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ABSTRACT

Utilizing census data primarily accumulated prior to the 1980 Census, the report provides a demographic profile of Hispanics in the United States. The 10 chapters examine and report findings in 4 key policy areas: education, employment, health; and housing. Information covers such topics as regional distribution of Hispanics; age; income; educational access and achievement; private and public elementary and high school enrollment; students geographic location; postsecondary education enrollment; language characteristics; the language barrier; the Bilingual Education Act; evaluation of Title VII (Elementary and Secondary Education Act); state efforts to improve educational access; state appropriations; the National Assessment of Educational Progress Study; American Institutes for Research (AIR) report; the Children's English and Services Study; Hispanic participation in the U.S. labor market; changes in the Hispanic labor force; relative unemployment; employment; occupational distribution; historical employment trends; employment problems (education, duration of and reasons for unemployment); access to and utilization of the health care system, and Hispanic housing (physical adequacy, affordability, tenure, location, displacement, and discrimination). Forty-one key court decisions in the four policy areas are reviewed, e.g., Lau v. Nichols, University of California Regents v. Bakke, Gomez v. Pima County, Espinoza v. Farah Manufacturing Co., Guerra v. Bexar County Hospital District, and Village of Arlington Heights v. Metropolitan Housing Department Corp. (NQA)

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98th Congress 1st Session

COMMITTEE PRINT

Committee Print 98-7

THE HISPANIC POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES: AN OVERVIEW

A REPORT

PREPARED BY THE.

CONGRESSIONAL RESEARCH SERVICE

FOR THE

SUBCOMMITTEE ON CENSUS AND POPULATION

OF THE

COMMITTEE ON POST OFFICE AND CIVIL SERVICE U.S. HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES



APRIL 21, 1983



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Post Office and Civil Service, Subcommittee on Census and Population, Washington, D.C., April 21, 1983.

Hon. WILLIAM D. FORD, Chairman, House Committee on Post Office and Civil Service Washington, D.C.

DEAR MR. CHAIRMAN: I am herewith transmitting a report prepared for the Subcommittee on Census and Population by the Con-

gressional Research Service regarding Hispanic population.

I requested this study because of the need for a comprehensive source of information about the Hispanic population. I believe this report goes a long way toward filling the information gap on the Hispanic population and accordingly, I request that this report be printed as a committee print.

Sincerely,

ROBERT GARCIA, Chairman.

Enclosures.

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LETTER OF REQUEST

CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES,
HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
Washington, D.C., February 4, 1983.

Mr. GILBERT GUDE,
Director, Congressional Research Service,
Library of Congress,
Washington, D.C.

DEAR GIL: The subcommittee is requesting that the Service prepare a report that provides an overview of the Hispanic population in the United States. As you undoubtedly know, Hispanics are a diverse part of our population, and of growing importance. Many share a common language other than English. According to the 1980 Census there are 14.6 million Hispanics in the United States, making them the second largest minority group in America. In addition, they are the fastest growing population component. Although some reports have been written about this population, information is limited.

The report should utilize census data to provide a demographic profile of Hispanics, including who they are and where they are located. In addition, it should examine and report findings in four key policy areas: education, employment, health and housing. A review of key court decisions in these policy areas would be help-

ful.

I very much appreciate your assistance on this request. Once completed and printed, it will be a useful resource document in the years ahead.

With kind regards, I am Sincerely,

ROBERT GARCIA, Member of Congress.

(V1)



FOREWORD

The Subcommittee on Census and Population believes there is a very real need to establish a statistical and demographic profile of the Hispanic population. Because of limited data and published studies, the Library of Congress was requested to initiate research in the areas of health, education, employment, and housing for the Hispanic community. Their analysis and findings contained in this report will be available to researchers and students throughout the country.

Under the expert guidance of P. othy J. Baily, CRS analyst in American National Government, this study developed into a complete volume of information about the Hispanic community which will serve as a beginning for further research in this area. The subcommittee would also like to compliment Frederick Pauls, Director of the Government Division, for his full support of this project. In addition, a word of thanks to the research staff of the Congression-

al Research Service who prepared these reports.

Finally, the subcommittee would like to thank the Legislative Director of the Congressional Hispanic Caucus, Susan Herrera, for

her work in making this report possible.

All minorities who serve in Congress have a special obligation, for not only do they represent their own constituencies, but they also serve those who are underrepresented in Congress. Although Hispanics are 16 million strong, and there are 100 Congressional Districts with Hispanic populations of more than 15 percent, there are only 11 elected Representatives in the House of Representatives of Hispanic heritage and no representative in the Senate.

It is the desire of this subcommittee that this report will assist the public in analyzing issues confronting the Hispanic community.

(VII)



PREFACE

While this report ¹ contains some data from the 1980 Census, it is based for the most part on data accumulated prior to then. It will be several years before all of the data from the 1980 Census will be published and can be assimilated.

(VIII)



¹ Secretarial production assistance was provided by Daphine A. Lee.

CHAPTER I

SUMMARY OF REPORT FINDINGS by Dorothy J. Bailey and Frederick H. Pauls Government Division

The 1980 Census figures show an Hispsnic population of 14.6 million, an increase of almost 5.6 million from the 1970 Census (see U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. Supplementary Report. Persons of Spanish Origin by State: 1980 (PC80-51-7. August 1982. 17p.). Despite special efforts by the Bureau of the Census to improve the accuracy of the count for Hispanics, it is entirely possible that the 14.6 million figure does not fully reflect the number of Hispanic origin persons, in the United States.

In addition to, or perhaps because of, being America's largest language minority, some people, including Hispanic spokespersons, are concerned that Hispanics, particularly Spanish-speaking ones, may be accially and economically disadvantaged or deprived. This report does not attempt to resolve this issue. Rather, it draws together existing information and data on Hispanics in education, employment, health care, and housing. Chapters on relevant case law in each area are also provided.

Conclusions are difficult to draw from available data. In too many instances data are incomplete or dated. Nevertheless, they tend to support the proposition that living situations faced by large numbers of our Hispanic population are significantly affected by language, cultural, evan racial barriers. It is also clear that the impact of these barriers is differentially felt within Hispanic subpopulations, with Cubans faring far better than many Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, and Hispanica from other Central and South American countries.





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DATA FINDINGS

Comprehensive end complete date on the U.S. Hispanic population are not available. Frequently Hispanic data are incorporated under the category of "whites." Moreover, available date do not systematically differentiate between aubpopulations of Hispanics, i.e., Cubans, Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, and other South and Central-Americans. Most published data focus on two Hispanic subpopulations: Mexican-Americans and Puerto Ricans who are concentrated in two areas of the United States: the Southwest (Mexicun-Americans) and the Northeast (Puerto Ricans). The amount, currency, and quelity of available date vary from one major policy area to the next.

In an effort to remedy the lack of comprehensive deta on the U.S. Hispanic population the Congress passed P.L. 94-311 (H.J. Res. 92) introduced by Congressman Edward R. Roybal (CA), which was signed into law by the President Carter on June 16, 1976. This law requires designated Federal agencies to collect, analyze, and publish health, social, and aconomic data relating to Americans of Spanish origin 1/ descent.

Since the passage of P.L. 94-311, the required Federal egencies have taken at the state of the collect and publish date on Mispanica, but the task is a continuous one. For example, the U.S. Bureau of the Cansua (Department of Commerce) in its Current Population Reports, Saries P-20, No. 354, Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States: Merch 1979 show considerable variation among Mispanic authopopulations within the demographic categories of age, income, residence, sex, occupation, marital status, and years of education completed. As to illegal eliens, 2/ GAO has released a report on this segment of the Mispanic population.



Hamy definitions have been used by the Cenaus to identify Spanish-Americans. This report uses "Hispanic" and "Spanish origin" inter-changeably. Other Bureau of the Census categorise have been Spanish-spasking, Spanish-aurname, and Spanish Heritags. For 1980, the Cansus Bureau used Spanish/Hispanic origin to identify Spanish-Americans.

^{2/} This thorny issue is not treated in this report although it is one of great magnitude end one that impinges on and aggravates those issues that are discussed. The GAO report is entitled, "Illegal Aliens: Estimating Their lupset on the United States" (PAD-80-22) March 1980.

Education data on Hispanics are mora plentiful than in other issue areas. In part this may result from attention that has been given to bilingual education. The U.S. Department of Education has racently released a report entitled, The Condition of Education for Hispanic Americans. This report provides a national profite of both the problems and educational attainment of Hispanic atudents.

Employment data on Hispanics are available from the Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS); consistent data on Hispanic unemployment were not collected until 1973. Presently, BLS provides comprehensiva data on Hispanics unemployment, and it is published monthly in the Employment Situation Press Release according to Harvel Hamel, economist, BLS.

Some preliminary reports have been issued about health date on Hispanics, but final reports have not yet been completed. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Center for Health Statistics, sponsored a Hispanic Health Services Research Conference in Albuquerque, New Mexico, September 5-7, 1979, in which the Director, Dorothy Rice, acknowledged the lack of data on the Hispanic population.

In her introductory presentation, she stated:

We recognize that there is a lack of basic health information on this important population group. We face lots of problems but we have some solutions.

We have identified several gaps in health information on the Hispanic population group, and they are aerious. I would just like to emphasize a few of those gaps. First, there are no basic mortality data to measure the health status of this group. Infant death, life expectancy, and causes of death for Hispanica have not been available in the national vital statistics data from NCHS. Secondly, data on morbidity among Rispanics are very sketchy. Our morbidity data are derived from population samples that frequently ara too small for descriptions and analysis of the health status of the Rispanic population. Thirdly, there are little data on health care utilization and health care finances. We actually know so little about the Hispanic use of medical services, of hospitalization, dental care, or about their health insurance coverage and expenditures for medical care. 3/

A similiar situation has existed with housing data on Hispanics.

Some data on Hispanic housing are collected through the Annual Housing Surveys, conducted by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development



1 :

^{3/} National Center for Health Services Research. Hispanic Health Services Research. 1980. p. 9.

(HUD). (RUD) has also issued a pamphlet on the Rispanic population, How Well

Are We Housed?, which summarizes the housing conditions of Rispanics. In

addition, MUD has prepared a study entitled, Discrimination Against Chicanos
in the Dallas Rental Housing Harket. It shows that discriminatory behavior had
been exhibited against Chicanos in the housing rental market. The National

Hispanic Housing Coalition, a newly formed organization, is in the process of
analyzing the housing conditions of Rispanics nationwide. However, they have
experienced data availability problems in their assessments of Hispanic housing
needs. They have prepared a paper in which they "identify issues and problems
related to Hispanic housing and community development." 4/

What follows are summary highlights from the chapters in this report in which basic facts and findings are set forth.

EDUCATION

- Hispsnic students tend to lag behind the majority population in education.
- 2. In 1976, approximately 3 million Hispanic students were enrolled in elementary and secondary schools, representing approximately 6 percent of the public school enrollment. Of these students enrolled in elementary and secondary schools—Hexican-Americans and Fuerto Ricans represented the largest percentage of the Hispanic subpopulations. Minety percent of these students were enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools located in nine atates.
- Two major problems have been identified in educating Hispanics., They are access and achievement. These problems are viewed as interrelated.
- 4. The language barrier has been identified as a contributing factor in access to equal educational opportunity and instruction for Hispanic students. Hispanics are 80 percent of an estimated 3.5 million elementary and sacondary school students who speak little or no English.
- 5. There are several schools of thought in how to appropriately educate Hispanic students. Some educators view "bilingual education" as the approach; other educators view English as a second language; and some view intensive English-only instruction as an effective approach.
- Legislation, title VI of the Civil Rights Act and the <u>Lau</u> v. <u>Nichols</u> Supreme Court decision, all guarantee the right to an appropriate education for limited English proficient students.

^{4/} The National Hispanic Housing Community Development Policy. 1980. 36 p.

- Several studies have attempted to measure achievement levels of Hispanic students with limited-English proficiency.
- Two epecific factors affecting low educational attainment of Hispanic students, other than the non-language factor, are family income and parental education.
- 9. In the <u>Lau v. Nichols</u> case, in San Francisco, non-English speaking students (Chiness) brought a class action claiming that they were denied equal aducational opportunity by the school administration's failure to provide adequate language instruction. On January 21, 1974, the Supreme Court reversed earlier decisions by the district and circuit courts and remanded the case for relief under title VI of the Civil Rights Act.
- 10. Lau set a precedent for educational programs to meet the special needs of non-English proficient children.
- Since the <u>Luu</u> dscision, several lower Faderal courts have eought to apply the Supreme Court ruling in <u>Luu</u> under both title VI and the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment to the Constitution.

EMPLOYMENT

- Writtsn information is scarce on labor force participation by Mispanics, although one out of every eighteen parsons employed in 1981 was of Hispanic origin.
- Hispanics participate in the labor force at a rate similiar to that of all workers. However, significant differences are noted when data are broken down by various age-sex groups. Additional differences are apparent when these data are categorized by Hispanic aubpopulations.
- From 1973 to 1981 there was a substantial increase in labor force participation of adult Hispanic women due to an increase in the female Hispanic working age population because of ongoing migration.
- From 1973 to 1981, Hispanics have accounted for a numerically disproportionate share of U.S. unemployment.
- Although Hi Sanics improved their occupational standing in the U.S. labor market from 1973 to 1961, they are still concentrated in occupations that are characterized by low pay and low skill requirements, much more than the overall workforce.
- A major employment problem of Hispanic workers sesmed to be connected with their low educational attainment.
- Hispanic teenagers were unemployed, in 1981, primsrily because they we a unsuccessful as new sutrants and re-antrants into the labor market.
- Titls VII cssss based on national origin have been categorised under a variety of names ie., Mexican-Americans, Puerto Rican, Spanish-surnamed persons, and others. These cases have been included together with racial minority plaintiffs.
- 9. Minimum height and to a lesser dagrae minimum weight standards tend to exclude a disproportionate number of Mexican-Americans and other Hispenica from some forms of employment. The minumum height standard has been connected mostly with police and firefighters' requirements. The leading case striking down a height requirement as discriminatory against Mexican-Americans is Davis v. County of Loe Angelee.



HEALTH

- Comprehensive, istionwide health data on Hispanics do not yet exist. Data for some localities and States, however, do exist.
- While existing data suggest that health problems and health care differ to some degree between Hispanica and "other whites," Hispanics tend to have health-problem incidence and health-care practices similar to, sometimes better than, those of "other whites." One study shows that perception of health and age/sex, rather than ethnicity are more important in predicting one's health atatus.
- 3. A study 5/ of Mexican-Americans in South Texas indicates that they die more often from infections, psrasitic diseases, accidents, and homicides than do whitea. Puerto Ricans in New York City have higher mortelity rates than other New York City residents from cirrhosis and accidents and, for those 44 and under, from drug dependency and homicides."
- Hispanic use of doctors and medical fscilities approximates that of whites except for dentiats, where their rate often is much lower.
- There is a paucity of case law or Federal regulatory decisions regarding discrimination sgainst Hispanics in access to or provision of health care.
- 5/ See Chapter 7/.

HOUSING

- Hispanics are an urbanized population; 84 percent live standard metropolitsn areas (SMSA'S) as compared to 68 percent of the general population.
- Hispanics are more likely to be renters, more likely to live in inferior quality structures, and more likely to live in overcrowded conditions.
- There are noticeable differences in housing characteristica among the Hiapanic subpopulations. Cubans are the best housed and Puerto Ricans are the worst housed while the housing conditions for Mexican-American fall between.
- Home-ownership among the Hispanic population is low compared to the total population.
- Hispanics, as certain other minority groups, are faced with displacement and discrimination in the housing market.



CHAPTER 2

STATUS OF THE HISPANIC POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES
by
Dorothy J. Bailey
Government Division

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Within in the last decade there has been an increase of the U.S.

Hispanic population. "Hispanic" is an umbrella term used to encompass the subpopulations that include Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, South and Central Americans and other Spanish origin persons. This upsurge has led to speculation that Hispanics may be the Nation's largest minority group by the end of this century, outnumbering blacks. Contributing to this speculation is the high birth rate of Hispanics in proportion to blacks and the steadily increasing immigration rate for Hispanics. 1/

The 1980 Census shows that there are 14.6 million persons of Spanish origin in the U.S. 2/ This is 6.4 percent of the total population; this estimate does not include the mora than 3 million residents of Puerto Ricc. Of these 14.6 million persons, 8.7 million are of Mexican origin, 2.0 million are of Puerto Rican origin, 803,000 are of Cuban origin, and 3.1 million are of other Spanish origin (see table 1). Some Hispanics remain uncounted because an unknown percentage of this population falls into a group termed "undocumented" or "illegal." 3/ Numerous problems have been associated with estimating the

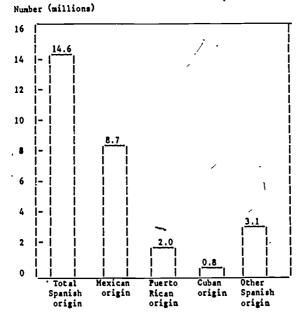
 $[\]frac{1}{2}$ Time, "It's your turn in the sun," October 16, 1978. v. 112 no. 16. p. 48.

^{2/} U.S. Department of Commerce Eureau of the Census. Supplementary Report. Persona of Spanish Origin by State: 1980. August 1982. PC80-S1-7.

^{3/} It's Your Turn in the Sun. Time. October 16, 1978. p. 48.

actual number of "illegal residents" 4/ within the Unite States; however, a cautious estimate of the number of illegal residents in 1978 is below 6 million. 5/ Depending on how many were included in the 1980 Census, the total number of Hispanics is somewhere between 15 and 21 million.

TABLE 1. Number of Persons of Spanish Origin, by Type of Spanish Origin: August 1982.



Hispanics are a multi-racial and multi-cultural population; racially, thay are white, black, Indian, and a mixture of these races. "They may be European Spanish, a Carribean mixture of Spanish and black, or a Spanish Indian



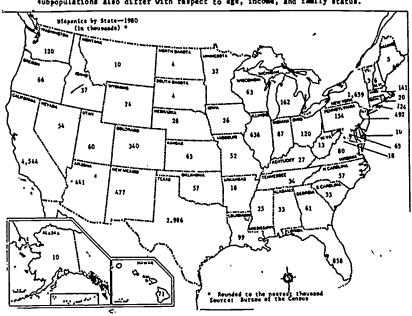
^{4/} The term "illegal rasidant is used here to denote persons who would be considered residents of the United States for purposes of Census enumeration but who are deportable because they violate the statutes regarding entry to the United States or because they violate the term of their admission after being admitted legally. The term encompasses, therefore, those who "entered without inspection," "vise abusers" or "overstayers," and "fraudulent entrants." These groups as a whole have been described variously by the terms "illegal alians," "illegal migrants," "undocumented workers," "deportable aliens," etc.

⁵⁾ U.S. Congress. Senate. Committee on Governmental Affeirs.
Subcommittae on Energy, Nuclear Proliferation and Federal Services. 1980
Census: Counting Illagal Aliens. Hearinge 96th Congress 2nd session, on S. 2366. Washington, U.S. Govt. Frint. Off., 1980. p. 256.

mestiro". 6/ Culturally .y are united by language and religion; many
Rispanics practice Roman Catholicism. 7/ Although Rispanics share many
commonalities as a population, they also exhibit differences as subpopulations.

Regional Distribution

While Rispanics live primarily in 11 States throughout the United States, the majority of the 8.8 million Spanish origin persons, predominately Mexican-Americans [7.2 million], are concentrated in the five Southwestern States of Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas. In 1980, 4.5 million Spanish-origin persons were located in California alone. The second largast concentration of Spanish-origin persons (3.0 million) is in Texas. There are 1.7 million Spanish-origin persons (primarily [60 percent] Puerdo Ricans) living in New York State, while the 803,000 Cuban persons are concentrated (59 percent) in the State of Florida. Central and South Americans and othe: Spanish origin individuals are spread throughout the United States 8/ (see map below for 1980 distribution). Not only are differences avident in regional distribution, these subpopulations also differ with respect to age, income, and family status.



