the two. If we learn both languages, we can help each other better. Right now I need your help. Can you children help me? I lost my dog and I can’t find him.”

All volunteered to help. She asked three “Anglo” children to go before the class and sing, “Oh, where, oh, where, has my little dog gone?” When they were done, Mrs. Earles said, “Thank you. But I’m sorry I forgot to say that I didn’t lose him here. I lost him in Mexico. Could someone help me find him there?” Again all volunteered, and three Mexican-American children joined the three “Anglo” children to sing: “¿A dónde, a dónde se fue mi perrito . . . ?”

And so it went through the day . . . an involved, absorbed, enthusiastic group of children . . . a talented, empathetic teacher. The children were gaining skills in both English and Spanish. But, more than that, they were taking a long step toward full understanding of the people and the cultures of the two countries whose common border lay there at Laredo. The Mexican-American children, instead of going to school to confront a strange and threatening environment, found one that was friendly and familiar. They found a teacher who was not only bilingual but bi-cultural, one who recognized the need among both Anglo-American and Mexican-American children for assurance and affection and was able to offer these things to them in a language and manner meaningful to both.

THE ESSENTIAL INGREDIENT

There are other teachers at Nye fully as capable as Mrs. Earles, other classes fully as committed and enthusiastic. There are other schools in the Southwest with fine programs. We have turned the spotlight on Nye Elementary School and Mrs. Earles and her students because they are a kind of symbol. They typify what our Survey Committee believes to be an absolute essential to success in the education of the Mexican-American children of the Southwest. That is bilingualism.
Significantly, the district tried it the other way. It tried outlawing Spanish—educating the Spanish-speaking children in English. The result was frustration and failure, a heavy proportion of dropouts among Mexican-Americans, tension between the Anglo- and Mexican-American communities. Then a concerned and conscientious school board sought administrative leadership which would build a staff believing in bilingualism. The goal of the district has been to build a program along such lines.

In September, 1964, under the direction of Victor Cruz-Aedo, elementary supervisor, and supported by Superintendent Harold C. Brantley and the board of education, there thus began what the district described as “an experimental biliteracy program.”

Its objectives were several-fold:

—To enable English-speaking and Spanish-speaking children to attain maximum skills in understanding, speaking, reading and writing both English and Spanish.

—To provide all pupils with a better understanding of the nature of language in general and of the differences between first language (mother tongue) and second.

—To cultivate in each pupil a pride in his mother tongue and the culture it represents and, too, a respect for the second language and the culture it represents.

—To help all pupils—through the cultivation of both mother tongue and second language—to achieve a more complete and liberal education.

—To reduce dropouts.

ONE YEAR AT A TIME

Federal funds had not yet become available for the Laredo “biliteracy” program (as they were subsequently to become available under the Elementary-Secondary Education Act of 1965.) The United Consolidated Independent School District had to finance the program itself. And so it started the first year with only the first grade. The next year it expanded to the second grade. It was bilingualism not merely for the Mexican-American child but for both Mexican-American and Anglo-American—for all children. (NOTE: A set of slides and a tape describing the United Consolidated Bilingual Program at Laredo may be obtained by writing Harold C. Brantley, Superintendent, United Consolidated Public Schools, P. O. Box 826, Del Mar Hills, Laredo, Texas 78041).

Eventually bilingualism will extend through all the grades, including high school. Yet even now the high school reflects the beneficial effects of the bilingual-bi-cultural revolution taking place. Picturesquely displayed at the high school’s main entrance, on equal terms, are the proud symbols of the two neighbor nations—the American eagle and the Mexican eagle. They are vividly colored, stylized cutouts made by students and suspended
from wire supports. Student art work is displayed all through the school, and there is stress throughout on the worthiness of each of the two cultures. An unmistakable esprit de corps prevails among the students. They walk proudly. They dress neatly—all of them. (NOTE: On the day our Survey team visited the high school, the football team was leaving on a game trip. Every member wore dress shirt and tie. The superintendent solemnly swore that it was their idea!)

BILINGUALISM: A VALID OBJECTIVE

The Laredo program and other similar programs that we observed in our Survey—plus our own experiences and independent studies—have persuaded us beyond any doubt of the validity of bilingualism. Unhappily a large majority of Southwestern school districts have no bilingual programs. In a few instances, such programs exist but they are conducted inadequately. Most school districts have yet to discover that bilingualism can be a tool. It can be a tool—indeed the most important tool—with which to educate and motivate the Mexican-American child. It can be the means by which he achieves an affirmative self-concept—by which he comes to know who and what he is, takes pride in his heritage and culture, and develops a sense of his own worth. It can be an invaluable asset to him as an adult, economically, intellectually and socially.