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Age

According to the Cenaua Bureau report, the Hiapanic population tends to be a young population compared to the non-Spanish population. The Bureau reported that about 1 of every 8 paraons of Spanish origin is under 5 years old as compared to about 1 of every 14 non-Spanish persons. In 1979 the median age for the total population was 30 , rs compared to 22 years for the Spanish-origin population. Puerto Ricans were the youngest, with a median age of 20 years, followed by Mexican-Americans, with a median age of 21 years. Next were Other Spanish with a median age of 24 years. Central and South Americans were second to the oldest sub-population, with a median age of 26 years, and Cubans were the oldest with a median age of 36 years. 9/

Income

In 1978 the median income of Spanish-origin families was \$12,600 a year, figure below the national average of \$17,900 for families of non-Spanish origin. Fourteen percent of Spanish-origin families had incomes of \$25,000 or more per year as compared to 29 percent of non-Spanish families in that category. 10/

The Hispanic subpopulations differ in median family income levels. Among the subpopulations in 1978, Puerto Ricans had the lowest median family income, \$8,300, Mexican families had a median income of \$12,800; Cuban families had the highest median family income of \$15,300, the Central and South American families had a median income of \$12,300. 11/

The Censua Bureau reported that in 1978 huaband-wife Spanish-origin families had higher median incomes (\$14,000) than Spanish-origin families maintained by women (present \$5,600). Only 9 percent of Spanish-origin families maintained by women had a median income of \$16,000 or more as compared to 45 percent of Spanish-origin husband-wife families.

- 6/ Hiapanic Americans-A Profile. GAO Review/Summer 1980. p. 49.
- 7/ It's Your Turn in the Sun. Time. October 16, 1978. p. 48.
- U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Cenaua. Supplementary Report. Persona of Spaniah Origin by State: 1980. August 1982, PC80-S1-7.
 - 9/ Ibid. p. 1-3.
 - 10/ Ibid. p. 14-15.
 - 11/ Ibid.



In 1978, 20 percent of all Spanish-origin families in the Nation, ar 559,000 Spanish-origin families, were living below the poverty level. Fifty-three purcent of the Spanish-origin families below the poverty level were headed by Spanish-origin females. This percentage is significantly high when compared to 12 percent of Spanish-origin husband-wife families below the poverty level. 12/

In 1979, approximately 2.7 million Spanish-wrigin families were in the United States. About 2.1 million were husband-wife families, and 540,000 families, or 1 out of 5, were headed by Spanish-origin women with no husband in the household. 13/

According to the Census Bureau, the percentage of Spanish-origin women who maintained households varied within each subpopulation. For example, in 1979, approximately 40 percent of all Puerto Rican families were maintained by women compared to 15 percent of Hexican families, and 17 percent of Other Spanish-origin families.

Spanish-origin families are alightly larger on the average than non-Spanish families. The average number of persons in a family maintained by a person of Spanish origin was 4 in contrast to 3 persons for non-Spanish families. Fifty-two percent of all Spanish-origin families in the United States had four or more persons. 14/

Differences are evident in average family size by subpopulation. For example, Hexican-origin families on the average are the largest with 4.07 persons per family; Puerto Rican families are the second largest with 3.67; Other Spanish-origin families, smallest with 3.37 per family; and Cuban families are the second smallest with 3.58. 15/

Spanish-origin families are more concentrated in metropolitan areas of the United States than non-Spanish families. . In 1979, approximately 85 percent of Spanish-origin families lived in cities as compared to 66 percent of other fruilies in the U.S. 16/

According to the Canaus Bureau, 96 percent of Puerto Rican-origin families were metropolitan dwellers in 1979 as compared to 80 percent of Mexican

families.

14/ Ibid. p. 12.

12/ Ibid. p. 16.

15/ Ibid.

13/ Ibid. p. 12.

16/ Ibid.



EDUCATION OF MISPANICS: ACCESS AND ACRIEVEMENT by Sussn W. Boren .* Education and Public Welfere Division

According to the 1980 Census there are 14.6 million Mispanics in the United States. 1/ Compared to the majority of the population, Mispanics are, on the whole, younger, lower paid, more urban, and concentrated in only a few States. The Mispanic population in the United States is growing approximately six times faster than the majority of the population. Between 1970 and 1986, the total U.S. population increased 11 percent, whereas the Mispanic population increased 61 percent.

Hispanics tend to lag behind the majority of the population not only in employment and income, but also in education. As their relative proportion of the population graws, it is probable that concern about the problems of Hispanics and their educational etatus will increase.

This section discusses briefly various aspects of education for Mispanics; gives a statistical profile of the Mispanic student population in elementary, secondary, and postsecondary education; and looks into two problems in educating Mispanics: access and achievement. The two problems ere interrelated. Some educators assert that because access to equal educational opportunity has not been fully realized, it follows that achievement is lower than the norm.

STATISTICAL PROFILE OF THE HISPANIC STUDENT POPULATION

Elementary and Secondary Education

School Enrollment -- According to the Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Survey, conducted by the U.S. Department of Education's Office for Civil

^{1/} U.S. Bureau of Centus, PCSO-SI-1. 1980 Census of Population: Age, Sex, Race, and Spanish origin of the Population by Regions, Divisions, and States: 1980.





Rights (OCR) in 1976, approximately 2.9 million Hispanics were enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools, representing approximately 6 percent of the public school enrollment. The 1980 Census updates the Civil Rights Survey in the following table:

TABLE 1. Private and Public Elementary and Secondary School Enrollment by Race and Spanish Origin: 1976 to 1979

ř		Elementary and Secondary Schools (Nos. in thousands)			
	-	Total enrollad	Public	Privata number	Percent
1979	All races	42,981	38,750	4,231	9.8%
	Spanish origin	2,854	2,620	234	8.2
1978	All races	43,965	39,483	4,482	10.2
	Spanish origin	2,761	2,529	231	8.4
1977	All races Spanish origin	44,987 2,802	40,488 2,490	4,499 312	10.0 ·
1976	All races	45,516	41,239	4,276	9.4
	Spanish origin	2,866	2,635	230	8.0

Source: Private School Enrollment, Tuition, and Enrollment Trends: Oct. 1979. Bureau of the Census, Sept. 1982. Table 1, p. 15.

Private and Public Elementary and High School Enrollment

A recent report by Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), entitled the Condition of Education for Hispanic Americans (1980), indicates that of the total eligible Hispanic population 56.7 percent were enrolled in school as compared to 64.6 percent of the non-minority student population.

In proportion to the overall Hispanic population participating in elementary and secondary education, Puerto Ricans represent 15 percent, Cubana and South Americans represent 5 percent, but the largest block is Maxican-American, 63 percent. (See the following table.)



TABLE 2. Percentage and Distribution of All Hispanic-Elementary and Secondary Students by Subgroup

Total Misp	anica* 3,025,000	100%	
Hexican Am Puerto Ric Cubana	ericans 1,901,000 ans 446,000 164,000	63 15 5	
Central en American Other Hisp	d South 166,000	. 5	

*Total number of Hispanics here includes students in both public and private elementary and secondary achools.

Source: Buresu of the Census. Survey of Income and Education. Spring, 1976.

(Note: This is the most recent table of its kind. The 1980 Census does not have this distribution currently in tabular form.)

Geographic Location of Hispanic Students

Approximetely 90 percent of the Hispanic children enrolled in public elementary end secondary schools are located in 9 States--California, Taxas, New York, New Hexico, Illinois, Arizons, Floride, New Jersey, and Colorade, in that order--and 3 of these States--California, Taxas and New York--have the majority of the Hispanic student population.

STATISTICAL PROFILE OF THE POSTSECONDARY HISPANIC STUDENT POPULATION

Postsece dary Education Enrollment

As in elementary and secondary education, Hispanice differed from the majority of the U.S. population in their rate of participation in postsecondary education and in their level of educational achievement.

According to National Center for Education Statistics (NCZS), the trend in total college enrollment shows increases from 10.2 million in 1974, to 12 million students in 1980. It is true that in the decade of the 1970s Hispanics increased their participation in higher education but their participation rates are still below those of other population groups in undergreduate, graduate and professional programs. In postsecondery education



Hispanica-werr enrolled-primarily in-2-year collegea-and-adult basic-and secondary education, and largely under-enrolled in 4-year undergraduate education, graduate, and first professional degree programs. Of all undergraduates, Hispanics represent only 4 percent of the total enrollment as compared to their 5.6 percent share of the Nation's total population. Not only are Hispanic college enrollment rates relatively low, their representation among degree recipients is even lower, as they earned 2 percent or less of the bachelor and graduate degrees awarded in 1976-77, according to NCES.

TABLE 3. Total Enrollment $\underline{1}/$ in Institutions of Higher Education, by Racial/Ethnic Category and by Type and Control of Institution: United States, Fall 1980

	1	Racial/ethnic category					\Box
Type and control to institution	You! erreament	Amen- can Indian/ Ales- kan Native	Asian or Pacific Island- or	Black, non- Hispanic	He- panc	Whee, non- Hispenic	Nenres- ident shen
	2	,	14	5	•	7	·
As Institutions	12.047.425	85,798	288.494	1.106.445	471,686	8,831,493	305,795
Orner 4 year institutions	2,802 014 4,644,204 4,521,807	14,157 24,647 48 994	88,280 93;779 124,348	156 955 477,039 472,451	81,582 155,020 255,084	2,482,556 3,780,487 3 556 470	118,484 123,252 84,058
Public institutions	9 456 423	74.224	239.710	8785/3	406,150	7,856 094	204,175
Unversions Other 4-year institutions 2-year institutions	2,154,283 2,973,356 4,328,782	10,121 18,921 45,182	46.782 66 393 122 535		41,220 115,174 749,756	1,866,896 2,376,121 3 413 077	76,731 67,105 60,339
Private institutions	2,831,202	11.574	48 884	230 375	83,536	2,175,390	.101,620
Universities. Other Ayear institutions. 2 year institutions.	747,731 1,880 646 192 625	4,036 5,726 1,812	19,498 25,396 1,814	48 422 149,395 34,556	20,362 39 846 5,328	615,660 1,414,346 145,383	*41,753 56,147 3,720

Excludes these students where /acal/ethnic calegory was not reported

SCURCE, U.S. Department of Education, Network Content or Education Statestics unauthorist data start the survey of Fall Engineers in Higher Education

Language Characteristics

According to NCES, the Hispanic population retains its native language to a greater degree than other ethnic minorities. Approximately 85 percent of the Hispanics live in households in which Spanish is spoken as the usual household language. Of the total 1976 school age population (ages 4 to 25), 12.8 percent were from households where a language other than English was either the usual or second language.

PROBLEMS IN THE EDUCATION OF HISPANICS

Access

Some educators assert that access to equal educational opportunity and appropriate instruction is a central problem when discussing education for



Minpanica. Part of the problem of access results-from-the-language=barrier. It is estimated that approximately 3.5 million elementary and accordary school students have limited English proficiency, and 50 percent of these ere Hispanics. Bacauss some Mispanic children cannot function adequately in an English-apasking classroom, they connot take full adventage of an education appropriate to their made. For some educators, appropriate education for Hispanics implies "bilingual education." The term, "bilingual education" is defined in the Bilingual Education Act as an instructional program designed for students of limited English speaking ability in elementary or secondary achools where instruction is given in English and to the extent necessary in the native or dominant lenguage in order for the atudent to progress effectively through the educational system. In the view of some educators an effective elternative program to bilingual education is English as e second language or intensive English-only instruction. Both title VI of the Civil Rights Act and the Lau v. Michols Suprame Court decision guarantee the rights to an appropriete education for limited English proficient children and help to ensure access to en appropriate education.

Lau v. Nichola

The Lau v. Nichola ceae, elthough not originally involving Miapanica, set e precedent for educational programs to meat the special lenguage needs of non-English proficient children. On January 21, 1974, the Supreme Court reversed earlier district court and eppeals court decisions end remanded the case back for relief under title VI, steting that the feilure of the San-Francisco school system to provide English lenguage instruction to approximately 1,800 students of Chinese ancestry who do not speek English or to provide them with other adequate instruction procedures denies them a meaningful opportunity to participate in public education programs and thus wiolated section 601 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (which bers discrimination based on the grounds of race, color, or national origin in eny program or ectivity receiving Federal financial sandstance).

At the time of the eppeals court decision on the <u>Lau v. Nichols</u> case,

Judge Hufstedler, leter Secretary of Education, filed a dissenting opinion,

reiterating how the non-English-speaking children have often been denied access.



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Access-to-education-offered by public schools is completely foraclosed to these children who cannot comprehend any of it . . . the language barrier which the State helps to maintain insulates the children from their classmates as effectively as any physical bulwarks. Indeed, these children are more isolated from aqual educational opportunity than were those physically segregated blacks in Brown; these children cannot communicate at all with their classmates or their teachers.

The Language Barrier

Dua in part to the language barrier, Hispshics face a hurdle to an appropriate education. Approximately 80 percent of the students enrolled in . bilingual programs are Hispanics, and less than half of the total number of limited English-speaking children are estimated to be served by bilingual, English as a second language (ESL) or other special language programs. According to NCES, in 1976 the estimated total number of limited Englishspeaking and non-English-speaking elementary and secondary school students in the U.S. was 765,747, and of that number only 49 percent were served. In those States with the largest populations of such pupils, the proportion of such children served by special language programs ranged from 40 percent (Texas) to 62 percent (California) and 63 percent (Florida). (See table 4) The term access to education for Hispanics implies that an appropriate mode of instruction should be used. However, the proper technique for educating Hispanics is currently a subject of great debate-whether or not non-Englishspeaking children should be taught subjects in their native language while learning English versus total immersion in English. The proposed Lau regulations issued by the Offica for Civil Rights in the Department of Education designed to implement the Lau v. Michols decision have caused great controversy because they have been accused of "dictating" a specific (the bilingual) method of instruction. Some educators believe that limited English-proficient children are mora likely to achieve in school and in later life if they are brought into the regular English-speaking classrooms ss quickly and completely as possible. According to a Gallup Poll published in Phi Delta Kappan (September 1980), 82 percent of the public felt that children of families from other countries who cannot spesky English should be required to learn English in special classes before enrolling in regular public schools.



TABLE 4. Percentages of Mispanic Elementary and Secondary Students With Limited English Sepaking Skills Who Ware Enrolled in English As a Second Language or Hilingual Education Programs By Stack: 1976

State 36	. identified as 123/FCS	Percent served	
Total V.S.	765,747	49	
Lishens	. 90	23	
Usaka	24	64	
Lrizone	30,172	40	
Lehanss	75	• ;	
California	161,676	. 62	
Colsrado	4,300	· #	
	9,800	::	
belavere	432	41	
district of Cojumpli	673	63	
Piorida	21,926 530	25	
foorgia Navali	77		
Make	1,783	22	
Illineis	8,609	58	
Indiana	3,342	25	
1000	447	36	
Kanas	1,144	33	
Kantucky	67	34	-
Louisiana	2,546	32 •	
Maine	35	.3	
Maryland ,	905	96	
Xassachusetta	11,769	53 36	
Michigan	6,222	23	
Missesats	490 41	• ži	
Mininippi Mininippi	282	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
Xinoouri	50	ī.	
Hont Snd Nebraska	843	10	
Pevoda Pevoda	41	53	
New Bospokits	**	30	
New Jarees	42,669	47	
Nex Mexico	24,827	31	
Hev Tork	134,252	53	
North Carolina	189	-4	
Porth Daksto		17	
6746	2,726	33 30	•
Otlahoma .	1,617	. 26	
011808	2,106	* 41	
Proceylvenia	6,255 1,120	ii	
Rhoda Itland South Catalina	110	14	
South Bolota	126	4 ,	
TIBREIDIE	104	20	
Teles	273.880	40	
Ptah	1,098	14	
Yermont	3	.0	
Virgiala	2,291	32	
Viikington	4,511	36	
Vest Virginia	24	13 28	
Viscousin	3,548	20 . ,	

SOUTICE: National Center for Education Statistics. Condition of Education of Hispanic Americans. July 1980, p. 56.

Programs Designed to Improve Access-Bilingual Education Act

One program designed to help improve access to aducation for Hispanics and other limited English-proficient atudents is the Bilingual Education Act (title VII, Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)). Since its enactment in 1968, the program has had as its goal the provision of equal



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educational opportunity for children of limited English-speaking ability, including Mispanics. To achieve this goal the program provides assistance as follows:

- for establishing elementary and secondary progress of bilingual education;
- (2) for establishing training programs to increase the number and quality of bilingual education personnel;
- (3) for developing and disseminating bilingual instruction materials; and
- (4) for coordinating programs of bilingual education.

The bilingual education program awards discretionary grants on a competitive basis to local education agencies and institutions of higher education, and gives contracts to State educational agencies. The FY 1980 appropriation for title VII is \$166,963,000 which includes grants to school districts, training grants, support services and bilingual desegregation grants.

The Bilingual Education Act was originally enacted without the benefit of prior substantial evaluation of the effectiveness of this educational atrategy.

One source indicated that when the Bilingual Education Act was lounched in 1968--

It was not unlike the moon landing program or Federal efforts in public health, undertaken largely as an act of faith, with little research to support it beyond the prior declaration of a number of linguists and language teaching specialists at afUNESCO conference in 1951.

Source: Research Evidence for the Effectiveness of Bilingual Education. Rudolph Troike. Center for Applied Linguistics, National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1978.

However, the lack of such an initial foundation is not unique to this program. Federal commitment to this program, in terms of appropriatione provided, was rather low in its early years (the FY 1969 first year of funding appropriation was \$7,500,000).

Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Title VII, ESEA

If title VII of ESEA is effective as a tool for providing equal access to educational opportunity, then program results should reflect that euccess.

The most widely known evaluation of the Federal bilingual education program, completed in 1977 by the American Institutes for Research (Evaluation of the



Impact of ESEA Title VII, Spanish/English Bilingual Education Program) had as its purpose to determine the impact of bilingual aducation on students in Spanish/English bilingual projects funded through title VII, of ESEA.

The Cantar for Appliad Linguistica aurveyed the AIR report and over 150 other avaluation reports on bilingual aducation as part of its work in developing a mester plan for California achools to comply with the Lau v. Nichols decision. The Cantar for Appliad Linguistics found that only seven avaluations met minimal criteria for acceptability and contained usable information. Although the AIR evaluation report met minimal criteria, the Cantar faulted the AIR report for some, of its inadequaciae. The AIR evaluation had primarily negative reports on the affectiveness of the title VII program. Educators agreed that these findings (i.e., that title VII did not improve achievement) should not be overlooked.

State Efforta to Improva Accasa to Education for Hispanica

Some States are making an affort to improve access to education for Bispanics. The number of State programs for bilingual aducation has increased gradually over the years. A study by Davelopment Associates (A Study of State Programs in Bilingual Education, 1977) indicated that local aducation agencies (LEAs) in 40 States mendated the implementation of bilingual aducation programs, a considerable increases from 1968 when LEAs in 2C States were actually prohibited from sateblishing bilingual education programs. During 1976, 16 of the 50 States had some form of operating bilingual instruction supported with State appropriations.

Stata Appropriations.

As of FT 1980, the Federal program, titls VII of ESEA, contracted with 46 State aducational agencies to provide technical ageistance for bilingual programs. In addition, titls VII of ESEA provided 625 bilingual project grants to local achool districts to serve 340,000 students. The fact that 46 States are involved implies that a large majority of the States are attempting to seatablish at least limited bilingual programs.



ACHIEVEMENT

According to Dr. Calvin Veltman (who recently did a atudy for NCES on the educational attainments of Hispanic-American children), the primary problem in education for Hispanics is achievement. He states, however, that before achievement can be improved, access to an appropriate program of instruction must occur. Several studies have attempted to measure achievement of Hispanics or for limited English-proficient students.

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Study

From fall 1971 to apring 1975 the National Assessment of Education

Progress (NAEP) 2/ collected data on achievement of Hispanics and non-minorities
in five subject areas. As can be seen from t ble 5, Hispanic students were
significantly below the national average for the three age levels (age 9, 13,
and 17) with respect to each of the subject areas.

At age 9 (ace table 3) Hispanica were 9 to 14 points below the national average. At age 13 Hispanica were 10 to 12 points below the national average; and at age 17 they were 7 to 14 points below the national average. The poorest showing was by 17-year olds in mathematics where they were 14 percentage points below the national average. Scores for Hispanics (relative to those of other ethnic groups) generally decreased with increased age, except in the case of career and occupational development courses.

Since 1975 some additional data has been collected by NAEP which revealed some small improvements in achievament of Hispanics in the subject areas of science and mathematics. In the latest data collected by NAEP, Hispanic students continued to trail the national average although a small but statistically significant improvement was made by 17-year-olds in aciencs.

American Institutes for Research (AIR) Report

The American Institutes for Research (AIR) evaluation mentioned sarlier



^{2/} The National Assessment of Educational Progress is an ongoing survey conducted by the Education Commission of the States, under contract to the National Institute of Education.

of impact of the ESEA Title VIV.—Spanish/English Bilingual
Education Program. After studying 11,500 students over a 2-year period, the
AIR evaluation found that students in bilingual programs did no better at
learning English or any other subject than non-English-speaking students placed
in regular classes. In general and across grades, when the two groups of
limited English-proficient students were compared, title VII students in the
study were performing in English worse than the non-title VII students. In
math, title VII students were found to be performing at about the same level
as the non-title VII limited English-proficient students. 3/

3/ Source: AIR. Evaluation of the Impact of ESEA. Title VII -- Spanish/ English Bilingual Education Program Overview of Study and Findings.

TABLE 5. Achievement in Five Subject Metter Areas for Hispanics and Mon-Minority Students 9, 13, and 17 Years Old 1971-1975

	Percentage point difference from the national/average			
ubject metter end ethnic group	Age 9	Age 13	Age 17	
ociel Studies	-10.59	-10 • 05	-13.12	
Mispenics Non-minority	2.73	2.07	2.39	
cience			•	
Mispenics Non-minority	-9.53 3.12	-11.55 3.49	-11.08 2.13	
thematice	-7.77	-11.71	-14.36	
Mispenics Non-misority	2.76	3.74	3.63	
areer end				
evelopment Hispanics	-14.08	-12.44	-7.65	
Non-misority	3.23	3.50	2.19	
eeding Biepenids	-10.77	-11.25	-11.42	
Non-minority	2.54	2.73		

Note: All of the differences from the national norm in thir are statistically significant at the .05 laval—i.e., the differences of such magnitude that they would be found in fewer than 5 percent of sample populations (se were used for the HAZF) if there were no consistent differences in scores for the total Mispenic versus non-Mispenic populations.

Source: National Center for Education Statistics. Condition of Education for Hispanic Americans. July 1980, p. 222.

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The Children's English and Services Study

According to the Children's English and Services Study, conducted under convract from National Institute of Education, June 1979, more Hiapanica aged 5 to 14 years were limited English-proficient than children of the same age living in households where other non-English languages were spoken. The Children's English and Services Study revealed that an estimated 2.4 million children with limited English language proficiency aged 5 to 14 were living in the U.S. in spring 1978. In addition, there were estimated to be sn additional 1.2 million limited English-apeaking children older or younger than 5 to 14 who were also of school age, making the grand total of 3.6 million children. The percentage of limited English-proficient children among all children living in households where a language other than English is spoken did not vary much by age. The percentages as follows are for various age groups, for all languages combined—

Table 6. Proportion of Children Living in Families Where the Predominant Language Spoken at Home Is Not English Who Are Limited English-Proficient, by Age Group, 1978

5-6 year olds--67% limited in English 7-8 year olds--68% limited in English 9-11 year olds--59% limited in English 12-14 year olds--61% limited in English

Grade Level

One measure of achievement is whether or not children are enrolled at or below the expected grade level for their age groups. The Census Bureau found that in 1976, at each sge level, there was a larger percentage of Hispsnic children enrolled below grade level than non-minority children. Approximately 10 percent of the 8 to 13 year olds and about 25 percent

of the 14 to 20 year old Hispanics ware enrolled below expected grade level.

Limited English Proficiency

According to the National Center for Education Statistica, four out of five Hispanica live in households where Spanish was spoken either sometimes



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or usually. Among Hispanic children age 8 to 13 who live in homes where a language other than English was apoken, one tenth were enrolled below the expected grade level for their age. This disadvantage increased for 14 to 20 year olds, where one out of four was behind in school. However, one may not conclude from svailable information that the use of a language other than English in the home is a primary cause of educational disadvantage. One should be sware that 15 percent of Hispanics aga 14 to 20 who lived in homes where only English was apoken were also enrolled below the expected grade level. There are other causes for low schievement, primary among which are low income or limited educational aspiration levels.

Dr. Calvin Veltman, in his recent study done for the National Center for Education Statistics (using the Census Bureau's 1976 Survey of Income and Education), purports to show that children who speak both English and Spanish do better in school than those who speak only English. Veltman's conclusion appears to support bilingualism.

Retention Rate

According to the Condition of Education, 1979 approximately 40 percent of the Eispanic population between the ages of 18 and 24 left high school TABLE 7. Percent of Hispanic and White Students Aged 8-20 Enrolled Two Yesra or More Below Expected Grade Level, By Subgroup: Spring 1976

	Percent enrolled below expected grade level		
Race/Ethnic group	8-13 years old	14-20 years old	
Thits, non-Mispanic	5X	3%	
liapanic	9	24	
Mexican American	9	25	
Puerto Rican	8	24	
Cuban	*	•	
Central or South	•	*	
American Other Misvanic	*	19	

^{*} Percent not shown where estimate is fewer than 20,000. A person below grade level is defined as 8 years old or older and enrolled in the first grade, 9 years old or older and enrolled in the second grade, etc. Also included were 20 year olds who were enrolled in the first year of college.



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Source: Bureau of the Cenaus. Survey of Income and Education. Spring, 1976.

without e diploma as compared to 14 percent of the coe-minority population. Language eppears to be one of the factors releted to the dropout rate in high school. Hispanics eged 14 to 30 with non-English lenguage background drop out of school 2-1/2 times as often as non-minority with non-English background. However, Hispanics whe were brought up in homee where only English was spoken had perticipation rates similar to non-minorities. This does not necessarily imply that background in a language other than English is the specific or sole cause of high non-completion rates. Rether, it indicates that a non-English background may relete to degree of assimilation, facility in English, or to socioeconomic conditions impacting on the likelihood of completing school.

TABLE 8. Persons Not Enrolled in School end Mon-High School Graduetes by Age, Racial/Ethnic Groups and Sex 1977

•	Percent of school en	population, policy population, policy	et enrolled nool greduet	in es
	Totel 16 to 24 year old	16 end 17	18 and 19	20 to 24
White male	13.9%	8.6X	17.0%	14.9X
White female	12.8	9.1	14.8	13.5
Black male	19.4	6.9	23.8	24.3
Black female	20.0	8.4	20.3	25.1
Hispanic origin male	31.5	9.9	33.7	41.7
Mispenic origin female	34.2	20.9	. 31.8	41.2

Source: Bureau of the Census. School Enrollment. Secial end Economic Characteristic of Students, table appearing in Condition of Education, 1979 (table 5.5)

ACRIEVENENT

Some Coeclusiens

Low educational achievement for Mispenice could be eccounted for by two non-lenguage specific factore in particular—family income end parental educion. According to the Condition of Education, 1980 the higher the femily income, the less likely that children will be behind in school. According to an MAEP study, femilies below the poverty line, which included approximately 21 percent of Mispenic femilies in 1977 (in centrest to 8 percent of mon-Mispenic families) were more likely to have children enrolled below grade level than were families above the poverty line.



Educational attainment of parents could also be a factor in low schievement for Bispenice. Because the aducational attainment level of Bispenic adults was lower than that of the total population, it follows that the achievement of Hispanic children in school might also be lower. The higher the educational attainment level of parents, the less likely the child will be a low schiever.

In conclusion, there is no final best method of instruction which will sesure incresses in schievement levels for Hispanics. Wer can firm conclusions be reached regarding the extent to which the aducational problems of Hispanics result from limited English-proficiency, so opposed to other, non-language specific factors (primarily those described serlier). It appears, however, that special programs to meet the specific language needs of Hispanic pupils, whether of the bilingual or intensive English language instruction variety, may be helpful in providing meaningful access to educational programs and services to Hispanic children. By broadening access can achievement and participation rates may be raised. However, full parity with the non-Hispanic population in education participation and achievement also almost undoubtedly depends on the success of efforts to improve the socioeconomic cenditions of life for Hispanic-Americans—efforts which, whather private or governmental, take place primarily outside of the aducational system and will take some considerable time and resources to accomplish.



EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY FOR HISPANIC SCHOOL CHILDREN--THE RIGHT TO BILINGUAL/BICULTURAL EDUCATION

by Charlea V. Dale American Law Division

Millions of ethnic minority atudenta attending American public achools are hampered in their educational pursuits by an English language deficiancy. Of the forty-nine million children compelled to attend our Nation's schools, approximately five million speak a principal language other than English. 1/
In addition, Hispanic-Americans constitute the largest such minority group and their numbers are growing. 2/ Congress recognized the special educational naeds of these children in passing the Bilingual Education Act which grants financial assistance to local educational agancies to develop bilingual curricula, programs to familiarize athnic minority children with their history and culture, and plans for closer cooperation between school and home. 3/ The implamenting provisions of the Act depand upon voluntary governmental action, however, and unless the State lagislature requires a local educational official to apply for these funds, private litigants cannot rely on this statute.

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^{1/} W. Grant and C. Lind, Digast of Educational Statistics: 1977-78 (1978); Office of Education, U.S. Dapt. of H.E.W., Draft: Piva Year Plan 1972-77: Bilingual Education Programs, app. B, Aug. 24, 1971.

^{2/} Sae, Comment, The Constitutional Right of Bilingual Children to an Equal Educational Opportunity, 47 S. Cal. L. Rav. 943, 951, 1974.

^{3/} Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, 20 U.s.C. \$\$ 880b-880-5.

In addition, prompted by the Suprame Court's 1974 ruling in Lau v. Kichola, 4/ the Federal courts in several cases have considered claims that the failure of local achool districts to provide compensatory language instruction to non-English-speaking students is a violation of title VI of the 1964 Civil Righta Act, 5/ the Equal Education Opportunities Act of 1974, 6/ and the Equal Protection Clause. In Lau, non-English-speaking Chinese students alleged that teaching classes only in English effectively excluded tham from an opportunity for a meaningful education. The Supreme Court agreed, ruling that title VI required some form of remedial language instruction, but left open the question of the type of program required by the 1964 Act. In the wake of Lau, a faw courts have ordered the implementation of bilingual/bicultural programs to east the difficulties of linguistically deficient students, while others have interpreted that decision to mandate deferral to local school board policies and programs designed to meet the special educational needs of such students. The remaindar of this section will review the setting of Lau, the decision itaelf, and the subsequent judicial conflict of opinion as to the degree of judicial intervention necessary to assure the effective enforcement of these rights.



^{4/ 414} O.S. 563, 1974.

^{5/ 42} U.S.C. 2000d et. seq.

^{6/ 20} U.S.C. 1703(f).

^{7/} On August 5, 1980, the Dapartment of Education (ED) issued proposed rules to implament title VI that would require recipients of Federal educational assistance, at the elementary and accondary leval, to provide bilingual instruction, or other appropriate Compensatory services, to "limited English-proficient" students whose primary language is other than English. See, 45 Fed. Reg. 52063 et. seq., Aug. 5, 1980. However, with its passage of H.J. Res. 644, continuing appropriations for fiscal year 1981, Congress effectively pracluded ED enforcement of any final regulations regarding bilingual education until June, 1, 1981. See, P.L. 96-536, \$ 117, Dec. 16, 1980.

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Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act enacted a broad prohibition against discrimination in all federally sesisted programs. Thus, section 601 of the Act provides that:

No person in the United States shall, on the ground of race, color or natural origin, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity receiving Federal financial essistence. 8/

By section 602 of the Act, grantmaking agencies of the Federal Government, such as the Department of Education (ED), are specifically "directed" to "issue rules, regulations and orders" to insure that recipients of Federal sid under their jurisdiction conduct any federally financed projects in a manner consistent with section 601. 9/

Shortly after title VI became law, HEW secund regulations applicable to achool districts and other recipients of Federal essistance administered by the Department. 10/ Thereafter, in 1968 HEW issued the first in a series of guidelines interpreting the Act and regulations to mean that federally assisted



^{8/ 42} U.S.C. 2000d.

^{9/} In addition, ED, as auccaseor to HEW in the field of education, is primarily, responsible for administrative enforcement of title VI with respect to federally assisted local echool districts. At each, it is charged with escuring local compliance with title VI, and all applicable rules and regulations, by voluntary means, negotiation and the like, if at all possible. Where these efforts fail, however, ED is authorised to enforce compliance by terminating or refusing to great or continue sesistence, or "by any other means authorized by law," including referrel to the Department of Justice for court enforcement. 42 U.S.C. 2000d-1.

^{10/} In those regulations, 45 C.F.R. § 80.3(b), HEW specified that recipients of Federal aid may not:

⁽i) Deny an individual any service, finencial sid, or other banefit under the program; (continued)

"[s]chool systems are responsible for assuring that students of a particular race, color, or national origin are not denied the opportunity to obtain the aducation generally obtained by other students in the system." 11/ Two years later, HEW published an interpretive memorandum specifically directed at language minorities, requiring school districts that are federally funded "to rectify the language deficiency in order to open" their instructional program to atudents with "linguistic deficiencies." 12/ Thus, under the 1970 HEW

- (continued) (ii) Provide any service, financial sid, or other benefit to an individual which is different, or is provided in a different senar, from that provided to others under the
 - program;
 (iii) Subject any individual to segregation or separate treatment in any manner related to his receipt of any service, financial aid, or other benefit under the program;
 - (iv) Restrict an individual in any way in the enjoyment of any advantage or privilege enjoyed by others receiving any service, financial aid, or other benefit under the
 - program;
 Deny an individual an opportunity to participate in
 the program through the provision of services or
 otherwise or afford him an opportunity to do so which
 is different from that afforded others under the
 program.

11/ 33 Fed. Reg. 4956.

12/ The 1970 memorandum addrassed the needs of English language deficient students as follows:

Where inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin-minority group children from effective participation in the educational programs offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to ractify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students.

It further specifies:

Any ability grouping or tracking system employed by the school system to deal with the special language skill needs of national origin-minority group children must be designed to meet such language skill needs as soon as possible and must not operate as an educational deadend or permanent track. 35 Fed. Rag. 11595.



memorandum, programs having the effect of excluding atudenta because of linguistic differences are violative of title VI and must be remedied by affirmative programs.

These regulations and interpretive guidelines bore substantially on the Supreme Court's reasoning in its 1974 ruling in Lau v. Nichola. 13/ In Lau, non-English-apeaking students in San Francisco brought a class action claiming that the failure of the school administration to provide adequate supplemental language instruction denied them an equal educational opportunity in violation of titla VI and the Equal Protection Clause of the U.S. Constitution. Of tha 2,856 Chinese Children in the school system, only about 1,000 were provided supplemental courses in English, while 1,800 received no special instruction. The stated policy of the California legislature at the time was to insure "the mastery of English by all pupils in the schools," and no student could receive a high school diploma unless he or she was proficient in English. 14/ ho specific remedy was sought, only that the school board be required to act in some fashion to remedy the situation.

The district, court denied relief, and the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit affirmed, holding that there was no violation of the Equal Protection Clause or title VI. 15/ The Court of Appeals reasoned that:



^{13/ 414} U.S. 563, 1974.

^{14/ 414} U.S. at 565-66, quoting Cal. Educ. Code \$ 71 (1969).

^{15/} The title VI claim was dismissed in a footnote, the Ninth Circuit apparently viewing it as equivalent to the constitutional claim: "Our determination of the merits of the other class of appellants will likewise dispose of the claims under the Civil Rights Act of 1964." 483-F. 2d at 794, n. 6.

Every student brings to the starting line of his educational career different advantages and disadvantages caused in part by social, economic and cultural background, created and continued completely apart from any contribution by the school system . . . 16/

Although some of these disadvantages might be overcome, because of the complex nature of educational policy in this area, the court concluded that the matter was best left to the discretion of local school officials.

In an opinion deliverad by Justice Douglas, the Supreme Court reversed, without reaching the Equal Protection issue posed by the case, and remanded with direction to fashion appropriate relief under title VI. Interpreting the KEW regulations and guidelines to mean that "discrimination is barred which has the effect even though no purposeful design is present," Justice Douglas found that

The Chinese-speaking minority receive fewer benefits than the English-speaking majority from respondents' school system which denies them a meaningful opportunity to participate in the educational program—all earmarks of the discrimination banned by the regulations. 17/

In view of the State-imposed atandards mandating English as the basic language of instruction in the public schools, and English proficiency as a requirement for graduation, Justice Douglas concluded "there is no equality of treatment merely by providing atudents with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum, for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education." 15/ Significantly, however, the Court did not prescribe any specific measures that must be taken to accommodate



^{16/ 483} F. 2d at 797.

^{17/ 414} U.S. at 568.

^{18/ 414} U.S. at 566.

students with limited English proficiency, but left the matter of appropriate relief to local school officials.

Teaching English to the students of Chinese encestry who do not speak the lenguage is one choice. Giving instruction to this group in Chinese is enother. There may be others. Petitioners ask only that the Board of Education be directed to apply its expertise to the problem and rectify the situation. 19/

Although the majority opinion is silent on the question, Justice Blackmun, joined by the Chief Justice, in his concurring opinion and, perhaps to a lesser extent, the separate concurrence filed by Justice Stewart appear to suggest that, at least in the view of these three Justices, a critical consideration in the result reached was the relatively large number of non-English speaking students involved in Les. Justice Blackmun stated the matter thusly:

I merely wish to make plain that when, in another case we are confronted with a very few youngsters, or with just a single child who opeaks Gérman or Polish or Spanish or any other language than English, I would not regard today's decision, or the separate concurrence, as conclusive upon the issue whether the statute and guidalines require the funded school district to provide special instruction. For me, numbers are at the heart of this case and my concurrence is to be understood accordingly. 20/

Thus, it is not altogether certain that the Court would have reached the lagel conclusion it did if the demonstrated need for supplemental services measured in terms of the number of non-English speaking students, had been significantly smaller than in Leu.

An important aspect of Lau was the Court's apparent conclusion that proof alone of discriminatory "effects," without regard to the intent behind a school board's policy respecting non-English-speaking students, is sufficient to astablish a prima facte violation of title VI. A contrary implication may be



^{19/ 414} U.S. at 565.

^{20/ 414} U.S. at 562.

drawn, however, from the Supreme Court'e recent decision in the University of California Regents v. Bakke 21/ where five of the nine Justices explicitly held that, se applied to race discrimination cases, title VI is coextensive in ecope with the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. Justice Fowell's opinion in Bakke declared that "title VI must be held to proccribe only those racial classifications that would violate the Equal Protection Clause or the Fifth Amendment." 22/ Justice Merchall, joined by Justices White, Brennen, and Blackmun, though acknowledging the inconsistency of this postion with Lau, nevertheless concurred in the conclusion that the title VI standard is no broader than the Constitution. "We agree with Mr. Justice Powell that se applied to the cases before us, title VI goes no further in prohibiting the use of race than the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment." 23/ The other four Justices expressed no opinion on the issue, 24/ and although the majority did not expressly overrule Lau, Bakke suggests that constitutional atanderds may be applicable to discrimination claims under title VI.

In this regard, the Supreme Court has recently hald in a variety of contexts that, for purposes of analyzing the constitutionality of allegedly discriminatory conduct, the purpose or intent behind the law or governmental action, and not its affect on racial minorities, is controlling. Thus, in



^{21/ 438} U.s. 265, 1978.

^{22/ 438} U.S. at 287.

^{23/ 438} U.S. at 352.

^{24/ 438} U.S. at 417-418. (Stevens, J., joined by Burger, Steward, Rehnquist, JJ.).

Washington v. Davis, 25/ the court refused to apply the Griggs "affacts" tast used in title VII cases to a public employment discrimination action brought under the Equal Protection Clause, stating:

... We have not held that a law, neutral on its face and serving ends otherwise within the power of government to pursue, is invalid under the Equal Protection Clause simply because it may affect a greater proportion of one race than of another. Disproportionate impact is not irrelevant, but it is not the sole touchstone of an invidious racial discrimination forbidden by the Constitution. 26/

The Court applied the <u>Davia</u> rationale to an exclusionary zoning case in <u>Village of Arlington Haighta</u> v <u>Metropolitan Housing Development Corp</u> . 27/
holding that local officials' refusal to razone to permit the construction of a proposad low and moderata income housing project was not unconstitutional since no "discriminatory purgose or intent" had bean proven. Noting that any invastigation into intent or purpose "demanda a sensitive inquiry into such circumstantial and direct evidence of intent as may be available," the Court observed that while the "affecta" of a challenged policy may be relevant as a "atarting point," only in "rare" cases, where a clear pattern of discrimination emerges, will the inquiry turn on the nature of the discriminatory effect. Finally, in <u>Personnel Administrator of Hassachusetta</u> v. <u>Feeney</u>, 28/ the Court uphald an "absolute and permanant" statutory preference for veterans in State employment, even though it operated overwhelmingly to exclude women from consideration for the bast civil service jobs, because no subjective intent to discriminate was shown.