One of the proofs of the validity of this approach, it seems to us, is the fact that children born and receiving their early schooling in Mexico or some other Spanish-speaking country generally do better in our schools than Mexican-Americans born here.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DESIRABLE PROGRAMS

This, then, might be the time to make some recommendations that the NEA-Tucson Survey Committee believes to be basic in the education of native speakers of Spanish:

1. Instruction in pre-school and throughout the early grades should be in both Spanish and English.
2. English should be taught as a second language.
3. Contemporaneously there should be emphasis on the reading, writing and speaking of good Spanish, since Mexican-American children are so often illiterate in it.
4. A well-articulated program of instruction in the mother tongue should be continued from pre-school through the high school years.
5. All possible measures should be taken to help Mexican-American children gain a pride in their ancestral culture and language.
6. Schools should recruit Spanish-speaking teachers and teachers' aides. Beyond that, a special effort should be made to encourage promising young Mexican-Americans in high school and college to consider education as a career.

7. Schools, colleges and universities should conduct research in bilingual education, train or retrain bilingual teachers, create appropriate materials and, in general, establish a strong tradition of bilingual education. (For this suggestion we are indebted to Theodore Andersson of the University of Texas who incorporated it into a memorandum directed to the Office of Economic Opportunity in Washington, D. C.)

8. School districts desiring to develop good bilingual programs but lacking funds should look to the possibility of financing them under new federal programs and in some cases state compensatory education programs.

9. State laws which specify English as the language of instruction and thus, by implication at least, outlaw the speaking of Spanish except in Spanish classes should be repealed.

We might set forth a tenth recommendation—that no two programs of Spanish for the Spanish-speaking need to be, nor are they likely to be, alike. Each school district has its own special problems. Each requires its own unique solution. The Laredo program is one approach. There are others, and what follows is a series of capsule reports on some of them, as seen by members of our Survey team in their investigatory travels through the five Southwestern states. We are intentionally omitting descriptions of other good programs in order to achieve brevity and avoid repetition. We have selected for description those programs which we consider to be representative—programs which, by their example may offer ideas and inspiration to schools contemplating entry into the area of Spanish-for-the-Spanish-speaking.

ALBUQUERQUE, NEW MEXICO

We visited two high schools here—Albuquerque High, in the center of the city, with about 70 percent of its students Spanish-speaking, and Rio Grande High, with some 50 percent Spanish-speaking. Because New Mexico was ruled by Spain long before it came under the stewardship of Mexico, many of its Spanish-speaking citizens regard their heritage as being Spanish instead of Mexican. Thus the Spanish-speaking person is called an "Hispano" here rather than a "Mexican-American." Hispanos realize that their children are not true bilinguals in most instances, that they speak flawed Spanish, and that a good Spanish program in the schools can both enhance their Spanish-speaking skills and foster greater pride in their own culture.
The Albuquerque school system gives a placement test in grades 6 through 11 to Spanish-speaking students who have never studied Spanish formally. This test is used to determine the competency of each student in Spanish so that he might begin his study of the language at an appropriate level rather than to suffer through material which he will find much too elementary. The test, 55 minutes long, is on tape and is beamed to the classrooms via the Albuquerque Public Schools’ FM radio station KANW. It consists of eleven short stories in Spanish. After hearing each story, the student answers multiple-choice questions presented in booklet form. The test has recently undergone revision as a result of item analyses made by a professional testing service.

It is important to indicate that schools do not rely solely on the results of the Spanish placement test. They are used along with students’ scores on standardized tests, I.Q. scores, aptitude test results, teachers’ grades in all subjects and students’ study habits and attitudes toward learning.

The textbooks used in the Spanish “S” (for native speakers) classes at Rio Grande High School are as follows:

First Year: A-LM I and Lecturas escogidas. (The letters A-LM stand for Audio Lingual Materials. This series of textbooks was first produced under the guidance of NDEA committees and is now published by Harcourt, Brace.)

Second Year: A-LM II.

Third Year: A-LM III, Frijolito saltón and Lecturas modernas.

Fourth Year: Lecturas amenas. (NOTE: Outstanding Spanish students other than native speakers are placed in fourth-year Spanish “S” classes also.)

Fifth Year: Literatura y geografía de la América Latina.

The Spanish-speaking program in the Albuquerque school system is well established, has strong administrative support and is thoroughly accepted by the community. (NOTE: Copies of Albuquerque’s Guideline for Teaching Spanish to Spanish-Speaking Students and Spanish Placement Test may be obtained by sending 25 cents for the former and 50 cents for the latter to: Miss Ann Komadina, Foreign Language Consultant, Albuquerque Public Schools, P. O. Box 1719, Albuquerque, New Mexico. You may also obtain the entire test-on-tape—two seven-inch reels and the booklet—for $25.00. The test may be used indefinitely by the school system purchasing it.)
PECOS, NEW MEXICO

Pecos, a small community 80 miles northeast of Albuquerque on the Pecos River, is supported mainly by lumbering and farming. Its population of just over 1000 people is almost entirely "Hispano" and few of its citizens are very high on the economic ladder.

It was September when members of the Survey team visited Pecos. Scarcely more than a week earlier, the Pecos schools had embarked for the first time on a program of Spanish for the Spanish-speaking, financed by the Ford Foundation. Already the air was charged with excitement. A teacher who was a native of Chile, Mrs. Olivia Pincheira, had been employed by the school district to carry on the program in the elementary grades. Ironically there had been a long search for a teacher in Latin America, and Mrs. Pincheira, when she was finally found, was working as an evaluator in the New Mexico State Department of Public Instruction.