^{25/ 426} U.S. 229, 1976.

^{26/ 426} U.S. at 242.

^{27/ 429} U.S. 252, 1977.

^{28/ 442} U.S. 256, 1979.

The Suprame Court has not since Bakke confronted the precise question of whather an "effects" test, such as that applied in title VII employment cases under Griggs, or the more restrictive, constitutional intent standard is appropriate for evaluating the allegedly discriminatory conduct of Federal aid recipients under title VI. 29/ In the wake of Bakke, however, some lower Federal courts have ruled, within the context of suits to compel local school officials to provide bilingual instruction to non-English speaking students, 30/ and otherwise, 31/ that proof of past intentional discrimination is essential for title VI relief. These may be contrasted with other decisions, both prior to and after the Sakke ruling, which have required



^{29/} In Soard of Education, New York City v. Marris, 444 U.S. 130, 1979, however, the Court ruled that in the case of desegregating school districts receiving Federal funds under the Emergency School Aid Act, 20 U.S.C. 1401-1619, discriminatory impact is the standard by which ineligibility is to be measured, regardless of whether the discrimination relates to "demotion or dismissal of instructional or other personnél" or to "the hiring, promotion, or assignment of employees." According to the Court, the text and congressionally stated policy and purposes behind the Act, its legislative history and overall atructure all pointed in the direction of the "effects" test. Therefore, to treat as ineligible only en applicant with e past or conscious present intent to perpetuate racial isolation would defeat the stated objective of ending de facto se well as de jure sagregation.

^{30/} Otago v. Mesa County Valley School District No. 51, 470 F. Supp. 326 (D. Colo. 1979). See elso, Gusdalupe Organization, Inc. v. Tempe Elementary School District No. 3, 587 F. 2d 1022 (9th Cir. 1978) (neither title VI nor the Constitution are violated by district's feilure to provide bilinguel/bicultural education program where remedial instruction in English is already provided non-English-spasking students).

^{31/} Parent Association of Andrew Jackson High School v. Ambsch, 598 F. 2d 705 (2d Gir. 1979) (school desagregation); Herris v. White, 479 F. Supp. 996 (D. Mass. 1979) (employment discrimination): Valadez v. Graham, 474 F. Supp. 149 (M.D. Fla. 1979) (Title VI chellenge by migratory farm children to school district policy regerding late entering students and credit for prior strendanca at other schools).

implementation of bilingual/bicultural programs without a specific showing that such students were the victims of past discrimination. 32/

Since Lau, the right of non-English speaking public school students to a bilingual/bicultural education program has been addressed by several lower Federal courts which have sought to apply the Supreme Court's ruling in actions brought under both title VI and the Equal Protection Clause of the Constitution. Some of the cases have evolved from Lau-type suits seeking direct relief of unsqual educational opportunities alleged by non-English-speaking students as a result of the failure of public educational officials to provide bilingual services. Others have dealt with the question indirectly within the context of the relief to be afforded such students as the part of an overall plan to remedy segregation in the schools forbidden by the Constitution.

In <u>Serne</u> v. <u>Fortsles Municipal Schools</u>, 33/ after the trial court found that Spanish-surnamed children in Fortsles, New Mexico, were denied equal sducational opportunity because the school district had failed to take affirmative steps to ractify their language deficiencies, the school district



^{32/} Serns v. Portalas Municipal Schools, 499 F. 2d 1147 (10th Cir 1974); Rios v. Read, 480 F. Supp. 14 (E.D.N.Y 1978) (orders implementation of a plan consistent with Lau remedies without considering Bekke issue); Cintron v. Brentwood Union Free School District, 455 F. Supp. 57 (E.D.N.Y. 1978) (pra-Bakke decision requiring submission of plan in compliance with Lau Remedies); Aspire of New York v. Board of Education of the City of Naw York, No 72 Civ. 4002 (E.D.N.Y 1974) (consent decree).

^{33/ 499} F. 2d 1147 (10th Cir. 1974).

submitted a plan for remedial action. 34/ Rather than accept the proposed program, which it found to be mere "tokeniam," the district court "feshioned a program which it felt would meet the needs of Spanish surnamed students in the Portales achool syster " including more expansive bilingual instruction and the hirang of a greater number of Spanish-speaking teachers. The Tenth Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed based on title VI and the Supreme Court's intervening decision in Lau.

In conformity with Lau, the Tanth Circuit determined that the affect of the achool district's inaction was to deprive its Spanish-speaking students of a meaningful education and prevent their participation in the educational process in violation of title VI and the NEW guidelines.

The trial court noted in its memorandum opinion that eppellees claimed deprivation of equal protection guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment and of their statutory rights under Title VI of the 1964 Givil Rights Act, specifically \$ 601. While the trial court reached the correct result on equal protection grounds, we choose to follow the approach adopted by the Supreme Court in Lsu; that is, appellees were deprived of their statutory rights under Title VI of the 1964 Givil Rights Act. As in Lau, all able children of school age are required to attend school. N.H. Const. Art. XII, \$ 5. All public schools must be conducted in English. N.M. Const. Art. XXI, \$ &. While Spanish surnemed children are required to sttend echool and if they attend public schools the courses must be taught in English. Porteles school district has failed to institute a program which



^{34/} At trial, the pleintiffs established that, until 1970:

[[]n]one of the teachers in the Porteles achools was Spanishsurnamed including those epeaking the Spanish language in junior and senior high achool; there had never been a Spanish-surnamed principal or vice-principal and there were no secretaries who spoke Spanish in the elementary grades.

Moreover, despite an evaluation by the New Mexico Department of Education that the Portalea schools were not meeting the language needs of their Hispanic childern, the defendants neither applied for funds under the Federal Bilingual Educaton Act, 20 U.S.C. 830b, nor accepted funds for a similar purpose when they were offered by the State of New Mexico. 499 F. 2d at 1149.

will rectify language deficiencies so that these children will receive a meaningful education. The Porteles school curriculum, which has the effect of discrimination even though probably no purposful design is present, therefore violates the requisites of Title VI and the requirement imposed by or pursuant to HEW regulations. 35/

Unlike Lau, however, the Tenth Circuit passed on the adequacy of the proposed remedy, concluding that the record reflected a long standing policy by the Portales school that ignored the needs of Spanish-surnamed school children. This degree of judicial intervention was justified by analogy to constitutional cases in the school desegregation area so the "the trial court, under its inherent equitable power, can properly fashion a bilingual-bicultural program which will assure that Spanish-surnamed children receive a meaningful education." 36/ However, to dispel any implication that its ruling would require bilingual programs where a student is found who lacks facility in the English language, the court adopted the Blackmun view, in Lau, that "numbers are at the heart of this case and only where a substantial group is being deprived of a meaningful education will a Title I violation exist." 37/

In 1972, Puerto Ricsn and other Hispanic students in New York City brought an action against the city board of education to compel adoption of an effective program of bilingual instruction. 38/ As in Lau and Serna, the educational policies of the school board were alleged to violate the equal



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^{35/ 499} F. 2d at 1153-54.

^{36/ 499} F. 2d at 1154, citing Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education, 402 U.S. 1, 1971.

^{37/ 499} F. 2d at 1154.

^{38/} Aspirs of New York v. Board of Education of the City of of Pew York, No. 72 Civ. 4002 (S.D.N.Y. 1074) (unreported consent decree), related rulings may be found at 65 F.R.D. 541 (S.D.N.Y. 1975) (attorney's fees); 58 F.R.D. 62 (S.D.N.Y. 1973) (motion to dismiss); 423 F. Supp. 647 (D.D.N.Y. 1976) (contempt proceedings).

protection clause, and the rights to an equal educational opportunity mandated by title VI. Again, as in those cases, the school board asserted as a defense that it treated all students equally. However, before the case proceeded to trial, but after the Court's Lau decision, the parties entered into a consent decree.

The consent decree established a far reaching bilingual aducation program, providing for

methods of identifying those to receive bilinguel instruction, for apecific forms of instruction in Spaniah and English, for the formulation of pertinent educational standards, the preparation and distribution of instructional materials, the recruitment end training of staff, the procurement of suitable funding, and continued consultation with plaintiffs. . . . 39/

In a aubacquent proceeding, the court relied on an "effectiveness atendard to find that the board of education had failed to comply with its duties under the consent decree and implementing orders, and had not employed, in good faith, the utmost diligence in discharging its responsibilities." 40/ As a result, the board was held in contempt and ordered to comply with the decree and related orders.



^{39/} See, 423 F. Supp. at 649. The testing program formulated by the consent decree bore some similarities to that in the proposed ED regulations. It began with a group of tests called the "language assessment battery (L.A.B.)--English Version. In a first step, this L.A.B. was given to a sample population of English-speaking students whose performance was accorded and who served as the "norwing group." Next, the same test was given to all Hispanic atudents, from whom were selected those entitled to the program of bilingual aducation. The thire step comprised the "norming process" which provided that 1) a Spanish-Version L.A.B. would be given only to those Hispanic atudents whose accres fall below the 20th-percentile accres of the norming group, and 2) from smong those thus given the Spanish version, the bilingual program would then embrace the students who accred better on this version and were thus designated as being able to "more effectively participate in Spanish."

^{40/ 423} F. Supp. at 649.

In Rios v. Read 41/ Puerto Rican and Hispanic children attending school in the Fatchogua-Hadford School District in Suffolk County, New York brought a class action claiming that the district's existing program of remedial lenguage instruction was inadequate to satisfy the requirements of title VI and the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 (EEOA). 42/ The achool population of the district at the time of trial was approximately 11,000, of whom about 800 were Hispanic. Of these 800 Hispanic children, however, only 186 were receiving remedial instruction in English. The district's Program for Spanish-speaking children consisted of six full-time instructors, but it appeared that only two of these had any formal training in the methods of bilingual teaching. In addition, the court found that the program itself "was almost totally geared toward teaching English as a second language (ESL)," with English taught to Spanish speaking children during periods when their English speaking



^{41/ 480} F. Supp. 14 (E.D.N.Y. 1978).

^{42/ 20} U.S.C. 1703(f). The EEOA was enacted as part of the Education Amendmenta of 1974 and provided in \$ 204 that:

No state shall dany equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin, by

⁽f) the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional program.

Although unclear from the legislative history, at least two courts have held in the school desegregation context that the prohibitions of the Equal Education Opportunity Act, 20 U.S.C. 1701-1721, go beyond thore of the Constitution and forbid practices discriminatory in their effect even if no improper motive is shown. U.ited States v. Hinds County School Board, 560 F. 2d 619, 623-24 (5th Cir. 1977), Martin Luther King Elem. School Children v. Michigan Board of Education, 463 P. Supp. 1027, 1031-32 (E.D. Mich. 1978). Although similar considerations may thus apply as in the Title VI context, it should be observed that neither ED or any other Federal agency is given explicit suthority to anforcs \$ 1703(f) by issuing rules or regulations regarding bilingual education.

counterparts were inatructed in other subjects. No formal procedures or tests were utilized to identify atudents in need of special instruction nor to determine when the student had reached the required level of competence in English. Monetheless, the board ergued that Lsu required only that the district take affirmative steps to correct the language deficiencies of non-English speaking students, and that it had fully complied with this mandate.

The Rios court disagreed, however, holding the the district had not discharged its statutory obligations under Law by instituting the ESL program alone, and required, in addition, that it establish a bilingual/bicultural program in conformity with the Law guidelines issued by NEW.

The statutory obligations upon the school district require it to take affirmative action for language-deficient atudents by establishing an ESOL and bilingual program and to keep them in auch a program until they have attained sufficient proficiency in English to be instructed along with English-speaking students of comparable intelligence. The school district has the obligation of identifying children in need of bilingual education by objective, validated tests conducted by competent personnel. It must establish procedures for monitoring the program of students in the bilingual program and may exit them from the Program only after validated tests have indicated the appropriate level of English proficiency. 43/

The court stated the purpose of the program to be "to assure the language deficient child that he or she will be afforded the same opportunity to learn as that offered his or her English speaking counterpart." As a necessary compositant to achieving this objective, the court ruled that in addition to bilingual aspect, "the program must also be bi-cultural as a psychological support to the subject matter instruction." 44/

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^{43/ 480} F. Supp. at 23.

^{44/ 480} F. Supp. at 21-22.

Similarly, in <u>Citron</u> v. <u>Brentwood Union Free School</u>, 45/ Puerto Rican and other Hispanic children with deficiencies in the English language sued for injunctive and declaratory relief with respect to the announced intention of the echool district to restructure its bilingual education program. The proposed modification was prompted by a reduction in force related to declining enrollments which reduced the district's bilingual staff from 15 to 7 teachere. Messured against the <u>Lau</u> guidelines, the court found that both Project Avelino, the present bilingual program, and the board's proposed Plan V violated the SEOA and title VI.

Specifically, the present plan was faulty because it kept Spanish-speaking students separate and apart from Snglish-epesking students, it was conducted as a maintenance program, and it failed to provide a mechanism for transferring students to regular instructional courses once they had achieved proficiency in English. Plen V was likewise found defective in that it did not clearly indicate the manner in which Snglish-deficient students would be identified and was based on a theory of "immercion into Snglish language and culture and a subordination of Spanish and Hispanic culture with a view to accelerating the acquisition of English." 46/ Accordingly, the school district was directed to submit a plan in compliance with the Lau guidelines which incorporated the following:

The plan must contain more specific methods for identifying on admission those children who are deficient in the English language and for monitoring the progress of such children by the use of recognised and validated tests to ascertain achievement levels and proficiency in the English Yanguage. It should have a training



^{45/ 455} F. Supp. 57 (E.D.N.Y. 1978).

^{46/ 455} F. Supp. at 63.

program for bilingual teachers and bilingual sids. The program must be both bilingual and bicultural. It must provide a method for transferring students out of the program when the necessary level of English profice and is reached. It should not isolate children in racially or ethnically identifieble classes, but it should encourage, contact between non-English and English[-]spesking children in all but subject matter instruction (in the earliest classes i.e., kindergarten and firet grade, where subject matter is of lesser importance, the program should emphasize the need for contact between non-English and English[-]spesking children. 47/

In the meantime, the echool board was directed to modify the present plan in accordance with the court's opinion.

In contrast to these decisions, two 'aderal courts have ruled that "there is no constitutional right to bilingual/bicultural education," and that title VI, as interprated in Lau, may provide no more basis for such a right then the Equal Protection Clause. The first case to hold in this manner was Judge Winner's decision in Otaro v. Mess County Valley School District No. 51. 48/ In that case, name Mexican-American school children filed a class action against a Colorado school district to require it provide a bilingual/bicultural curriculum and to hire more Mexican-American teachers and supporting personnel. The plaintiffs attempted to support their constitutional claims with the results of a "home survey" designed to ascertain whather Spanish was epoken in the homes of Spanish-eurnamed students. In dismissing this evidence as having no bearing on the issue of the extent of need for bilingual education in the district, the court deferred instead to teste administered by the board which seemed to show no English language difficulties on the part of eignificant



^{47/ 455} f. Supp. et 64.

^{48/ 408} F. Supp. 162 (D. Colo. 1975).

number of Hiapanic atudanta. 49/ Sacause of thia, and a dearth of other aducational or linguiatic data demonstrating a substantial need for bilingual education in the district, Judge Winner hald that "in addition to the datermination that there is no constitutional right to bilingual/bicultural education, there is no failure on the part of the district to comply with any faderal atatute or regulation." 50/

In his discussion of the title VI cleim, Judge Winner observed that the class of students asserting that they had been deprived of a meaningful education was relativally small, and that the district had made e "conscientious effort" to solve the problem which existed as to any student. The court found that the small number of students affacted, and the good faith motivation on the part of the school board, distinguished the case from Lau and Serns.

Lau and Serna both had to do with lerge numbers of atudenta who had language deficiencies and who could not learn in English. Our cases involve e very few, if eny, students who heve real language deficiency. Lau and Sarna dealt with achool boards which were making no real effort to meet the problem . . . District 51 has made and it is making a real effort, en all out effort, which in no circumstance can be seid to be a mere tokan effort. I could do no better, and I do not believe that a federal judge should step in where the school board and achool officiels are doing their best and doing a good job. The only injunctive order I could in good faith enter would be one which ordered the achool board to 'keap up tha good work.' 511



^{49/} It appears from the opinion that 8.2 percent of the district's school population was Mexican-American. Of the 628 students teeted by the achool board, 18 were found to be Spanish-dominant, five were found to be bilinguel, and four were found to be Spanish-proficient. Judge Winner found that "there is no deficiency on the part of a significant number of Mexican-American atudents in English language proficiency, and the atudente who are deficient in English are also deficient in Spanish." 408 F. Supp. at 165.

^{50/ 408} F. Supp. at 170.

^{51/ 408} P. Supp. at 1714

The court then cited Justice Blackman's concurring opinion in Lau, and the "substantial group" requirement in Serna, is authority for the proposition that a citle VI violation could exist only when a substantial number of students are being deprived of meaningful education. Since the school board's atalyatics substantiated that no need existed, plaintiffs' claim necessarily failed. Accordingly, the court declined to review the success of the school board's existing language program, which is not even discussed in the opinion, because it concluded that the plaintiffs were seeking "to aubstitute their judgment for the thoughtful, independent judgment of the elected school board." 52/

The plaintiffs did not appeal this part of the court's decision but did seek review of the court's finding that they lacked standing to challenge the board's hiring practices. On remand from the Tenth Circuit, the district court was directed to reconsider the employment discrimination claims. 53/ In so doing, Judge Winner reviewed the Supreme Court's subsequent rulings in Bakke and Washington v. Davis and concluded, without further discussion of the bilingual education aspects of his earlier ruling, that "Bakke did decide that Title VI requires the existence of the intent not necessary in some Title VII situations." 54/



^{52/ 408} F. Supp. at 164. Judge Winner also expressed concern that "if there were an Equal Protection right to bilingual/bicultural education, the needs of a single atudent would give rise to that right, and our nation's schools would bankrupt themselves in meeting Equal Protection claims to bilingual educations in every conceivable language and dialect." 408 F. Supp. at 169.

^{53/} Otero v. Hesa County Valley School District No. 51, 568 F. 2d 1312 (10th Cir. 1977).

^{54/ 470} F. Supp. 326, 330 (D. Colo. 1979).

Commenting further, he stated:

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I am convinced that purposeful discrimination must be proved to recover under Title VI, and plaintiffs themselves really don't argue that they have proven intentional discrimination on anyone's part. If I misapprehended their position, I expressly say that even if discriminatory impact could be said to be established under the record, that would not be enough in a case resting on either constitutional grounds or on Title VI. Title VI and the Constitution permit recovery only where intent is proven, and there was no proof of any such intent. This is equally true as to plaintiffs' claim under 20 U.S.C. § 1703 [the EEOA]. 55/

District No. 3, 56/ the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit affirmed a judgment for the school district in a suit brought by Mexican-American and Yaqui Indian students to compel implementation of a bilingual/bicultural education program in lieu of a program of remedial instruction in English already offered by the district. Of the 12,280 students in the entire district, it appeared that approximately 18 percent were Mexican-American or Yaqui Indian and that 554 of 605 students attending elementary school in Guadalupe rece from those ethnic groups. The plaintiffs did not object to the district's present efforts to deal with their language difficulties but complained only that its imiliare to provide instruction "both in the child's own language, Spanish, and the language of the majority culture, English" violated their rights under the Constitution, title VI, and section 1703(f) of the EEOA.

In rejecting the plaintiffs' claim that bilingual education is required by the Equal Protection Clause, the court of appeals found that since education is not a "fundamental right" under the Constitution, 57/ the existing program

^{55/ 470} F. Supp. at 331.

^{56/ 587} F. 2d 1022 (9th Cir. 1978).

 $[\]frac{577}{1,\,1973}$ Citing, San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez, 411 U.S. $\overline{1,\,1973}$.

of remedial instruction in English satisfied the dietrict's constitutional obligations as a "retional" response to their lenguage needs.

We hold that the appelless fulfilled their equal protection duty to children of Mexican-American and Yequi Indian origin when they shopted measures, to which the appellants do not object, to cure existing language deficiencies of non-English-spasking students. There exists no constitutional duty imposed by the Equal Protection Clause to provide bilingual-bicultural education such as the appellante request. The decision of appellees to offer the relational program attacked by appellants bears a retional relationship to legitimate; stete 'nterests. Nor, so far ee the record-reveals, does the appelless' program fail 'to provide each child with an opportunity to acquire the basic minimal skills necessary to the enjoyment of the rights of speech and of full participation in the political process. \ 58/

Noting the "uncertainty" engendered by the Supreme Court's Bakke ruling in regard to applicable title VI standards, the Court was similarly persuaded that the plaintiffs could not prevail under that etetute.

Appallants argue that the failure to implement a bilingualbicultural education program staffed with bilingual instructors forecloses them from meaningful education and that they receive fever benefits from the district's educational programs than do Englishspeaking children. We do not agree. Providing the appellanta with remedial instruction in English which appellants appear to admit

58/ In further discourse on the constitutional issue, the court stated:

The decision of the appellees to provide a predominately monocultural and monolingual educational system was a rational response to a quintessentially 'legitimate' state interest. The same perforce would be said were the appellacs to edopt the appellants' damends and be challenged by an English-epeaking child and his parants whose ancestors

were pilgrims.

Whataver may be the consequences, good or bad, of many tongues and cultures existing within a single nation-state, whether the children of this Nation are taught in one tongue and about primarily one cultura or in many tongues and about many cultures cannot be determined by reference to to the Constitution. We hold, therefore, that the Constitution neither requires not prohibits the bilingual and bicultural education sought by appellants. Such matters are for the people to decide. 587 p. 24 at 1027.





complies with Lau's mandate makes evailable the meaningful aduction and the equality of aducational opportunity that Saction 601 requires. There is no suggestion that appelless' remedial program operates 'as an educational deadand or permanent track.' 59/

Finally, the court found that section 1703 (f) of the EEOA would be violated only if the board had "made no plans or provisions to deal with the language handicap." 60/

Other cases have dealt with constitutional claims to bilingual/bicultural education within the context of formulating plans to desegregate the public schools under the Fourteenth Amendment. In Reyes v. School District No. 1 61/the Tenth Circuit refused to order bilingual/bicultural education as a remedy to elimate the consequences of de jure segregation and expressly held that the "Cardenas Plan," a specific program of bilingual/bicultural education, was not required by the Constitution. The district court's finding that the entire Denver district was an illegal dual school system was affirmed, but on the issue of providing bilingual instruction, the lower court was found to have transgressed the limits of its power. The Cardenas Plan, also involved in



^{59/ 587} F. 2d at 1027-1030.

^{60/} In this regard, the court explained:

Because Section 1703 (f) was proposed as an amendment from the floor of the House, there is very little legislative history. No previous decision has interpreted the acope of the 'appropriate action' requirement. Insamuch as, to rapeat, the appellants do not challange the appelleas effort to cure existing language deficiencies we are not asked to decide whether their chosen program constitutes 'appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional program.' Rather the issue is whether 'appropriate action' moust include the bilingual bicultural education the appellants seek. Wa hold that it need not. To hold as 'ppellants urge us to do would distort the relevant statutory language severely. The interpretation of floor amendments unaccompanied by illuminating debate should adhere closely to the ordinary meaning of the amendment's language. 587 F. 2d at 1030.

Otero, was premised on the theory that the poor performance of minority children in public schools results form "incompatibilities" between the cultural characteristics of minority students and the middle class methods and expectations of the school system involved. In rejecting plaintiffs' assertion that the Equal Protection Clause required the institution of such a pian, either to have meaningful desegregation or equal educational apportunity, the Tenth Circuit, nevertheless, sgreed that a meaningful desegregation program must include the transition of Spanish-epeaking children to the English language. However, the court concluded that, in this instance, the lower court's order was improper since it went beyond the more attainment of proficiency in the English language end imposed upon school authorities "a pervasive and detailed system for the aducation of minority children."

In Morgan v. Kerrigan, 62/ a Federal district court aought to deal with the potential conflict perceived by the Tenth Circuit in Keyes between demands for bilingual education and desegregation requirements. After finding the Boston achools to be unconstitutionally segregated, the court ordered a desegregation plan that also provided for bilingual instruction. The plan's sasignment guidelines also took into account "other minority" students in a manner that went bayond simply aggregating them with black students in the process of developing achool composition limits. The plaintiff-intervenors, representing Spanish-epeaking students and their parents, asserted a right to adequate bilingual education, and requested the implementation of a

^{61/ 521} F. 2d 465 (10th Cir. 19°5), cart. danied 423 U.S. 1066,

^{62/ 401} F. Supp. 216 (D. Masa. 1975).

bilingust program for Hispanic students and others in need of this service. The court determined that in order to minimize their excessive dispersal, such students should be given priority in assigning them to schools ahead of other groups. The court felt that this would permit the "clustering" of bilingual classes, thus enabling them to comply with title VI.

In another post-<u>Lau</u> desegregation case, <u>United States</u> v. <u>Texas Education</u>

<u>Agency</u>, 63/ the Fifth Gircuit again perceived no conflict between desegregation and the institution of a bilingual education program. The district court had adopted a commitment by achool administrators to maintain an ongoing bilingual-bicultural education program that would continue "regardless of the level of federal funding" as part of an overall plan to desegregate the Austin, Texas schools. This was justified as necessary to assist Mexican-American students in adjusting to their new school environment and to assure them a meaningful desegregation.

[S]pecial education consideration . . . shall be given to the Mexican-American students in assisting them in adjusting to those parts of their new echool environment which present a cultural and linguistic shock. Equally clear, however, is the need to avoid the creation of a atigma of infariority . . . To avoid this result the Anglo-American studente too must be called upon to adjust to their Mexican-American classmates, and to learn to understend and appreciete their different linguistic and cultural attributes. The process by which all students participate in a joint learning and adjustment process will not only constitute an educational enrichment but, also, will bring the achool system as a whole closer to that goal or state—Merbeing referred to by the Supreme Court as a unitary system. 64/

The court of appeals affirmed the inclusion of this commitment as part of the desegregation plan by asserting that "state and federal law requires as much."



^{63/ 532} F. 2d 380 (5th Cir. 1976).

^{64/ 342} F. Supp. 24, 28 (g.o. Tex. 1971).

Again, no mention was made of the possible conflict between bilingual education and desegregation remedies, and bilingual/bicultural programs were ordered for all students.

Other courts, though not going so far as to require bilingual education for all students, have recognized that bilingual progress may facilitate the desegregation process and have ordered their implementation as an element of a desgregation plan. 65/ Fashioning a remedy for de jure segregation, however, is a task quite distinct from determining whether there exists a constitutional right to bilingual/bicultural education where segregation is not the issue. The first involves, as Swenn v. Charlotte-Hecklenburg Soard of Education 66/ directs, a balancing of "individual end collective interests" having as its goals the correction of de jure segregation. Determining that a remedy which includes bilingual education is appropriate to further the correction of de jure segregation does not a fortiori make it a constitutional entitlement where such conditions are not present. 67/

In conclusion, it appears that while there is judicial support for the proposition that title VI as interpreted by Lau contemplates a program of bilinguel education to assure the meaningful participation of non-English-speaking public echools students, authority to the contrary may also be found



^{65/} Kvans v. Buchanan, 447 F. Supp. 982, 1016 (D. Del.). aff'd 582 F. 2d 750 (3d Cir. 1978) (ordering "curriculum offerings and programs which suphasize and reflect the cultural pluralism of the studente"); Bradley v. Milliken, 402 F. Supp. 1096, 1144 (E.D. Mich. 1975), aff'd 433 U.S. 267, 1977; Quality of Education for All Children, Inc. v. School Board, 385 F. Supp. 803 (M.D. III. 1974).

^{66/ 402} U.S. 1, 1971.

^{67/} See, Guadalupe Organization, Inc. v. Tempe Elementery School District No. 3, 587 F. 2d 1022, 1028 (9th Cir. 1978).

in the cases. Sarna found a title VI right to bilingual education where a "aubstantial" number of students are involved but, significantly, the school officials there had taken no affirmative steps to assist the district's English-deficient students. In addition, although the Serna court made no specific findings to that effect, there was arguable support in the record for an inference of past intentional discrimination by the district against such students. 68/ The order in Aspira was entered by consent decree and the court never decided the merits of the title VI claims. As such, Rios and Cintron, which required implementation of the Lau Remedias in place of remedial instruction in English, provide the strongest support for a mandatory obligation on school districts to provide bilingual instruction. However, those decisions are st odds with Guadelupe and the latest Otero ruling, both decided after Bakke, which interpreted the Constitution and title VI as not requiring school districts which already provided some form of remedial English instruction to institute a bilingual education program.



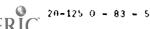
^{68/} See, 499 F. 2d at 1149-50.

CHAPTER 5

HISPANICS IN THE U.S. LABOR FORCE: A BRIEF EXAMINATION 1/by Dennis H. Roth Economics Division

1. POPULATION 2/

The Hispanic population 3/ in the United States has been growing rapidly, registering a 25 percent increase (3.2 percent annual rate of growth) from March 1973 to March 1980. The total population increase, on the other hand, was only 3.7 percent (0.5 percent annual rate of growth) over this time period. Rapid population growth has taken place within each Hispanic ethnic subgroup. Mexicans increased their population by 26.0 percent over this period, Puerto Ricans by 18.3 percent, Cubana by 13.4 percent (the Herch 1978 to Harch 1980 increase was large enough to reverse the Harch 1973 to Harch 1978 decline), Central and South Americans by 71.2 percent, and the "other" Spanish origin population by 16.3 percent, reversing a Harch 1973 to March 1979 decline. In March 1980 persons of Hispanic origin or descent residing in the United States (excluding Puerto Rico) made up 6.1 percent of the total U.S. population. Of the more than 13 million U.S. residents of Hispanic origin, the largest group is Mexicans with nearly 8 million individuals. The remaining Hispanic population is made up of 1.8 million Puerto, Ricans, 0.8 million Cubans, 1.0 million Central or South Americans, and about 1.6 million persons of other Rispanic origin or descent. Since these Hispanic ethnic groups entered the



^{1/} This paper is an update and expansion of an earlier paper by the same title and author. (Report No. 81-13 E, January 14, 1981.)

^{2/} Source. Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States, Harch 1973; Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 264 and same publication for March 1980, No. 361. The current population survey used to gather these data may not include all Hispanics. For a discussion of this problem as it relates to the census, see: Jacob S. Siegel and Jeffrey S. Passel, Coverage of the Hispanic population of the United States in the 1970 census: a methodological analysis. Current Population Reports, Special Studies, Series P-23, No. 82.

^{3/} Reaident population excluding persons in institutions and Armed forces in barracks.

United States for different reasons, in different regions of the country, and during different time periods, they also demonstrate different patterns of labor force behavior.

In 1980 more than 60 percent of persons of Spanish origin lived in five Southwastern States (Arizons, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Taxes) and most of these persons were of Maxican origin. Nearly another 11.5 percent of the Rispanic population resided in New York State; the State of Florida accounted for another 5.9 percent of the total.

Spanish families are more concentrated in matropolitan areas than non-Spanish families. In March 1980 about 83 percent of Spanish families lived in these areas as compared with 67 percent for a 1 other families in the Nation. In addition, about three out of every five metropolitan resident Spanish-origin families lived in the cantral cities of those areas.

Praca of residence is not consistent across all ethnic Hispanic groups.

While nearly all Puerto Rican and Cuban families lived in metropolitan areas

(94 and 97 percent respectively), nearly 80 percent of the Puerto Rican

families lived in central cities while this was true for only 41 percent of the

Cuban families. Slightly less than 80 percent of Hexican-origin families lived

in metropolitan areas with only 55 percent living in the central cities.

Unlika Puerto Rican and Cuban families, however, Mexican families were much

more likely to live in nonmetropolitan areas (5.4 percent, 3.3 percent, and

20.7 percent respectively).

The high proportion of nonmetropolitan Mexican families and central-city

Puerto Rican families probably explains part of their employment problems. On

the other hand nearly three-fifths of Cuban families lived in the suburbs where

over the past decade many jobs have been created. Unfortunately, the level of

aggregation of the data does not let us, at this time, make more than

conjectures about the importance of residence on employment status.

II. HISPANIC PARTICIPATION IN THE U.S. LABOR MARKET

As a group, Hispanica participate in the labor market at a rata very aimslar to that of all workers. (In 1980 the labor force participation rates were 64.0 percent and 63.8 percent, respectively.) However, hidden in this aggragate rata are significant differences among various age-sex groups. And when these same data are broken down into the various Hispanic ethnic groups, additional differences become evident.



In 1990 the labor force participation rate of adult Hiapanic men (20 years old and over) was 85.2 percent as compared to 79.4 percent for all adult men. Howevery other than the 20 to 24 year olds and the 55 year olds and over, adult Hiapanic men were slightly less likely to participate in the labor force than men overall. (See Table 1.) The higher overall labor force participation rate results from the fact that the current Hiapanic male population in the U.S. is, on average, younger than the non-Hiapanic male population in the United States (in 1980 50.9 percent of the adult Hiapanic men were between the ages of 20 and 34 as compared to 39.8 percent for all adult men) and because young adult men traditionally hold higher labor force participation rates than older men.

For adult Hiapanic women the overall labor force participation rate is somewhat lover than the rate for all adult women (in 1980 the labor force participation rates were 48.8 percent and 51.3 percent, respectively).

However, the closeness of the overall rates is not what it seems to be. For most of the specific age groups for which data are reported, Hiapanic women have labor force participation rates 7.5 to 12 percentage points lower than all adult women.

This apparent discrepancy results from the fact that adult Hispanic women, similar to adult Hiapanic men, are younger than their non-Hispanic counterparts, and young adult women tend to have higher labor force participation than older women. (In 1980 47.4 percent of adult Hispanic women were between the ages of 20 to 34 as compared to 36.3 percent for all women.)

Differences in the rates of labor force participation also exist across the various groups of the Hispanic population. In 1981 Mexicana, Cubana, and other non-Puerto Rican Hispanics had labor force participation rates in the 64 to 67 percent range, about the same as among the overall working-age U.S. population (see Table 4). However, in the case of working-age Puerto Ricana, only one-half (50.0 percent) participated in the U.S. labor marke. This significant difference can be attributed to the lower labor force participation rates of Puert Rican teenagers and adult women. In 1981, only 25.1 percent of Puerto Rican teenagers and 36.9 percent of Puerto Rican adult women participated in the labor force as opposed to 52.8 percent and 41.6 percent of Mexican and Cuban teenagers and 50.1 and 53.9 percent of Mexican and Cuban adult women. Puerto Rican adult men, on the other hand, were nearly as likely to participate in the labor market as their Cuban counterparts, but less likely than their Mexican counterparts.



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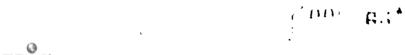
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TABLE 1: Labor Force Participation Rates 1/2 and Age Distribution of Adult Hispanic Men and Women, 1980

Age group	Labor force participation rate				Age gr	Age group as a % of adult population				
	All men	Hispanic men	A11 women	Hispanic women	A11 men	Hispanic s	All women	Hispanic women		
20 and over	79.4	85.2	51.3	48.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
20 - 24	86.0	88.2	69.0	57.1	14.6	20.1	13.2	18.0		
25 - 34	95.3	93.5	65.4	53.9	25.2	30.8 -	23.1	29.4		
35 - 44	95.5	94.1	65.5	56.0	17.2	18.7	16.1	18.9		
45 - 54	91.2	91.0	59.9	52.0	15.1	14.0 '	14.6	14.5		
55 - 64	72.3	72.5	41.5	32.9	13.9	8.9	14.3	9.7'		
65 +	19.1	19.4	8.1	4.9	14.1	7.5	18.8	9.5		

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

^{1/} Percent of civilian noninstitutional population in the civilian labor force.



III. CHANCES IN THE HISPANIC LABOR FORCE

From 1973 to 1981 several changes have taken place in the demographic composition of the Hispanic labor force. 4/ On an average annual basis, the labor force participation rate of all adult Hispanic males remained relatively stable over the period. A large decline (of more than 8 percentage points), however, occurred among Puerto Ricans (their) participation rate has atabilized since 1976). This decline has been attributed, in part, to the concentration of adult Puerto Rican, men in the declining occupations in New York City.

From 1973 to 1981 the number of adult Hiapanic women in the labor force has grown by nearly 82 percent. This phenomenon, however, was more the result of an increase in the female Hispanic working-age population due to ongoing migration, rather than an increase in the propensity to be in the labor force. Yet, the labor force participation rate of adult Hispanic women did rise during the period commensurate with the rate for all adult women (8.8 and 7.8 percentage points, respectively). While the labor force participation rate for Puerto Rican women declined from 1973 to 1977, it increased from 1977 to 1981, peaking in 1980. In 1979 one-half of all working-age mainland Puerto Ricans resided in New York City. From 1969 to 1977 overall employment in the city fell by 12.6 percent while the working-age population fell by only 1.8 percent. Approximately 75 percent of this employment decline took place in clerical and operative jobs which, in 1977, accounted for nearly two-thirds of the employed Fuerto Rican women.

IV. RELATIVE UNEMPLOYMENT

From 1973 through 1981, Hispanics have accounted for a disproportionate share of U.S. unemployment. While comprising between 4 and 5.5 percent of the civilian labor force during the time period, they have accounted for 6 tq 7.5 percent of the Nation's unemployed. Typically, the Hispanic unemployment rate is about 40 to 50 percent greater than the overall rate. (The black unemployment rate ranges 75 to 100 percent greater than the overall rate.)

As with the labor force participation rate data, when broken down on the basis of ethnicity, the unemployment data yield differences across the groups. (See Table 2.) Of all Hispanic groups, Puerto Rican workers have had the highest rate of unemployment from 1976 through 1981, being 30 to 45 percent

^{4/} This time period was chosen because 1973 is the first year for which comparable data are available.



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higher than the overall Hispanic rata and 80 to 100 percent higher than the rata for all workers. Cubans have had the lowest unemployment rate among Hispanics, their rate being 25 percent or less than the overall Hispanic rate but 10 to 50 percent greater than the rate for all workers. Mexicans have had unemployment rates approximately the same as the overall Hispanic unemployment rate. The higher overall rate of unemployment for Fuerto Rican workers and lower rate for Cuban workers also holds true for most age-sex groups.

The lower Cuban rate results from the fact that nearly 60 percent of their labor force is aged 35 years and over (see Table 3), while less than 45 percent of Hexican and only 36 percent of Fuerto Rican workers are in that age group. Traditionally, workers aged 35 and over (particularly men) have lower rates of unemployment than younger workers, because they are more mature, are more likely to have marketable skills and work experience, and display a greater degree of labor market stability. An additional reason why Cuban workers are more highly employed is because they have higher levels of education. Hany of the Cubans who fied to the United States prior to 1979 came as a result of the 1959 revolution and were primarily middle class white collar workers or skilled or semiskilled blue collar workers. The workers in the recent flood of Cuban migrants, however, are not as highly skilled as their predecessors. On the other hand, many of the Mexican and Fuerto Rican migrants who came to the United States were poorly educated, unable to speak fluent English and willing to accept low-paying employment which required little or no education.

TABLE 2: Hispanic Unemployment Rates by Mational Origin

	Unemployment rate						
	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	
Total	7.7	7.0	6.0	5.8	7.1	7.6	
Total Hiapanic Origin	11.6	10.1	9.1	8.3	10.1	10.5	
Mexican Origin	11.2	10.1	8.9	. 8.2	10.3	10.5	
Puerto Rican Origin	15.7	13.6	, 13.2	11.5	13.7	13.7	
Cuban Origin	11.4	8.8	7.0	7.8	7.9	9.0	

Source: Table 41, Handbook of Labor Statistica, 1978, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, p. 133; Employment and Earnings, January 1979, 1980 and 1982, Table 45, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.