We watched her in action in the classroom. The linguistic sophistication of the Latin-American-trained teacher was amply evident. Mrs. Pincheira used a wide variety of charts and illustrations which were obviously her own. She employed clever exercises and games. And she was enormously effective.

At the time we were at Pecos, the program was so new that a shortage of physical facilities existed, and the one teacher of Spanish was spread terribly thin. She was moving from class to class every 30 minutes. Every class and every level wanted her. But even with this handicap it was obvious that something extremely important, bearing tremendous promise for the future, had been introduced into the education system at Pecos. It is called "bilingualism."

MERCED, CALIFORNIA

Merced is a predominantly agricultural community situated 117 miles southeast of Sacramento, in California's verdant San Joaquin Valley. Like so many other California farming towns, it has attracted a large number of Spanish-speaking people. In 1963, under provisions of California's McAteer Act, the Merced Elementary School District became one of 32 districts developing pilot projects in compensatory education. The aim of the projects was to discover methods by which culturally disadvantaged children might be encouraged and assisted to remain in school until they graduated. The state agreed to pay up to two-thirds of the cost of the program or $24 per pupil, whichever was smaller. Nearly $650,000 was appropriated for two school years, and now these projects are being expanded with funds available under new federal programs.
Bilingual programs were set in motion in the Merced schools with the aid of the above mentioned McAteer Act funds. Mexican-American students were taught Spanish in homogeneous classes, grouped according to their ability to read, write and speak the language. There was extensive use of audio-visual materials, including films, tapes, records and teaching machines. The students were tested at the end of the first year. A majority showed marked improvement in all skills—reading, writing and speaking. Overall, the average gain in Spanish proficiency was 50 percent. Moreover, significant improvement had taken place in the children's general attitudes and self-concepts.

Two members of our Survey team visited Tenaya Junior High School which includes the fifth, sixth and seventh grades and has a student body of about 700 pupils. They found an enthusiastic faculty and a principal furnishing strong, enlightened leadership. In their study of Hispanic culture, the Merced schools "adopted" a sister city with a similar name in South America—the city of Mercedes, Uruguay. A telephone call was made to Mercedes, and the conversation was heard by the entire student body of Tenaya Junior High plus members of the city council and representatives of the Chamber of Commerce via loudspeaker in the school auditorium.

PUEBLO, COLORADO

"I didn't realize how much self-hate the students had." The words are those of the principal of Minnequa Elementary School in this iron-and-steel city of southeastern Colorado. She was exclaiming over the results of a newly instituted program of Spanish for the 85 percent of Minnequa's 460 students who were Spanish-speaking. Ernest Roybal, himself a native speaker, taught Spanish for a half-hour three times a week to all fifth and sixth graders. He told the visiting member of our Survey team that he felt inadequate because his preparation for teaching did not include specialized training in the teaching of Spanish.

His misgivings were not shared, however, by his principal, Miss Julia Braun. She was delighted with the progress already evident. Student attitudes and behavior had noticeably improved. The Mexican-American children carried themselves a bit more proudly. They got along better together. There was little or none of the name-calling that had been so prevalent before—calling which, though engaged in by Mexican-American children, was anti-Mexican in nature. And parents of the native speakers had reacted with enthusiasm to the new Spanish classes and the new spirit developing at Minnequa School. The last PTA function, a sort of Mexican fiesta, had been attended by more parents than ever before, and there had been more parental cooperation in its planning and arranging.
TUCSON, ARIZONA

The Spanish roots of Tucson, this one-time walled pueblo, go very deep. Having been a bit of Spain even before it became an outpost of Mexico, Tucson traces its Spanish beginnings as far back as 1700, when Father Kino began building the historic mission of San Xavier del Bac. Appropriately, therefore, modern-day Tucson counts a substantially higher proportion of Mexican-Americans among its population than Phoenix. This accounts for the fact that fully 48 percent of the student body of one of Tucson’s high schools—Pueblo High which serves the south-west part of the city—is Mexican-American.

Pueblo High’s program of Spanish for the Spanish-speaking began in 1959. The faculty and administration realized that the Spanish-speaking students were bored with the Spanish classes and materials to which they then were being exposed. It was understandable. The program had been designed for beginning students without previous experience with the language. Much of the content seemed elementary. Yet at the same time, in what must have seemed a paradox to some, a number of native speakers were receiving failing grades in Spanish.

And so an experimental program was developed. At first it was made available only to students fluent in Spanish and highly motivated. Admission to the class was considered an honor. Along with the linguistic content, the course included emphasis on the cultural heritage of Spain and Mexico to help students develop a positive sense of identity.

At the end of the first year the students petitioned for a continuation of the program. Their interest was met and during the second year they were introduced to Mexican and Spanish literature. Compositions which they wrote were based primarily on literary works read in and out of class. There was also a unit of commercial correspondence.