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TABLE 3: Parcent Distrib Lion of the Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment Rates by Sex, Age, and Hispanic Origin, 1981 Annual Avarages (numbers in thousands)

	Percent Distribution of the Civilian Labor Force				Unemployment Rate			
,	All Workers	Mexican Origin	Puerto Ric Origin	origin	All Workera	Hexican Origin	Puerto Rica Origin	n Cuban Origin
Total, 16 years and ovar	108,670	3,757	583	483	8,273	393	80	44
In percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	7.6	10.5	13.6	٧.0
16-19 years	8.3	10.5	7.4	6.6	19.6	22.6	42.5	22.0
20-24 years	14.8	20.3	16.5	13.7	· 12.3	13.2	20.9	12.1
25-34 years	28.0	32.9	33.1	21.1	7.3	8.7	11.6	8.2
35-44 years	19.5	17.9	23.0	21.3	5.0	7.0	9.1	8.1
45-54 years	15.6	11.9	14.2	22.6	4.2	6.7	5.0	6.1
55-64 Years	11.0	5.6	Š.7	11.8	3.7	7.9	7.8	7.8
65+ years	2.8	0.9	0.3	2.9	3.2	7.3		5.4
Hen, 15 years and over	61,974	2,381	358	282	4,577	238	51	26
In percent	100.6	100.0	100.0	100.0	7.4	10.0	14.2	9.1
16-19 years	7.7	10.1	6.7	6.4	20.1	22.4	44.4	21.9
20-24 years	14.0	20.0	15.6	13.8	13.2	13.1	25.3	14.4
25-34 years	28.2	33.0	33.0	20.6	6.9	8.4	12.3	8.7
35-44 yeara	19.6	17,5	23.7	19.9	4.5	.5.8	7.8	9.4
45-54 yeara	15.9	12.1	14.2	23.4	4.0	6.3	5.7	4.8
55-64 years	11.6	6.3	6.2	12.4	3.6	7,4	9.1	5.5
65+ years	3.0	1.1	0.6	1 5	2.9	9.0		7.3
Women, '16 years and over	46,696	1,375	227	200	3,696	155	29	18
In parcent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	7.9	11.3	12.6	9.0
16-19 years	9.0	11.1	8.4	7.0	19.0	22.8	40.1	22.1
20-24 years	16.0	20.9	18.1	13.0	11.2	13.4	14.7	8.8
125-34 yeara	27.7	32.8	33.0	22.0	7.7	9.1	10.4	7.6
35-44 yeara	19.4	18.8	21.6	23.5	5.7	8.9	11.3	6.5
45-54 years	15.2	11.6	14.1	22.0	4.6	7.6	4.0	8.2
55464 yeara	10.3	4.4	4.8	11.0	3.8	9.2	5.3	11.4
65+ years	2.5	0.4		1.5	3.7			

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistica, U.S. Department of Labor.



V. EMPLOYMENT

In 1981 there were approximately 5.1 million employed Hispanic Americans in the United States. here than 57 percent of their working-age population was employed, very close to the 59 percent for all workers. Differences do exist, however, when the Hispanic population is broken down by national origin, age and sex groups (see Table 4).

Overall, Puerto Ricans were the least likely to be employed of any Riapanic group. Puerto Rican teenagers are less than half as likely to be employed as their Cuban counterparts and about one-third as likely as their Hexican counterparts. Puerto Rican adult wome were nearly three-fourths as likely to be employed as their Hexican counterparts, and nearly two-thirds as likely to be employed as their Guban counterparts. As discussed earlier, Puerto Ricans nave a much lower rate of labor force participation than their Hexican and Cuban counterparts, especially tesnagers and adult women. While this may partially explain their low employment/population ratio, it is equally as likely that the low probability of finding employment reduces the desire of Puerto Rican teenagers and adult women to participate in the labor market.

Among adult men Puerto Ricans are also less likely to have been employed than their Hexican and Cuban counterparts, however, the differences across these three groups are much smaller than those across teensgers and sdult women.

VI OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION 5/

Employed Hispanics in 1981, as in earlier years, tended to be concentrated in those occupations which are characterized by low pay and low skill requirements, much more so than the overall workforce.

Hore than 75 percent of Mexican, Fuelto Nican, and Cuban women were employed in three occupational categories: clerical, non-ransport operatives, 6/ and aervice. (This compares to nearly two-thirds employed in these occupations for all women workers.) While the percent of Hispanic women working in clerical occupations is somewhat similar to employed women overall, the percent employed in operativas other than transport was more than double



^{5/} This section is based on the data presented in Table 5.

^{6/} Nontransport operative occupations include aewers and stitchers, acceptlers, clothing ironers and pressers, dressmakers and seamstresses, graders and sorters and checkers, examiners, and inspectors (manufacturing), packers and wrappers (excluding meat and produce), textile operatives.

and for some ethnic groups triple the overall rate. Nearly 30 percent of Cuban women, about one-fourth of Puerco Rican women and more than one-fifth of Hexican women held nontransport operative jobs as compared to one-tenth of all women. Hispanic women employed in service occupations differed by ethnic group. 7/ Inverestingly, Puerco Rican and Cuban women were less likely than women in general to be employed in service occupations. On the other hand, Hexican women were nearly more than 10 percent as likely as women in general to be employed in service occupations. As a corollary to Hispanic women a high representation in the clerical, nontransport operative and service occupations, they were underrepresented (when compared to all employed women in general) in the professions, and technical and managerial and administrative occupations.

Except for Puerto Ricans, the predominant occupational category of Hispanic men was in craft and kindred workers, employing about 20 to 21 percent of each ethnic group (for Puerto Ricans more than 15 percent). This percentage compares favorably with the 20.7 percent rate for all employed men. On the other hand, Hispanic men were overrepresented in the nontransport operative, nonform labor, and service occupations.

As has been true of the examination of the data so far, it is necessary to examine the male occupational data by ethnic breakdowns. Approximately II percent of all men were employed in nontransport operative occupations compared to 19 percent of all Hispanic men. When broken down into ethnic groups, 21 percent of the employed Puerto Rican men (nearly double the overall rate), 20 percent of Mexican men (more than one and one-half times the overall rate), and 12.5 percent of Guban men were employed in these occupations.

The thate of Hispanic men engaged in nonfarm labor occupations was more than 50 percent higher than the percentage of all men in this occupational category (11 percent as 7 percent, respectively). However, the proportion of Mexican men in this occupational group was from 50 to 70 percent higher than that of their Puerto Rican and Cuban counterparts. Nearly 13 percent of Mexican men were nonfarm laborers as opposed to 7 percent of the Cuban and 8.5 percent of the Fuerto Rican men.

Hispanic male representation in the service occupation was nearly 50 percent greater than the representation of uen overall (13 percent and



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^{7/} Service occupations include housekeepera, cleaning service workers, food service workers, health service workers, personal service workers, etc.

TABLE 4: Employment Status of Hispanic Workers 16 Years Old and Over by Sex and Age, 1981 Annual Averages

Employed status, sex and age (numbers in thousands)	Total All workers	Total Hispanic Origin 2/-	Mexican Origin	Puerto Rican Origin	Cuban Origin
Total		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,			
Civilian noninstitutional population	170,130	9,310	5,642	1,165	750
Civilian labor force	108,670	5,972	3,757	583	483
Participation rate $1/$	63.9	64.1	66.6	50.0	,64.4
Employment	100,397	5,348	3,364	504	\439
Employment-population ratio	59.0	57 .4 •	Š9 • 6	43.3	58.5
Unémployment	8,273	624	393	79	44
Unemployment rate	7.6	10.4	10.5	13.6	9.0
Median duratión (weeks)	6.9	1529	5.0	8.7	10.0
Men 20 Years and Over	•	,			
Civilian noninstitutional population	72,419	3,914	2,457	431	328
Civilian labor force	57,197	3,321	2,141	333	264
Participation rate $1/$	79.0	84.8	87.1	77.3	80.5
Empldyment	53,582	3,028	1,957	293	243
Employment-population ratio	74.0	77 . 4	79.6	68.0	74.1
Unemployment	2,384	293	184	40	22
Unemployment rate	6.3	8.8	8.6	12.0	
Median duration (weeks)	9.0	7.0	5.7	10.9	12,1

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Women 20 Years and older					
Civilian noninstitutional population	81,497	4,220	2,441	563	345
Civilian labor force	42,485	2,106	1,223	208	186
Participation rate $1/$	52.1	49.9	50 -1	36.9	53.9
Employment	39,590	1,906	1,102	186	172
Employment-population ratio	48.6	45.2	45.1	33.0	49.49
Unemployment	2,895	200	120	21	15
Unemployment rate	6.8	9.5	9.8	10.2	8.0
Median duration (weeks)	6.4	5.0	4.8	7.0	11.5
Both Sexes, 16-19 years					
Civilian noninstitutional population	16,214	1,176	744	171	77
Civilian labor force	8,988	545	393	43	32
Participation rate 1/	55.4	46.3	52.8	25.1	41.6
Employment	7,225	414	304	25	25
Employment-population ratio	44.6	35.2	40.9	14.6	32.5
Unemployment	1,763	131	89	18	7
Unemployment rate	í9.6	24.0	22.6	42.5	21.9
Median duration (weeks)	4.8	4.9	4.7	6.2	5.0

Source: Employment and Earnings, March 1982, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, pp. 157 and 158.

1/ Ratio of civilian labor force to civilian noninstitutional population.

2/ Total Hispanic is greater than sum of ethnic groups shown due to inclusion of persons of Central and South American origin and other Hispanic origin, not shown separately.



TABLE S: Percent Distribution of Employed Persons of Hispanic Origin, by Occupation and Sex, 1981 Annual Averages

	Total sa	ployed	_	White coller					Blue collet	•		
Andrew and	Number		Professional	Managere and			Craft and		Operativas, equipeent	Honfarm		
Origin and sex	thousands)	Percent	and tachnical	edministrators	54100	Clesacai	kindrad	cranaport	Objection	labor	Service	Pacu
Total 16 years and older	100,357	100.0	16.4	11.5	6.4	18.5	12.6	10.5	3.5	4.6	13.4	2.7
Total Hispanic	5,349	100.0	8.1	6.6	3.9	16.3	13.2	20.1	4.2	7.3	16.5	3.8
Mexicas	3,364	100.0	4.5	5.5	3.5	14.9	14.2	20.7	4.5	8.9	15.5	5.7
Puerco Rican	504	100.0	9.7	6.5	2.8	22.4	10.1	22.8	4.0	5.6	15.9	6.4
Cuben	439	100.0	11.6	10.7	5.9	14.5	13.2	19.4	3.9	4.8	ii.4	0.2
Hem 16 years and ever	57,397	100.0	15.9	14.6	6.1	6.3	20.7	11.1	5.5	7.1	8.9	3.9
Yotal Hispanic	3,273	100.0	7.7	7.8	3.1	6.4	20.1	16.9	6.6	10.9	13.3	5.2
Hexican	2,144	100.0	5.7	6.3	2.6	5.0	20.9	20.2	6.4	12.7	12.2	7.5
Puerte Ricae	306	100.0	4.5	6.9	2.6	13.1	15.4	20.6	6.2	8.5	17.6	0.3
Cubea	256	100.0	12.9	14.5	6.2	9.4 .	20.7	12.5	6.6	7.4	9.4	0.4
Women 16 years and ever	43,000	100.0	17.0	7.4	6.8	34.7	1.9	9.7	0.7	1.3	19.4	1.1
Total Hispanic	2,076	100.0	. 6.8	4.7	5.1	31.9	2.4	22.0	0.4	1.6	* 21.4	1.6
Mezican	1,220	100.0	8.0	4.3	5.2	32.4	2.5	21.6	0.5	2.2	21.1	2.5
Puerto Rican	198	100.0	11.6	6.1	3.0	36.4	2.5	25.8	0.5	0.5	13.1	0.5
Cubia	183	100.0	9.9	5.5	4.9	31.9	2.2	29.7		1.1	14.8	-





^{*} Source: Surseu of Labor StatiStica, U.S. Department of Labor, unpublished data.

^{1/} Numbers may not add up to 100 due to rounding.

9 percent, respectively). The percentage of Puerto Rican men employed in the service occupations, however, was nearly two times the rate for man overall and between 44 to 90 percent higher than their Mexican and Cuban counterparts. Thus, among the various Hispanic ethnic ups, Puerto Rican men were the most highly represented in the nontransport operative and service occupations which are characterized by low pay and low akills. Hispanic representation in these two occupational groups (nontransport operatives and service) in 1981 was: Puerto Rican, 38.2 percent; Mexican, 32.4 percent; and Cuban 21.9 percent. (For men overall the rate was 20 percent.) On the other hand, Cuban men were the most likely to have the better paying, higher skilled jobs. The percentage of Hispanic men in the professional and technical, managerial and administrative. and craft and kindred occupations (by ethnic group) in 1981 was: Cubans 48.1 percent. Mexicans, 32.9 percent, and Puerto Ricans, 30.8 percent. (For men overall the rate was 51.2 percent.) A major factor why Cuban men have faired better in the U.S. labor market is the fact that they are older and better educated and trained than their Mexican and Puerto Rican counterparts.

VII. HISTORICAL TRENDS 8/

Due to limitations of the data, an analysis of occupational advancement among Hispanics is limited to the 1973-81 period. Although Hispanics are underrepresented in the higher paying and more skilled occupations, they have improved their overall status in the labor market to some extent over the past several years. However, Hispanic men did not do as well as Hispanic women.

Hispanic men were more likely to be employed in the professional and technical, managerial, and craft and kindred worker occupations in 1981 than in 1973, but only marginally so (35.6 percent in 1981 as opposed to 32.4 percent in 1973). The largest occupational declines for Hispanic men were in the non-transport operative and farmworker categories.

Hispanic women, on the other hand, geined in the clerical, professional and technical, and managerial and administrative occupations (see Table 6).

The greatest occupational decline for Hispanic women was in the nontransport operative occupations. Generally speaking, Hispanics improved their labor market status relative to the improvement made by \$11 workers.



^{8/} The discussion in this section is based on the data in Table 6.

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TABLE 6: Distribution of Employed Persons, Total and Hispanic Origin, 16 Years and Over, by Occupation and Sex, 1973 and 1981

		1973		1981			
Occupation	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	
TOTAL .		_					
Total Employed (000's)	84,409	51,963	32,446	100,397	57,397	43,000	
Percent Distribution	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
White-collar workers	47.8	39.9	60.€	52.7	42.9	65.9	
Professional and technical	14.0	13.6	14:5	16.4	15.9	17.0	
Managers and administrators, nonfarm	10.2	13.6	4.9	11.5	14.6	7.4	
Sales workers	6.4	6.1	6.9	6.4	6.1	6.8	
Clerical workers	17.2	6.6	34.3	18.5	6.3	34.7	
Blue-collar workers	35.4	47.3	16.1	31.1	44.3	13.6	
Craft and kindred workers	13.4	20.8	1.4	12.6	20.7	1.9	
Operatives, except transport	13.0	12.8	13.3	10.5	11.1	9.7	
Transport equipment operatives	3.9	6.0	0.5	3.5	5.5	0.7	
Nonfarm laborers	5.1	7.7	0.9	4.6	7.1	1.3	
Service Workers	13.2	7.9	21.6	13.4	8.9	19.4	
Farm workers	3.6	4.8	1.6	2.7	3,9	1.1	

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Total Employed (000's)	3,333	2,158	1,175	5,349	3,273	2,076
Percent Distribution	100.0	100.0	1Ó0.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White-collar workers	28.9	22.9	39.8	34.9	25.0	50.5
Professional and technical	6.5	6.3	6.9	8.1	7.7	8.8
Managers and administrators, nonfarm	5.5	7.1	2.6	6.6	7.8	4.7
Sales workers	3.7	3.2	4.4	3.9	3.1	5.1
Clerical workers	13.2	6.3	25.9	16.3	6.4	31.9
Blue-collar workers	49.8	57.7	35.3	44.8	56.5	26.4
Craft and kindred workers	13.0	19.0	1.9	13.2	20.1	2.4
Operatives, except transport	24.3	20.1	32.2	20.1	18.9	22.0
Transport equipment operatives	4.5	6.9	0.2	4.2	6.6	0.4
Nonfarm laborers	8.0	11.7	1.0	7.3	10.9	1.6
Service workers	15.8	12.2	22.4	16.5	13.3	21.4
Farm workers	5.5	7.3	2.7	3.8	5.2	1.6

Source: Morris J. Newman, A profile of Hispanics in the U.S. work force, Monthly Labor Review, December 1978, p. 11 and Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

* Hispanic data for 1973 and 1981 are not strictly comparable because the 1981 estimates incorporate the expanded sample size and revised estimation procedures introduced in the national sample in January 1978.



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In summary, even though Halpanics were able to improve their occupational standing in the U.S. labor market from 1973 to 1981, they are still overrepresented in the low paying, low ekilled occupations. However, it does appear that Hiepanice will be able to further improve their occupational status in the U.S. if past trends continue.

VIII. EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS

A. Education

The educational attainment of the Hispanic population 25 years old and over is significantly below the level of the total population. In Harch 1979 only 42 percent of Spanish-origin individuals in this age group had completed four years of high school or more compared to nearly 70 percent of the non-Spanish-origin population in the same age group. By national-origin group nearly 35 percent of Hexican-origin, 39 percent of Puerto Rican-origin, and elightly more than 50 percent of Cuban-rigin individuals 25 years old or over had completed high school.

Nearly one out of every six (17.6 percent) Hispsnice aged 25 or older had not completed even five years of school compared to one out of every 36 for the nou-Hispsnic population in this age group. Again athnic differences are evident. One out of every four Hexican-origin, one out of every seven Puerto Rican-origin, and one out of every 14.5 Culan-origin individuals sged 25 or older had not completed at least five yeavs of school.

At the other end of the educational spectrum, only one out of every fifteen Rispsnic-origin individuals (25 years old or over) had completed four years of college (March 1979) as compared to one out of every six in the non-Hispanic population of the same age group. One out of every eight Cubsns and one out of every 25 Fuerto Ricans and Hexicans aged 25 and over had completed four or more years of college.

While the overall educational ettainment level is low, younger Hispanics show significant improvement over their elders. About 57 percent of Spanish-origin individuals aged 25 to 29 have completed four or more years of high school, whereas only 34 percent of Hispanic persons aged 45 to 64 have attained this level. This trend is true scross ethnic groups. It should be noted, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October 1980, p. 5., however,





ABLE 7. Percent of the U.S. Spanish-Origin Population 25 Years Old and Over, by Years of School Completed, Type of Spanish Origin, and Age: March 1979

Years of school completed and age	76tal Spanish origin	Hexican origin	Puerto Rican origin	Cuban origin	Other Spanish origin ¹	Not of Spanish erigin ²
PERCENT COMPLETED LESS THAN 5 YEARS OF SCHOOL				·		
Total, 25 years and over	17.6	23.9	14.4	6.9	6.7	2.8
25 to 29 years	8.4 11.8 13.5 21.3 44.9	11.7 16.1 19.0 30.0 64.3	2.6 8.6 14.3 18.5 (8)	(B) (B) 4.8 5.5 19.3	2.1 3.1 3.8 8.3 20.5	0.5 0.6 0.9 2.6 8.3
PERCENT COMPLETED 4 YEARS OF HIGH SCHOOL OR HORE	1			ļ		
Total, 25 years and over	42.0	34.9	38.6	50.4	60.8	68.9
25 to 29 years	57.1 51.0 44.5 33.5 15.9	50.3 42.8 36.0 25.3 7.1	59.3 45.0 38.8 26.3 (B)	(B) (B) 59.6 44.5 26.9	74.3 79.8 62.5 54.6 27.3	87.3 85.6 79.0 65.0 40.7
PERCENT COMPLETED 4 YEARS OF COLLEGE OR MORE						
Total. 25 years and over	6.7	3.9	4.1	12.0	13.8	16.9

B Base less than 75,000.

Source: Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States: March 1979, Current Population Reports, Population Characteristics, Series P-20, No. 354, W.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October 1980, p. 5.



includes Central or South American origin and other Spanish origin.

Includes persons who did not know or did not report on origin.

that the large gap in education between Spanish and non-Spanish persons 25 to 29 years old is not much different from the large gap between Hispanics and non-Hispanics for all persons 25 years old and over. (See Table 7.)

Low educational levels are a probable major cause of the employment problems experienced by Hispanic workers, particularly Mexican and Puerto Rican workers. Educational attainment has served as a screening criteria for employers and the low educational levels of Hispanics clearly puts them at a disadvantage in the highly competitive low-skilled labor market. Low educational levels also clearly eliminate Hispanics from the better paying, more highly skilled jobs.

B. Duration of Unemployment

A crude measure of the severity of unemployment is the measure of durstion of unemployment (length of s curr nt spell). Workers who, on the average, sre unemployed for long periods of time are much harder hit by unemployment than those workers with many short spells of unemployment and several jobs over a year.