At the end of the second year, the students again asked for more. In the third year, they explored Spanish and Mexican literature more deeply and read several of the masterpieces such as the Spanish play Don Juan Tenorio by José Zorrilla.

Meanwhile, the enthusiasm of the pilot group spread through the student body. New classes were organized, including some for students whose ability was average and even below-average. Today the program at Pueblo High includes eight first-year classes, three second-year classes, two in the third year and one in the fourth year. Over this four-year span, attention is given to the basic skills of speaking, reading and writing. Equal if not even greater emphasis is given to helping the student develop a more positive self-concept through the study of his rich Spanish and Mexican cultural heritage.
Students at Pueblo High who enroll in the native speakers' classes are required to pay a $3.50 fee per year. This money has been used to buy class sets of literary pieces. (NOTE: A list of recommended texts and supplementary readings for a four-year program may be obtained by writing to Henry Oyama, Chairman, Foreign Language Department, Pueblo High School, 3500 S. 12th Street, Tucson, Arizona.)

The program has generated enthusiasm among all concerned—students, faculty, administration and parents. And it was a major factor in the designation of Pueblo High in 1965 as a “Pacemaker School”—one of 45 nationwide—by the NEA and Parade magazine. In the near future, Pueblo plans to enlarge the program with a commercial Spanish course at the third and/or fourth-year level for terminal students.

A program of Spanish for the Spanish-speaking also has been instituted at Sunnyside High School, in a separate school district serving the southernmost area of Tucson and an area beyond the city limits. Nearly 45 percent of that student body is Spanish-speaking. A special Spanish class was organized in 1961, and the program has expanded to two first-year classes and one each for the second, third and fourth years. During the first and second years, emphasis is given to correcting common grammatical mistakes.

The instructor at Sunnyside, L. Louis Labiaux, has traveled extensively in Spanish-speaking countries. Dissatisfied with available materials for the first year students, he has developed materials that he considers more appropriate. Gramática española de repaso by Francisco Ugarte is used in the second year. The third year stresses Spanish-American history and culture, the basic text being Historia de México by Wiberto Jiménez Moreno, José Miranda and María Teresa Fernández. The fourth year's work revolves around the history and culture of Spain, for which the basic textbook is Panorama de la civilización española by Francisco Ugarte.

Anxious to build more parental interest, Mr. Labiaux has appeared on local TV to explain the program. He also has worked to interest other groups in the problems of the Spanish-speaking at Sunnyside High School.

EL PASO, TEXAS

El Paso is located just across the Rio Grande from the busy Mexican city of Juárez. Of the many similar “border twins” (Brownsville-Matamoros, Douglas-Aguia Prieta, Nogales-Nogales, Laredo-Nuevo Laredo, Calexico-Mexicali, etc.) these are the largest and most vibrant. Tourists and trade flow in quantity back and forth across the bridge that separates El Paso from Juárez. One might thus expect that bilingualism would be a logical part of El Paso's educational program, and it is, at least in the
high schools. The program has been carried on for many years. A majority of the teachers are native speakers of Spanish. Nor does the bilingual program stop with classes in Spanish for the Spanish-speaking. A member of our Survey team visited a uniquely effective class at Jefferson High School which was designed exclusively to help Spanish-speaking students cope with problems encountered in English pronunciation. The instructor was James Burton, whom the reader may remember from the very germane observations attributed to him in earlier portions of this report. The class, comprising seniors considered by the school to be potential college material, was conducted in English. But Mr. Burton often switched to Spanish to point out contrasts in pronunciation in both languages. He wrote sentences on the chalk board, then wrote the phonetic symbols. The students were instructed to repeat after him, then read in chorus. Finally individuals were asked to read. During the exercise, Mr. Burton moved quietly and quickly about the room, listening to individual students, giving help where necessary.

PHOENIX, ARIZONA

Phoenix Union High School was the city’s first high school and now one of the nation’s largest with 4400 students—about half of them Spanish-speaking. The majority of these Spanish-speaking students are second- and third-generation Mexican-Americans although some have come recently from Mexico and other Latin countries. Very few have had formal schooling in Spanish. Many speak the mixed Spanish-English patois so prevalent in this part of the Southwest.

In 1960 Phoenix Union began offering special classes in Spanish. Although at the start there was but one class, today its program of Spanish-for-the-Spanish-speaking includes eight first-year classes, four in the second year and one each in third and fourth years. Mrs. María L. Vega, who initiated the program, is a native of Mexico. Two other teachers are also native speakers.

The first two years of the program, reports Mrs. Vega, are devoted to teaching basic skills in reading and writing. The work also includes many cultural items. Students make maps of Spanish-speaking countries and write reports on cultural topics. Stories and short novels are read orally by the teacher and class discussion and written exercises follow.

Books used in the first and second year include Pittaro and Green’s Primer curso para todos and Segundo curso, progresando, Cuentecitos, edited by Wilkins and Oller; Aquí se habla español by Margarita López; Nuevas lecturas by Carlos García-Prado and William E. Wilson, and Pensativa by Jesús Goytorúa.
Third- and fourth-year classes stress the history and literature of Spain and the Spanish-American countries. Students do class reports using Spanish language newspapers and magazines and the Enciclopedia Barsa.