In 1981 the median duration of unemployment (one-half of the population was unemployed for fewer and the other half for longer than the median) for Hispanics was 5.9 weeks as compared to 6.9 weeks for all workers (see Table 4). The lower median was perimarily due to the two weeks shorter duration for adult Hispanic males than all males and 1.4 weeks shorter duration of Hispanic women compared to all women. The median duration for Hispanic teenagers was .1 of a week above the median for all teensgera.

An examination of the ethnic data explains these differences. Unemployed Mexican workers had the shortest duration of unemployed not a veraging 5.0 weeks in 1981, considerably shorter than for all unemployed workers (6.9 weeks). The restively short median duration for Mexican workers, taken together with their high unemployment rate (10.5 percent), indicates that Mexican workers are prone to frequent but relatively shorter spells of unemployment than the average worker. This was true for both adult and teenage Mexicans. Adult Puerto Ricans and Gubans experienced both high median durations of unemployment and high unemployment rates in 1981. (See Table 4.) This indicates a problem of long-term unemployment.



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TABLE 8: Reasons for Unemployment, 1981

		Percant distribution of unemployed											
	Total				Hiep	panic			Hexican				
	Total	Both Sexes 16-19 Years	Hala 20 yeara and over	Femala 20 years and over	Total	Roth Saxea 16-19 Years	Hale 20 yeara and over			Total	Soth Saxes 16-19 Yeara	Kale 20 years and over	Femala 20 year: and ove
Total: number (000'a) percent	8,273 100.0	1,763 100.0	3,615 100.0	2.895 100.0	624 100.0	131 100.0	293 100.0	200 100.0		393 100.0	89 100.0	184 100.0	120 100.0
Job losers on layoff other	51.6 17.3 34.3	21.9 5.3 16.6	71.0 24.7 46.3	45.4 15.3 30.1	56.6 16.7 39.9	26.9 6.2 20.8	75.8 20.8 54.9	48.2 17.6 30.7	\	56.4 16.5 39.9	27.0 6.7 20.2	76.1 21.2 54.9	48.3 16.7 31.7
Job leavers	11.2	9.2	9.9	14.0	10.3	6.9	11.6	10.6	`	10.2	7.9	12.0	9.2
Job antranta re-entrants	37.3 25.4	68.9 27.6 41.3	19.2 16.4	40.5 35.3	33.0 20.8	66.2 25.4	12.6 10.9, -	41.2 32.2		33.3 20.9	65.2 24.7	12.0 10.9	42.5 33.3



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TABLE 8. Reasons for Unemployment, 1981-Continued

Percent distribution of unemployed

	_		Puert	o Rican		·	Cuban				
		Total	Both Sexes 16-19 Years	Male 20 years and over	Female 20 years and over	<u>Total</u>	Both Sexes 16-19 Years	Male 20 years and over	Female 20 years and over		
Total:	number (000's) percent	79 100.0	18 100.0	40 100.0	21 100.0	44 100.0	7 100.0	22 100.0	15 100.0		
Job los on l othe	ayoff	53.2 15.1 39.2	21.1 5.3 15.8	73.1 19.5 53.7	40.9 13.6 27.3	59.1 22.7 36.4	14.3	76.2 23.8 52.4	57.1 28.6 28.6		
Job len	vers	12.7	5.3	14.6	18.2	9.1	14.3	4.8	14.3		
	rants ntrants entrants	34.2 19.0 15.2	73.7 26.3 47.4	12.2 7.3 4.9	40.9 31.8 9.1	31 .8 18 .2 13 .6	71.4 28.6 42.9	19.0 19.0	28.6 14.3 14.3		

Source. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Satistics, Employment and Earnings, March 1981 and unpublished data.

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For all Hispanic ethnic groups, rapid job turnovar is evident for teenagers. Their median duration of uncoployment ranged between 4.7 and 6.2 weaks while their rates of unemployment were in the 22 to 43 percent range.

C. Reasons for Unemployment

Unemployed individuals are in that status for one of thrss reasons: (1) they lost their last job (on layoff or were released for other reasons); (2) they quit their job; or (3) they are new entrants or reentrants into the labor market. In 1981 Hispanic workers were more likely to have been unemployed because they involuntarily lost their job (see Table 8) than for any other reason (39.9 percent). The next highest resson was re-entry into the labor market without finding a job (33.0 percent). Together, these two groups accounted for usarly thres quarters of the unemployed Hispanics in 1981. There are, however, significant age, sex, and national-origin differences. Nearly two thirds of Hispanic tesnagers were unemployed because they were unsuccessful nsw or reentiants into the 1sbor market; 21 percent were involuntarily separated from their jobs. In the case of adult Hispanic males, more than 75 percent were job losers (nes+ly 21 percent on layoff and nearly 55 percent involuntarily separated). On the other hand, while the primary reason for adult Hispanic female unemployment was also job loss (18 percent on layoff and 31 percent involuntarily separated), being an unsuccessful new job entrant or re-entrant ran s close second (41.2 percent).

Mexican workers reasons for unemployment closely paralleled the reasons for all Hispanic workers in 1981. Unemployed Puerto Rican and Cuban teenagers were more likely to be new entrants than Mexican teenagers and less likely to have involuntarily lost their last job. Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban adult males were about equally likely to have been unemployed as a result of losing their last job (52.4 percent for Cuban adult males, 53.7 and 54.9 percent for Hexcian and Puerto Rican adult males respectively). Puerto Rican adult males were more likely to be unemployed because they quit their last job than any other Hispanic group, and unemployed Cuban adult males were much more likely to be naw-entrants or re-entrants into the labor market than their Mexican and Puerto Rican counterparts (19 percent, 12 percent, and 12 percent respectively).



There is a large disparity for the reasons of unemployment across adult female Hispanic athoic groups. Unemployed adult Cuban women were primarily job lowers (28.5 percent on layoff and 28.6 percent involuntarily separated). About 29 percent of the unemployed adult Cuban women were new or re-entrants into the labor market. While unemployed Mexican adult women were also orimarily job lowers (17 percent on layoff, 32 percent involuntarily meparated), they were nearly as likely to be unemployed because of unsuccessful motry into the labor market (43 percent). Unemployed Postto Rican adult females in 1981 were unsuccessful job entrants (32 percent re-entrants and 9 percent new entrants) and job lowers (14 percent on layoff, 27 percent involuntarily separated).

Hispanic workers are pecoming an increasingly important sector of the U.S. labor force. In 1941 one out of every eighteen workers was of Hispanic origin. White comprising 5.5 percent of the civilian labor force in 1981, Hispanica accounted for 7.5 percent of the unemployed. A major problem of Hispanic workers is their low aducational attainment level. Almost 20 percent of Hispanics 25 years old and over in 1979 had not completed even five years of actions. Younger Hispanica are, however, and ing significant improvements over their elders and over the next decide this problem should abate.

Job stability, appears to be a major problem of Hispanic teenagers as it is for ternagers in general. Adult Puerro Rican men and adult Cuban men and women sitter from longer term unemployment. The primary reason for unemployment of Hispanic termomers in 1981 was unsuccessful new entry and rementry into the labor market. Unemployed adult Hispanic men in 1981 were trinarily involuntary separations, although a large proportion of adult Cuban men were new entrants or termoments into the labor market (19 percent as compared to 12 percent for both adult Mexican and fuerto Pican men). While unemployed Mexican, Fuerto Sican and Gutan adult vowen in 1981 were primarily job losers, this was much mute the case of Cuban women. Puerto Rican and Hexican women were more likely to have been unemployed locause of rementry into the labor mark. than adult Cuban women.

the data presented in this paper indicate that while there are some common exprogram problems of Hispanic workers, significant differences do exist among erhor. Hispanic groups. Thus, any programs and policies sized at Hispanic employmen problems must be carefully evaluated to determine which group or groups of Hispanic workers will be most heavily impacted.



CHAPTER 6

NATIONAL ORIGIN DISCRIMINATION AGAINST HISPANICS IN EMPLOYMENT by Charles V. Dale American Law Division

Employment discrimination on the basis of national origin is expressly prohibited by Litle VII of the 1964 Civil Righte Act 1/ in the same mannar es discrimination vecsuse of race, color, or religion. Consequently, title VII does not give rise to the problem, fraquently encountered in suits under the 1866 Civil Rights Act 2/ which has likewise been applied to claims of racially based employment discrimination, of drawing a line between race and national

^{1/} See, 42 U.S.C. 2000e-7. In its proposed revision of Guidelines on Discrimination Because of National Origin, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) defines "national origin discrimination" broadly as including, but not limited to "the denial of equal employment opportunity because of an individual's, or his or her ancestors, country of origin; or because an individual has the linguiatic or cultural characteristics of s. particular national origin." Among the specific considerations the Commission will examine to determine whather an individual is the wictim of national origin discrimination are:

⁽a) marriage to or association with persons of particular netional origin; (b) membership in, or association with, an organization identified with or seeking to promote the interacts of national groups; (c) attendence or perticipation in schoole, churches, templéa or mosques, generally used by persons of a particular national origin; and (d) because an individual'e name or apouse's nape indicates a particular national origin. 45 7ed. Reg. 67729, 5 1606.1 (September 19, 1980).

^{2/} The atatutory sanctions sgainst discrimination in the 1866 and 1871 Civil Rights Act, 42 U.S.C. 1981, 1903, 1985(3), have each been held to provide a basis for relief in employment casea. Section 1981, which grants all persons in the United States the "same right" to "make and enforce contracts" as white citizene, has been applied to racial discrimination in both public and private employment. See, e.g., Johnson v. Railway Express Co., 41 U.S. 454 (1972). (continued) Section 1983, enacted as part of the 1871 Civil Rights Act, provides a remedy against any "person" who, acting under color of State law, has ceused a deprivation of federally protected rights, including equal access to public employment. Another provision of the 1871 Act, 42 U.S.C. 1985(3), makes liable all persons who conspire to deprive another of equal protection of the laws and has also been interpreted to prohibit discrimination in public employment. Hilmer v. National Institutes of Health, 409 F. Supp. 1389 (E.D. Pa. 1976).

origin. The great bulk of titls VII cases in the latter category have involved Hispanic origin under a veriety of nemer—Chicano, Spanish-surnemed persons, Rispanics, Hexican-Americans, Fuerto Ricens, among others,—and the courts, without specific discussion, have generally included these groups together with racial minority plaintiffs because the distinction is irrelevant to the application of Title VII principles.

Although the problem of national origin identification is less apt to arise when an individual plaintiff's etatus is in question, as when his own personal promotion or discharge is at issue, there may be difficulty when the task is one of delimiting a class or group designated as "Hispanic" or "Spaniah surnamed." For example, in <u>Castro</u> v. <u>Beecher</u>, <u>J</u>/ the class on whose behelf two rejected Fuerto Rican applicants for a police position brought auit under 42 U.S.C. 1983 was described as "Spaniah surnamed persons." Judge Wyzanski noted the difficulty with this kind of class cheracterization as follows:

"Spanish-surnamed persons" is a term which would apply to a native American with a Spanish surname whose ancestors had for generations lived in the United States, to a person with a Spanish surname born in Hadrid and educated at its famous university, and to many others who obviously are not in tha same class as any of the named plaintiffs. What the pleader pesumably meant was persons who were born in Fuerto Rico, Cuba, or other Caribbean countries, whose primary language is Spanish, and who have not had education and training comparable to that received by most meinstream white Americans. 4/

The same difficulty is confronted in perhaps the most common type of national origin discrimination case where a minority category is to be identified for purposes of demonstrating disparate impact of an employment test or other neutral selection procedure on that category. 5/

Apart from title VII, it is generally held that national origin discrimination is not covered by the 1866 Civil Rights Act. 6/ The resson for this derives from the language of section 1981 which provides that all "persons" shall have the same right to make and enforce contracts as "white citizens." The reference to "white" suggests that the protection of the statute is limited to rece or color. Nonetheless, the issue of Whether Hispanics are covered by section 1981 has produced a difference of opinion. The cases holding Hiapanics 1/ 334 F. Supp. 930 (D. Mass. 1971), aff'd in part, rev'd in part, 459 F. 24 725 (let Cir. 1972).

^{6/} See, Jones v. Alfred H. Hayer, Co., 392 U.S. 409 (1968): Runyan v. HcCrary, 427 U.S. 160 (1976); HcDonald v. Sante Fe Transportation, 427 U.S. 273 (1976).



^{4/ 334} F. Supp. at 934.

^{5/} See, e.g., Griggs, v. Duke Power Co., 401 U.S. 424 (1971).

not covered usually rely on the ground that discrimination against these groups is based on national origin, not on raca, and that therefore the general rule excluding national origin discrimination from section 1981 coverage controls. 7/

The cases that have applied section 1981 to Hispanics have, however, typically done so, not on the ground that the statute covers national origin discrimination as such, but on various grounds touching the quasi-racial character of the classification or the pragmatic consideration arguing for such protection. In Gomez v. Piwa County 8/ the district court held that Mexican-Americans "of brown race or color" who allege that they have been discriminated against on the basis of race or color have, a cause of action under section 1981, but have no such claim based on national origin. On the other hand, in Martinez v. Hazelton Research Animals, Inc., 9/ the plaintiff alleged that he was a Hispanic walk and that his employer discriminated egainst him "because of his racial and ethnic background." The court held that the mere assertion that he was Hispanic was insufficient to support a charge of racial discrimination. "because many people of Hispanic origin cannot be classified as 'non-white." The implication seems to be that the only way the plaintiff could state a claim under section 1981 is to allege not only that he is Hispanic, but a nonwhite Hispanic, and that it is for this reason that he suffered discrimination. Alternatively, a few courts have adopted a "pragmatic" approach, finding the concepts of race and color to be vague and unreliable and holding instead that Hispanics are covered by section 1981 because, like blacks, they "have been traditionally victims of group discrimination." 10/

The usual forms taken by discrimination—involving hiring, firing, promotion, classification, seniority, pay benefits and the like—preaant no particularly distinctive problems as applied to Hispanics than to other racial or ethnic minorities. In addition, however, the tolerating of ethnic insults or ridicule by supervisors or co-employees, segregated work assignments, and the use of employment criteria that screen out a disproportionate number of Hispanics and are not job related may be practices of some special interest in the present context.

^{10/} Budinsky v. Corning Glass Worke, 425 F. Supp. 786 (W.D. Pa. 1977); Ortega v. Herit Insurance Co., 433 F. Supp. 135 (N.D. 111. 1977); Hanzanares v. Safeway Storea, 593 F. 2d 968 (10th Cir. 1979).



^{7/} E.g., Martinez v. Mazelton Research Animals, 430 Y. Supp. 186 (D. Md. 1977).

^{8/ 15} F.E.P. Cases 595 (D. Ariz. 1976).

^{9/ 430} F. Supp. 186 (D. Hd. 1977).

As in the corresponding area of recial discrimination, most of the reported cases involving ethnic slanders or jokes are quite old, and practically all are at the EEOC level. Just es it is a violation of title VII for supervisors to call black employees "Niggers," 11/ so is it for an employer to call Mexican-American employees "dirty gressers." 12/ And just as the stetute forbids the employer's tolerating athnic jokes offensive to blacks, so the employer may not permit fellow employees to taunt Hispenic employees with such jokes. 13/ Moreover, the EEOC has taken the position that the employer has an affirmative duty to investigate and punish this kind of conduct, as part of his basic obtigation to maintain an employment atmosphere free of ethnic insults, whether the offenders are supervisors or even merely employees. 14/ Herely to transfer the Hispani victim of ethnic harrassment, instead of disciplining the offender has been held by the EEOC an inadequate response to this kind of problem. 15/

Minimum neight requirements, and to a lesser extent, minimum weight requirements, tend to exclude a disproportionate number of Mexican-Americans and other Hispanics, and accordingly have been held to support a prima facial case of discrimination under the rules of Griggs v. Duke Power Co., 16% unless shown to be job-related. The issue has arisen most frequently in connection with minimum height standards for police and firefighters, with the plaintiffs sections being Hispanics, sometimes women, and sometimes both. 17/

The leading case striking down such a height requirement as discriminatory against Mexican-Americans is Davis v. County of Los Angeles. 18/ This was a class action brought on behalf of all past, present, and future black and Mexican-American applicants for positions as firemen, alleging discrimination in hiring by the county. The district court held that the fire department's 5'7-

- 11/ ELOC Decision 72-0779, 4 PEP Cases 317 (December 30, 1971).
- 12/ EEGC Decision YAL-078 (1969) (unreported).
- 13/ EEOC Decision CL 68-12-341 E.U., 2 FEP Cases 295 (December 16, 1969).
- 14/ FEOC Decision 72-1561, 4 FEP Cases 852 (1972).
- 15/ EEOC Decision 72-0621, 4 FEF Cases 312 (December 22, 1971).
- 16/ 401 U.S. 424 (1971).

^{18/ 556} F. 2d 1334 (9th Cir. 1976), vacated for moothess 440 U.S. 625



^{17/} Hinimum height requirements of 5°6", 5°7", or even 5'8" are quite common among police and fire departments. This, coupled with the statistical last that the average height of Hispanic American males is 5°4 1/2" compared with 5'8" for Anglo males, clearly provides a basis for a prima facia case of Theutral velection criteria" discrimination. EEOC Decision 71-1529, 3 FEP Cases 952 (Hay 9, 1972).

standard for job applicants was a valid requirement. The Ninth Circuit reversed. Discriminatory impact was found established by a showing that 45% of otherwise eligible Mexican-American applicants were excluded by one standard. This, coupled with the fact that the county had not met its burden of showing the height minimum to be job related, invalidated the requirement. In another California case, Officers for Justice v. Civil Service Commission, 19/ A preselection height requirement for the average height of Asians and Hispanics, as well as females. A preliminary injunction against the height requirement was granted until it could be validated by being shown to be job related.

There appears to be no solid contrary authority on job-relatedness in national origin cases, although adequate job-relatedness of height standards has been found in some sex discrimination cases. 20/ In addition, height requirements have been upheld where necessary for the safe and efficient operation of an employer's machines and equipment. Thus, in Boyd v. Ozark Air Linss, Inc., 21/5'5" was found a necessary minimum height standard for an airline pilot because of cockpit design.

Although there is relative little title VII law on the problem, a leading decision on possible linguistic discrimination in employment is Frontera v.

Sindell. 22/ The Sixth Circuit there weighed the difficulties of accommodating a prospective employee's special language needs against the discriminatory impact of the employer's practice in finding that the Equal Protection Clause did not require that civil service examinations be given in Spanish for Spanish-speaking applicants. The action arose when Dominic Frontera, a Puerto Rican who had been working as a carpenter under temporary assignment to the airport, applied for and took the civil service examination of the City of Cleveland for a permanent sppointment. Frontera charged that he failed the carpentry examination because it was conducted in English, which was a second language to him.



^{20/} Sme. e.g., Smith v. Trodyan, 520 F. 2d 492 (6th Cir. 1975) cert. denied 426 U.S. 934 (1976); Dothard v. Rawlinson, 433 U.S. 321 (1977).

^{21/ 419} F. Supp. 930 (D. Hass. 1971), aff'd in part and rev'd in part, 459 F. 2d 725 (Ist Cir. 1972).

^{22/ 522} F. 2d 1215 (6th Cir. 1975)

^{19/ 395} F. Supp. 378 (N.D. Ca. 1975).

Fronters filed his complaint alleging an equal protection violation and a deprivation of his civil rights under 42 U.S.C. 1981, 1983, and 1985. It appeared that Fronters had substantial skill as a carpenter and received 67 out of a possible 100 points on the examination. Seventy points was the lowest passing score. The examination con isted of a performance section and a written section. Fronters testified that he did not understand all the oral instructions in the performance section nor all the words in the written portion. The district court held that the defendant must prove a "compelling governmental interest" in giving the test in English, since the test operated to discriminate against Spanish-speaking people. The court found this burden satisfied by the city's need to administer a uniform civil service examination, free from possible taint of corruption or of a spoils

The appeals court affirmed, but on the ground that the difficulty of administrating an examination in a foreign language for any applicant of foreign origin, combined with the general establishment of English as the national language, provided a rational basis for the city's use of only one language. The appeals court stated:

If civil service examinations are required to be conducted in Spanish to matisfy a few persons who might want to take them what about the numerous other nationalities which inhabit metropolitan Cleveland? These other nationality groups would have just as much right as Frontera to have their examination conducted in their own language. The city could not conduct the examination in Spanish and deny any other nationalities the same privilege. Denial to any nationality would be invidious discumination. 23/

The Sixth Circuit distinguished the Supreme Court's decision in Lau vs Nichols, 24/ involving San Francisco's failure to provide special English language instruction to about 1800 students of Chinese ancestery, since that decision was based on a specific statute, title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, and implementing regulations, and not the Federal Constitution.