Mrs. Vega believes the results of Phoenix Union's program for the Spanish speaking have been good. Not the least of them is a noticeably emerging pride on the part of Mexican-American students in their cultural heritage.
Suggestions and Conclusions

As the capsule reports in the foregoing section may already have made clear, different schools present different problems, *vis a vis* the native speakers of Spanish, and thus tend to require somewhat different solutions. We earnestly urge administrators and teachers in schools having a sizable Mexican-American enrollment—especially at secondary school level—to examine their problems closely and define their objectives clearly. Does the school have a large concentration of students who have had previous academic training in Spanish-speaking countries (as is the case at the Belmont High School in Los Angeles and in various schools in the Imperial Valley of California)? Or is the school more like those of Colorado, where students generally have had no formal instruction in Spanish and little or no direct contact with Spain, Mexico or any other Latin country? In the first instance, there is little need of instilling in the students a pride in their Latin heritage. Theirs is already a very fierce pride. In the second instance, this affirmative self-concept may be a need no less pressing than that of helping the student toward literacy in both languages. Then, too, the first group is likely to be literate in Spanish. And so the objectives for these native speakers may be somewhat more elevated than for the other group. In the latter case, instruction probably will have to be begun early at the elementary school level.

We saw, in the course of our observations, a need for a more systematic process for selection and placement of native speakers in special Spanish classes in high school. There is need for an evaluation and modification for local use of such materials as those developed at Tenaya Junior High School at Merced, California. These include oral and written examinations to test attitudes, comprehension, fluency and academic achievement in Spanish. With the help of the kind of information thus obtained, a school is enabled to place students in somewhat more homogeneous groups in which their special problems are more likely to be dealt with effectively.
Programs should relate very closely to the needs, interests and abilities of the students for whom they are designed. El Paso, Texas, is a good example. The juxtaposition of El Paso to Juárez produces a vigorous commercial intercourse between the two, which has moved the El Paso Technical High School to offer a course in which typing, shorthand and business letter-writing are taught in Spanish. Pueblo High School in Tucson also offers a unit in commercial correspondence. (NOTE: For models of commercial correspondence write to Mr. Oyama at Pueblo High School, Tucson. For address, see "NOTE" on page 21.)

The Value of Literature

We strongly advocate advanced literature courses specifically designed for native speakers. Brawley Union High School at Brawley, California, offers a course in which literary masterpieces such as *La vida es sueño* are studied. Tucson's Pueblo High provides classes in the literature and theater of Spain and Latin America as well. Tucson's Sunnyside High offers a course in literary history in which the various literary movements, periods and manifestations are studied.

There are many challenging programs that can be offered the native speaker. Here is one suggested course on the tenth or eleventh grade level in which Mexican history and culture would be studied, using as a basis the following plays and literary pieces:

1. *La verdadero historia de la conquista de la Nueva España* by Bernal Díaz del Castillo: A history in which a soldier with Hernán Cortés describes the conquest of Mexico.

2. *La Malinche* by Celestino Gorostiza: A play in which is given a sympathetic perspective of La Malinche, Aztec princess, slave and mistress of Cortés, who was instrumental in Cortés' conquest of Mexico. La Malinche foresees the character of the future Mexico and its inhabitants.


4. *Corona de sombra* by Rodolfo Usigli: One of the most outstanding of contemporary plays. It deals with events which led to the French intervention in Mexico and the establishment of Maximillian and Carlota as Emperor and Empress of Mexico. The author has succeeded in portraying an empress worthy of compassion and pity.

5. *La Navidad en las montañas* by Manuel Altamirano: An idealistic novel which portrays Mexico immediately after the religious conflict which ended in 1861. Several comments are offered concerning the ideal priest.
6. *Los de abajo* by Mariano Azuela: The classical novel of the Mexican Revolution which started in 1910, setting forth some of the causes of that uprising. The war is seen from the point of view of the poor, ignorant Indian peasant.

7. *El gesticulador* by Rodolfo Usigli: A play which illustrates some aspects of the political situation in Mexico since the end of the Revolution.

8. *El color de nuestra piel* by Celestino Gorostiza: A play about discrimination in Mexico, where dark persons are regarded as inferior to persons who are fair. Many phases of the Mexican self-concept are explored.

9. *Los desarraigados* by Humberto Robles: A play which purports to portray the "pocho" in the United States, the "pocho" being that Mexican-American who is trying to lose his ethnic identity and become part of the dominant "Anglo" culture. The play, which deals with a confused family of Mexican origin living in this country, exaggerates the negative characteristics of the "pocho."

This is only one suggested program. Obviously it could be varied in many ways, depending upon the preparation, interests and abilities of the students.

**A Variety of Courses**

Success in advanced courses depends on a logical and coordinated program starting in the elementary school and going through high school. In high school students should be offered alternative courses in Spanish literature, Spanish theater, Spanish-American prose, Spanish-American theater, Mexican literature, Mexican theater, history of Spanish-America, commercial correspondence, typing and shorthand. These courses should be available after completion of the basic courses required of all students.

Students in the advanced Spanish classes should not be limited to discussing literary pieces in an elementary manner based simply on questions and answers about what happened. Rather a system or systems for elementary analysis and criticism must be afforded them from the beginning. A basic system which might be used would discuss such elements as the following:

1. *El título*—en general su función es dar una indicación de lo que tratará la obra. (Específicamente, ¿qué función tiene el título en *El color de nuestra piel*?)

2. *La introducción* presenta a los personajes y la situación. No se limita a nombrar a los personajes sino que muestra ciertas características esenciales de la personalidad de los personajes. También señala dónde y cuando se efectúa la acción, y lo que ha sucedido antes de iniciarse la acción. (¿Quiénes y cómo son los personajes en *El color de nuestra piel*? ¿Dónde está la acción?)
3. *El enredo*—introduce el conflicto o el problema que se les presenta a los personajes en la obra. ¿Qué problema se presenta en *El color de nuestra piel*?

4. *El punto culminante*: Es la parte más emocionante de la obra. Es donde hace crisis la acción. Es el punto decisivo de la obra. Los personajes solucionan el conflicto, o el conflicto los destruye. (¿Cuál es el punto culminante en *El color de nuestra piel*?)

5. *El desenlace* viene casi siempre con el punto culminante o inmediatamente después. Es la solución del conflicto o el punto en la obra en que deja de existir la tensión que la agudez del conflicto ha creado. (¿Dónde se señala el desenlace en *El color de nuestra piel*?)

This is a very simple type of analysis which may be used from the beginning. As students progress, more profound and detailed analyses concerned with stylistic peculiarities should be employed.

Language consultants and/or coordinators at the district and state levels should be available to help organize, establish and coordinate the special programs. Consultants and coordinators would acquaint schools and teachers with materials and teaching techniques most adequate for each level of instruction. All materials should be carefully evaluated to insure that their objectives coincide with those designated for the particular group of native speakers in the Spanish class.
Teacher Selection and Preparation

The success of any educational program rests ultimately on the competency and performance of each individual teacher. Conscientious teachers have long recognized the special problems which the Spanish-speaking children in their Spanish classes are likely to have. Recently many have attempted to adapt existing programs and materials to these special situations. And their efforts have tended to achieve some degree of success in spite of numerous handicaps such as lack of funds for needed materials and at times even the lack of proper support from school administrators.

Too often, however, recognition of the special problems of the native speaker in the Spanish class has not resulted in program adjustment. Schools have been thwarted in their desire to offer a more adequate program because of their inability to secure teachers who measure up to the need. And “measuring up” involves not only professional preparation but the proper cultural and linguistic background.

Concerning qualifications in general for teachers of Spanish-speaking children, Herschel T. Manuel, in his book, Spanish-Speaking Children of the Southwest (University of Texas Press, Austin, Texas) says this: “There are three general areas in which qualifications of teachers should be carefully considered. The first is that of the teacher as a person. The teacher is himself a pattern which will be imitated and which will stimulate one kind of response or another. That is not the whole story. The kind of person a teacher is helps to determine the direction and intensity of his professional service. His ability, his interests, his ideals, and his patterns of actions have an immediate influence upon his work . . . teaching is strongly influenced by the underlying motive of wanting to help people and to make the world a better place in which to live . . . there is need for selection of persons who have the ideals and zeal which are characteristic of great teachers.
"The second area in which the qualifications of teachers should be examined is sometimes called the subject-matter area. Obviously teachers should themselves be well prepared in the knowledge and skills which they are to teach."

"The third area is sometimes called, but somewhat incorrectly, professional preparation. This includes: (1) Knowledge of the nature of children and society, of the educational system of techniques of teaching, and (2) skill in the process of teaching. Actually professional preparation includes attention to the subject to be taught as well as to the person to be taught and the social structure in which the teaching is to be done."

**Bilinguals to Teach Bilinguals**

In the report on the El Paso conference on bilinguals held in November, 1965 (previously referred to in this report), James Burton of El Paso’s Jefferson High School outlined certain qualities desirable for the teachers of Spanish-speaking students. Among them are: "(1) Knowledge and appreciation of the environment in which the student lives, the many aspects of his problems in addition to his linguistic one . . .; and (2) A basic knowledge of linguistics."

In the same report, Charles Olstad of the University of Arizona said: "The teacher of bilinguals should be himself bilingual. Ideally he should handle both English and Spanish with cultured correctness, but he should also be familiar with the local colloquial. He should feel no shame for his own heritage, and no scorns for the Anglo monolingual. If the teacher is not himself bilingual, he must certainly be thoroughly competent in Spanish as a learned language, but neither defensive nor hyper-corrective. Above all, he must be familiar with the local colloquial. He, therefore, can understand what is said to him in the language he professes to teach, and will avoid correcting what may actually be an acceptable substitute for the structure he has learned.

"The teacher of Spanish to the Spanish speaker may be hampered by his own limited knowledge of Spanish; he may not recognize the ‘acceptability’ of locally used forms; he may know only literary Castilian, for example, or Buenos Aires colloquial; he may disallow variants or substitutes; he may not accept certain apparent Anglicisms which are actually legitimate. He may also be hampered by a broader but rigid knowledge; he may have an arbitrary notion of correctness, that of the Academy, for example, which he will impose."

**Needed—Native Speakers**

Selection of and special training for teachers of Spanish for native speakers would recognize and concentrate on such areas.
This Survey has substantiated the validity of the above assertions. It strongly recommends that Spanish teachers for native speakers of Spanish be themselves native speakers of Spanish. As much as is possible, these persons should have a background similar to that of the students whom they are to teach.

Special training for the teacher should include work in anthropology and sociology which will further his knowledge and understanding of the intercultural problems to be encountered. Practical field studies should afford him intimate acquaintance with special neighborhood projects such as the “Head Start” programs now part of the “War on Poverty” and others having particular promise which may be developed.

Thorough training in Spanish for prospective Spanish teachers of native speakers should include the following as minimum required courses:

1. History of the Spanish language
2. Spanish phonetics
3. Advanced Spanish grammar
4. Comparative linguistics
5. Mexican and Southwestern U. S. dialects
6. Literature
   a. Survey of Spanish literature
   b. Contemporary Spanish prose
   c. Contemporary Spanish theater
   d. Survey of Spanish-American literature
   e. Contemporary Spanish-American prose
   f. Mexican literature
   g. Contemporary Spanish-American theater
7. Cultural Studies
   a. Spanish
   b. Spanish-American
   c. Mexican

Requirements for the “third area” (as Dr. Manuel calls it), professional preparation, would be met by a program designated by the college of education. The emphases of this phase of the preparation should be concerned (1) with special curriculum problems and the development of special materials for special students with special problems, (2) educational psychology as related to the abnormal child including effective evaluation and the testing of attitudes, and (3) special teaching methods.

Traditional Methods Are Not Enough

The special methods emphasis of the teacher preparation program should include but not be limited to a survey of traditional
methods of teaching a second language and the mastery of the audio-lingual approach in foreign language teaching. Particularly this phase of preparation should be concerned with defining the special problems confronting the native speaker in the Spanish class and suggesting techniques and materials to be used in these classes. Teaching reading and children's literature should be an extremely important element in the methods course. A course per se in "Spanish literature for children" would be a valuable contribution to these teachers' preparation.

Prospective teachers of native Spanish-speakers should be required to include, as part of their apprentice teaching program, the teaching of regular Spanish classes for "Anglos" as well as teaching Spanish classes for native speakers.

Colleges and universities should be prepared to train prospective teachers of Spanish for these special programs. To train these teachers more effectively, exchange programs with Mexico should be instituted or expanded. Such an exchange program has been instituted by the University of Arizona. At that institution selected students in their final semester of studies are placed with Mexican families in Hermosillo, Sonora, to teach English as a second language in Hermosillo's public schools. This program serves as partial fulfillment of the apprentice-teaching requirements. Many more special NDEA-type institutes for those who teach Spanish-speaking students such as that conducted at the University of Arizona during the summer of 1965 should be offered. These institutes should be regional in character and should deal only with problems that affect teachers in their respective regions. Even more profit would result from institutes held in foreign countries, particularly in Mexico.

While such a preparation program would yield a supply of competent beginning teachers, the needs of teachers already in the field will probably need to be met by providing special in-service training programs and workshops in accessible centers. Much needs to be done in this area and major responsibility will probably need to be accepted by school systems working cooperatively with state departments of education, colleges and universities, and other organizations and groups interested in working with such programs.
Opportunities for Teacher Education

Various scholarships are available to Spanish-speaking students. We append a partial list hereinbelow in the hope that teachers and administrators will make these opportunities known to promising students interested in careers as teachers of Spanish to the Spanish-speaking. By this means the schools of the Southwest may begin to build a corps of teachers specially equipped by background and training to meet the needs of thousands of Mexican-American children.

We call attention to the fact that scholarships and loans are provided under several federal education programs. Among them are the National Defense Education Act and the Higher Education Act of 1965. It should be noted that scholarships offered under the Higher Education Act are based on financial need and not restricted to any top percentum of a graduating class. This is relevant because Mexican-American students, beset as they are with cultural, linguistic and very possibly economic handicaps, may not often be found among that elite group. The language of the Higher Education Act, in those portions dealing with scholarships, speak only of students of "ability," and this is as it should be. The important thing at this point is the motivation of native speakers of Spanish so they will take advantage of the opportunities available.

We call attention also to the fact Congress recently extended the G.I. Bill of Rights to cover those who have served in the armed forces since January 31, 1955, except the six-months' enlistees. By thus making the G.I. Bill retroactive to the date when the old G.I. Bill expired, Congress has opened the door of opportunity to thousands of young people, including, hopefully, Mexican Americans interested in teaching careers. And, again, there are no prohibitive academic restrictions.

Scholarships available to Spanish-speaking students at particular colleges and universities include the following:
UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA
Tucson

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY
Tempe

Vesta Club Scholarships: Four-year $1,000 scholarships awarded annually to Spanish-speaking high school graduates of Arizona. Payable at the rate of $125 per semester. Character, financial need, scholastic ability and promise of future success are considered.

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY
Tempe

Los Conquistadores Scholarship: A $200 scholarship payable at the rate of $50 per semester for four semesters. Awarded to a worthy Spanish-speaking student of Arizona on the basis of need, scholarship, character and promise of future success.

BARNARD COLLEGE
Columbia University
New York, N. Y.

Irving Berlin Scholarship: Annually to one or more girls of foreign-born parentage.
Amelia Agostini del Rio Scholarship: To student from Puerto Rico meeting academic requirements of Barnard and having need of assistance; if no eligible applicant from Puerto Rico, scholarship may be awarded to deserving student majoring in Spanish.

UNIVERSITY OF CHATTANOOGA
Chattanooga, Tennessee

Two scholarships (maintenance and tuition) available to French- or Spanish-speaking students for study in liberal arts, science, or commerce, in return for teaching service in undergraduate conversation classes.

CONGREGATIONAL CHRISTIAN CHURCHES
New York, N. Y.

Scholarships ($150-$730 each) to young people of Spanish-speaking background; on non-sectarian basis; usable at college of choice; four to Spanish-speaking men, two to Spanish-speaking women.
MIAMI UNIVERSITY  
Oxford, Ohio

Among other awards, three assistantships ($500 plus maintenance and tuition) for one academic year, in return for services in language department. Open to French- and Spanish-speaking students, for study in various fields.

ST. LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY  
Canton, N. Y.

Two scholarships ($350 each plus maintenance, tuition and books) for French- and Spanish-speaking women students in return for language-teaching services.

SOUTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY  
Carbondale, Illinois

Six assistantships ($110 per month plus tuition) open to French-German- and Spanish-speaking students to help in language conversation classes. Preferred age about 25.

URSULINE COLLEGE OF PAOLA  
Paola, Kansas

One $500 scholarship for a Spanish-speaking woman.

WESTERN COLLEGE FOR WOMEN  
Oxford, Ohio

Assistantships with a $1,300 stipend available to French- German- and Spanish-speaking students interested in language-teaching services to be performed in return for award.

AMERICAN MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION SCHOLARSHIPS  
New York, N. Y.

Scholarships available to Mexican-American and American Indian students. Awarded on the basis of character and financial need.
Appendix

Those responsible for the conduct of any study that is dependent on the involvement and participation of others quickly learn to appreciate the value of cooperation. Listed below are the individual schools and school systems visited by members of the Survey team during the course of this project. The list falls short of identifying by name the hundreds of teachers, administrators and students who were as willing to share their ideas, concerns and enthusiasm as they were to extend hospitality to those who were their guests. But each could be assured that we salute their pioneering efforts in developing a program for teaching Spanish to the Spanish-speaking children enrolled in their schools and extend our sincere thanks for their interest in and cooperation with our study.

ARIZONA
- Douglas: Douglas High School District No. 50
  - Douglas High School
- Phoenix: Phoenix Union High School District No. 23
  - Phoenix Union High School
  - South Mountain High School
- Sahuarita: Sahuarita Districts No. 30 and No. 55
  - Sahuarita Elementary and High School

CALIFORNIA
- Brawley: Brawley Union High School District
  - Brawley Union High School
- Calexico: Calexico Elementary School District
  - De Anza Intermediate School
- El Centro: Central Union High School District
  - Central High School
- Fresno: Fresno City Unified School District
  - Edison High School
- Imperial: Imperial Unified School District
  - Frank M. Wright Elementary School
Los Angeles: Los Angeles City Unified School District
Belmont Senior High School
Lincoln Senior High School
Nitingale Junior High School
Roosevelt Senior High School
Wilson Senior High School

Merced: Merced City Elementary School District
Migrant Elementary School
Tenaya Intermediate School

San Diego: San Diego City Unified School District
Lowell Elementary School

COLORADO

Denver: Denver City School District No. 1
Baker Junior High School
West High School

Pueblo: Pueblo City School District No. 60
Central High School
James H. Risley Junior High School
Minnequa Elementary School

NEW MEXICO

Albuquerque: Albuquerque Public Schools
Albuquerque High School
Rio Grande High School

Pecos: Pecos Public Schools
Pecos Elementary School
TEXAS

Brownsville: Brownsville Independent School District
  Brownsville High School

Edinburg: Edinburg Independent School District
  Edinburg High School

  Bowie High School
  Jefferson High School
  Zavala Elementary School

Laredo: United Consolidated School District
  Nye Elementary School

Pharr: Pharr-San Juan-Alamo Independent School District
  Jefferson Junior High School

San Antonio: San Antonio Independent School District
  Highlands High School
  Mann Junior High School
  Rhodes Junior High School