The EEOC has had several occasions to address the distinctive discrimination problem posed by linguistic barriers. In an early case, 25/ the Commission ruled that English fluency could be equated with employment



^{23/ 552} F. 2d at 1219.

^{24/ 414 8.5. 563 (1974).}

^{25/} EEOC decision AL69-1-155E, 1 FEP Cases (May 19, 1965).

"tests" under <u>Griggs</u> v. <u>Duke Powsr Co.</u>, which would mean that, given the apparent disparste impact of such a requirement on Spanish-speaking applicante, the employer would have the burden of proving the job-relatedness of the requirement. The EEOC has also found national origin discrimination in amployer rules either requiring use of English exclusively in the plant or forbidding apeaking another language such as Spanish, unless the rule is justified by considerations of efficiency or eafety. <u>26</u>/

One final area of employment discrimination affecting Hispanics that has been considered by the courts relates to the refusal to employ en individual because he or she is an alien. The Supreme Court, in <u>Espinoze</u> v. <u>Farah Manufacturing Co.</u>, 27/ held that employment discrimination based on noncitizenship is not covered by Title VII. The suit there was filed against an employer for failure to hire a Mexican citizen solely because of her slien stautus. It was asserted that this constituted national origin discrimination prohibited by section 703 of title VII. The Supreme Court disagreed, and held that an employer's decision not to employ a person because he or she is not a United States citizen would not constitute discrimination on the basis of national origin prohibited by title VII.

The Court found support for its holding in the "plain language" of the atatute, noting that the term "national origin" on its face refers to the country where a person was born or, more broadly, the country from which his or her ancestors came, but does not refer to citizenship. The Court slao found it significant that various Precidential executive orders, as well as section 701(b) of title VII, have made it unlawful for the Federal Government as an employer to discriminate on the basis of national origin but that the Government had for for many years denied aliens the right to enter competitive examinations for Federal employment. This practice was founded upon an interpretation that it did not constitute national origin discrimination, which the court found reasonable and supported by the legislative history of title VII. That history revealed no intent on the part of Congress to reverse the long standing practice of requiring Federal employees to be United Stetes



^{26/} See, Garcia v. Gloor, 616 F. 2d 26' (5th Cir. 1980), cert. denied 80-810 (:/19/81); also, proposed revision of Guidelines on Diecrimination Because of National Origin, § 1606.7, 45 Fed. Reg. 62730 (September 19, 1980).

^{27/ 414} U S. 86 (1973).

citizens by express inclusion of national origin as a prohibited category of discrimination in title VII.

While it is clear under Espinoza that the mere imposition of a citizenship requirement for employment, without more, is not a violation of title VII, it also appears from the opinion that title VII prohibits an employer from using citizenship as a pretext for national origin discrimination. "The Act proscribes not only overt discrimination but also practices that are fair in form, but discriminatory in operation," the Court stated citing Griggs v. Duke Power Co. Thus, if it could be shown, by means of statistical evidence or otherwise, that an applicant's rejection by an employer on the grounds of alien statua was with the purpose or effect of discriminating because of national origin, a title VII action might lie. In Espinoza the plaintiff could not meet this burden by means of statistics, because the evidence showed that 96% of the employees at the employer's plant were Mexican-Americana. Employment discrimination on the basia of alienage has also been held covered by section 1981. 28/

The Fifth Amendment protects aliena as well as citizens from deprivation of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and thus to a certain extent prohibits discriminatory Federal Government action against aliens. However, the supreme Court has recognized that the responsibility for regulating the relationship between the United States and aliens has been committed to the executive and legislative branches of the Federal Government. 29/ As a consequence, the Court has given a high degree of deference to the decisions made by Congress or the President in the area of immigration and nationality. For example, the Supreme Court in Hampton v. How Sun Wong 30/ held unconstitutional a Federal regulation promulgated by the U.S. Civil Service Commission which excluded aliens from employment in Civil Service jobs only because it was not shown to promote the efficiency of the service, which the Court stated was the Commission's only legitimate concern. The Court assumed, without de iding, that Congress and the President have the constitutional



^{28/} Jones v. United Gas Improvement Corp., 68 F.R.D. 1 (Z.D. Pg. 1975).

^{29/} Hathewa v. Disz, 426 U.S. 67 (1976).

<u>30/</u> 426 U.S. 88 (1976).

power to impose the requirement (of citizanahip) that the Commission has adopted." Thereafter, the President did issue an executive order which prohibited aliens from applying for most civil service position. 31/ This order was held constitutional on remand of the same case. 32/

In recent years, the Supreme Court has court has also considered the queetion of aliena rights under the Equal Protection Clause, and noting that aliene are as a clees "a prime example of a discrete and insular minority," held that classifications based on alienage are "subject to close judicial actutiny." 33/ Accordingly, in the area of employment opportunities, State statutes which have denied aliens licences to practice lew, 34/ or licences to engage in engineering, 35/ or eligibility for a groad range of public employment 36/ have been held unconstitutional. In que important area, however, State discriminatory action egainst eliens has been permitted. In Sugarmen v. Dougall, the Court ruled that aliens may be barred from holding "important nonelective executive, legislative, and judicial positions." Persons in these positions "participate directly in the formulation, execution, or review of broad public policy," and citizens need not allow aliens in these offices because citizens have the right if they so desire "to be governed by their citizen peers." Although the full range of "policy" positions included remains unclear, in Foley v. Connelis, 37/ the Court found that a State police officer was a nonelective executive position that could be constitutionally limited to citizen applicants only.



^{31/} Executive Order 11935, 42 Fed. Reg. 37301.

^{32/} How Sun Wong v. Hampton, 433 F. Supp. 37 (N.D. Cel. 1977), aff'd aub nom., How Sun Wong v. Campbell, 626 F. 2d 739 (9th Cir. 1980).

^{33/} Graham v. Richardson, 403 U.S. 365 (1971).

^{34/} In re Griffitha, 413, U.S. 717 (1973).

^{35/} Examining Sourd w. Flores de Otero, 426 U.S. 572 (1976).

^{36/} Sugarman v. Dougall, 413 U.S. 634 (1973).

^{37/ 435} U.S. 292 (1978).

CHAPTER 7

HEALTH OF HISPANICS by Dorothy J. Beiley Government Division

The health status of a population is usually determined by analyzing the incidence of disease (morbidity) and incidence of determined by analyzing the that population. This method is not fessible, however, for determining the health condition of the U.S. Hispanic population because comprehensive, nationwide morbidity and mortality data for Hispanics are not yet available, even though the compilation of such data is underway. Researchers of Hispanics' health have presented their views as to the reasons for this lack of data. In 1972, for example, Roberts and Askew 1/ identified four reasons for the lack of data on Haxican-Americans at that time:

- 1. Many areas in the United States have few or no persons of Mexican-American descant. Hore than four-fifths of this population live in five States: Texas, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, and California. [Although they do not elaborate why this causes lack of data, presumably the absence of significant numbers of Hispanics in some States discourages, if not precludes, collection of such data in those and, therefore, on a nationwide basis.]
- 2. Even in the southwest, where Chicanoa constitute a significant portion of the population, vital and health statistics typically are not recorded using Hexican-American, Latin, or Spanish descent as a racial or eth ic classification. Hembers of this ethnic group are considered white for atatistical purposes by most agencies, including the National Center for Health Statistics and the Bureau of the Census.

1/ Roberts, R.E. and C. Askew, Jr. A Consideration of Mortality in Three Subcultures. Health Services Reports, v. 87, March 1972; 262-263.

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- 3. Befors 1950 even basic population data upon which to bese vital rates were lacking or at bast, unreliable. In 1950 data relating to persons of Mexicen-Massican descent were obtained by the Census Bureeu by identifying white parsons of Spanish surname on the census schedules. These data were published for the five States mentioned previously. The Census Bureeu used this same procedure during the 1960 census to identify persons with Spanish surnames (2,3). Obviously this procedure is costly, time consuming, and not often attampted. The National Center for Health Statistics doss not publish data in this form.
 - 4. For the psst ssvsral decades ethnic studies in this country have been limited almost exclusively to the Negro-American or black subculture, to the neglect of other disadvantaged minority groups such as the American Indian or the Mexican-American aubcultures. Consequently, a great deal more is known about the morbidity and mortality patterns for black Americans as well as for white or Anglo-Americans.

 $_{
m In}$ 1978, Juarez $_{
m 2}/$ presented two ressons for lack of deta on the entire Hispanic population.

There may be several reasons behind this neglect but they all seem to total up to at lesst two themes: (1) an apparent lack of effective assertiveness on the part of our Spanish Origin population in requesting this type of comprehensive etatistics and (2) and an ethnically unsensitized dominant whits society.

To the extent that they exist, most available chevactaristic health data on the Hispanic population have been collected primarly at the State and local levals. These data are limited occause they are usually collected on a specific subpopulation, are small in size, and possibly unrepresentative of the entire Hispanic population. Minimal data exist on Hispanics at the national level.

The Ten State Nutrition Survey 3/ in which morbidity data were compiled on Hispanics, was conducted in 1968-70. It was focused on nutrition and dental



^{2/} Justez, Rumaldo L. Vital and Health Statistics of the Spanish Origin Population in the United States. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Public Health Association, October 15-19, 1978. p. 2.

^{3/} U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfere: Ten-State Mutrition Survey 1968-1970, Volumes I-V. Atlents, Georgia: Center for Disease Control, 1972. The Health of Mexican Americans: Evidence from the Human Population Laboratory Studies. American Journel of Public Health, v. 70, April 1980.

problems of 38,000 children and adulum. Hispanica surveyed were Hexican-Americans (Southwest), Puerto Ricans (New York) and migrant workers. Results showed that Hispanics had a nutritional deficiency rate 4 percent higher than the percentage rate for other whites (10 percent), while Native Americans had a rate of 18 percent and blacks had the highest rate of 33 percent.

The 1976 Health Interview Survey 4/ "presents statistics on several health characteristics [limitation of ectivity due to chronic conditions, doctor visits in past year, short-stay hospital episodes in past year, days of restricted activity per person per year, days of bed disability per person per year, and days lost from work per currently employed person per year] on four population groups: the total United States civil an noninstitutionalized population, those of Spanish origin, the black population, and all others."

These dats show that blacks and those of Spanish origin reported about the same rate of days of bed disability, the other group's rate was somewhat lower. On doctor visits in the past the Spanish-origin rate was lower than the rates for blacks and others. The three groups had about the same rate for short-stays in the hospital. The rates appear in table 1. The Spanish-origin group showed similar rates as the other groups for limitation of activity due to chronic conditions and days lost from work.

In their earlier noted 1972 report, Roberts and Aakew 5/ examined differences in mortality rates over time for three groups: (1) "Chicanos (white persons of Spanish surnames)", (2) blacks, and (3) Anglos. They examined mortality data from Houston, Texas for the period 1940-67. These data showed



^{4/} U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service National Center for Health Statistics, Health Characteristics of Minority Groups, Advanced Data Report No. 27, April 1978.

^{5/} Roberta and Askew. A Consideration of Mortality in Three Subculturea. Health Services Reporta, v. 87 March 1972: 262-270.

Table 1 Unadjusted and agreedjusted percentages or rates of selected health characteristics, by national origin or race and family income. United States, 1976

Characterlatics and family income	Teul population	Spenish erigin ³	Black ³	Other	Total population	Spenish erigin ¹	9lock ³	Other	
Limitation of activity due to chronic conditions	Unadjusted percentage or rate				Age-edjusted ² percentage or rate				
All incomes 3	14.3	9.5	14.8	14.6	14.3	13.5	17.4	14.0	
Les then \$5,000 \$5,000-\$9,999 \$10,000-\$14,999 \$15,000 or more	17.1	17.2 9.5 6.6 6.1	24.9 12.3 9.7 7.1	21.2 18.0 211.5 2.0	16.3 13.2	19.7 13.4 12.3 •12.1	24.9 16.0 13.3 10.4	23.0 16.6 13.3 10.8	
Doctor visit in past year All incomes 3	75.5	භ.5	73.5	78.2	75.6	70,4	74.2	76.2	
Les than \$5,000 \$5,000.\$9,999 \$10,000.\$14,999 \$15,000 or more	73.8 75.1	70.6 \$7.7 70.2 73.1	70.1	77.8 75.3 76.5 77.4	73. 6 75.5	70.7 68.8 72.2 73.8	76.5 71.7 75.6 78.2	77.0 74.8 75.1 77.7	
Short-stay hospital episode in petit year All incomer ³	. 10.6	د.و .	. 10.0	10.8	30.6	10.4	10.6	10.6	
Les then \$5,000 \$5,000.\$9,999 \$10,000.\$14,999 \$15,000 or more	11.9	11.1 10.2 8.5 7.6	9.0	14.7 12.7 10.7 9/1	11.7	11.7 11,4 *9.8 *9.1	9.9 10.6		
Days of restricted activity per Person per Year	,			,					

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All incomes3	18.2	17.1	20.6	18.0	18.2	20.3	23.3	17.6
Less then \$5,000	32.5	26.5	. 30.7	33.0	28.4	29.ź	31.2	28.1
\$5,000.49,999	20.3	18.4	17.4	21.1	19.8	21.0	21.2	19.7
10,000.\$14,\$99	15.7	14.8	15.4	15.8	16.8	19.0	17.6	16.7
15,000 or more	12.8	10.0	13.7	12.9	13.9	*13.2	14.9	13.8
Deys of bed disability per person per Year		,	'	l				
All incomes ³	7.1	8.4	9.0	6.8	7.1	9.3	9.9	6.6
Less than \$5,000	12.1	14.9	12.3	11.7	11.0	16.3	12.8	10.1
15,000 \$9,999	8.2	8.1	7.7	8.4	8.0	8.8	\$.2	7.8
10,000-\$14,999	9.2	7.0	5.9	5.9	6.3	*6.4	. 59	6.2
15,000 or more	5.1	4.2	7.5	4.9	5.7	•4.2	*8.5	5.5
Devs lost from work per currently amployed person per year			,					
All incomes 3	5.3	4.9	7.4	5.1	5.3	5.0	7.4	5.1
es than \$5,000	5.8	•6.7	7.4	5.5	5.9	•	7.2	5.5
5,000,59,999	6.1	5.1	7.1	6.0	6.2	*5.4	7.1	5.1
10,000 \$14,999	5.5	5.9	6.2	5.4	5.5	•5.6	26.0	5.4
115,000 or more	4.7	3.6	. 8.4	4.5	4.6	•	8.2	4.4

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The National Center for Health Statistics, Vital and Health Statistics. Health Characteristics of Minority Groups, United States, 1976. April 14, 1978.



Persons reported as both of Spanish origin and black are included in both categories.

Adjusted by the direct method to the age distribution of the civilian noninstitutionalized population or that of the currently employed population.

Includes unknown income.

that mortality rates from all causes for both Chicsno males and females dropped over time. In 1950 Chicano males and females experienced higher age adjusted death rates per 100,000 (males 1,395 and females 1,296) than both the Anglo (males 990 and females 625) and black (males 1,291 and females 1,077) groups. Their 1960 mortality rates, however, showed a considerable decrease, placing the Chicano group rates (males 979 and females 806) between the Anglo group (males 951 and females 543) and the black group (males 1,223 and females 921) rates for 1960, although all three groups' rates dropped.

Using binary regression analysis, Robert and Lee 6/ found ethnicity and socioeconomic status were not good predictors of health status. The two most important health status predictors in both samples were age/sex and perceived health.

Roberts and Lee 7/ also compared selected physical health indicators (chronic conditions, disability, illness symptoms, and physical energy) for three ethnic groups (Anglos, blacks and Chicanos) while controlling for the effects of age, sex, martial status, family income, education and perceived health. They used data from two surveys on Mexicans conducted in 1974 and 1975 in Alameda County by the Human Population Laboratory. These aurveys were identified as Study 11 and Study 12. In Study 11, conducted in 1974, Roberts and Lee made comparisons among the three ethnic groups; in Study 12, conducted in 1975, they compared only Anglos, and Chicanos. For both studies, respondents were persons who returned questionnaires or supplied information to interviewers. Study 11 had 3,119 respondents (2,312 households were



^{6/} Robert and Lee. The Health of Mexican Americans: Evidence from • the Human Population Laboratory Studies: 375-384.

^{7/} Ibid. p. 375-384.

sampled containing 4,209 adults). Of the 3,119 respondents 73 percent designated themselves as Anglo, 12 percent as black, and 5 percent as Chicano or Mexican-American. Study 12 had 657 respondents (487 households were sampled containing 947 adults) from five Alameda County census tracts with the largest concentrations of persons of Spanish language and surname. Study 12 questionnaires were sent out in both English and Spanish. Of the 657 responded, 53 percent categorized themselves as Anglos and 39 percent as Mexican-American or Chicano. The other 8 percent were not defined in the study. Perceived health status of repondents was determined by asking them to rate their health as poor, fair, good, or excellent.

In Study 11, 22 percent of Chicanos, 14 percent of Anglos and 32 percent of blacks perceived their health status as fair or noor. "Based on Physical Health scores, nearly 41 percent of the Chicanos in Study 11 report no health problems, compared to 30 percent for Anglos and 23 percent for Blacks. The percentages reporting disability were 13.6 for Chicanos, 16.2 for Anglos and 27.3 for blacks. For chronic conditions, the percentages were 38.3 for Chicanos, 41.1 for Anglos, and 55.0 for blacks. In study 12 the proportion reporting no health problems were quite similiar, 30 and 33 percent respectively for Anglos and Chicanos. Chicanos reported slightly more disability than Anglos (20 vs. 18 percent) and slightly less chronic conditions (40 vs. 45 percent) than Anglos." 8/

According to Roberts and Lee, the Alameda County data are consistent with the 1976 HIS data and two other studies on cardiovascular disease which report



^{8/} Ibid. p. 379.

^{9/} Ibid. p. 382.

that Chicanos show no significant differences in health status when compared to the majority population, and in some findings Chicanos show battar health.

Dowd and Bengtson, in 1978, 10/ using data from a sample of middle-aged and older blacks, Mexican-Americans, and whites in Los Angales County, report (1) that blacks and Happanics respondents are more likely to report poorer health than white respondents; (2) that there was little difference between blacks and Mexican-Americans; and (3) that self-assessed health of whites is better than minority respondents in each age group. Among these groups there is a more wider disparity at 65 years and older. These findings came in responsa to the question, "In general, would you say your health is very good, good, fair, poor, or very poor?"

A Lyndon B. Johnson School of Public Affairs Policy Research Project (The Health of Mexican Americans in South Texas) 11/, using data from Edwin Fonnar's study of mortality among of Texas residents in 1970 and data on mortality from a 1975 atudy conducted by the LBJ School, reports that Mexican-Americans and Anglos experience different mortality rates because of the older aga of the Anglo population (Anglo median ags 30.2; Méxican-American, 19.0). According to these data, however, aga alone does not account for all the difference in



^{10/} Dowd, J.J. and V.L. Bengtson. Aging in Minority Populations: An Examination of the Double Jeopardy Hypothesis. Journal of Gerontology v. 33: 417-436, 1978. Cited in the Health of Mexican Americans: Evidance from the Human Population Laboratory Studies.

^{11/} The LBJ School of Public Affairs. Msxican-American Policy Rasearch Project. The Health of Mexican-Americans in South Texas: A Report, No. 32. Chapter 2, Mortality and Morbidity in South Texas. The University of Texas at Austin, 1979. pp. 17-32.

mortality rates between Anglos and Mexicsn-Americans. Major differences (controlling for age) reported by the LBJ School 12/ were:

- Mexicsn-Americsn men were more likely to have "death by violence" (including accidents, auicides, and homicides) ranked in leading, causes of mortality for all but the very youngest and very oldest age groups. Homicides constituted a significant proportion of these deaths. Suicide, however, was more often a leading cause of death among Anglos, particularly Anglo women.
- Mexican-American women were more likely than Anglo women to have many of the degenerative ailments. This difference was not found between Anglos and Mexican-American men.
- Diabetes mellitus and infectious and parasitic disesses were more likely to be listed as major causes of death among Mexican-Americans of nearly all age groups.
- 4. Rates of reportable communicable diseases were higher in South Texas than in the rest of Texas. Given the etiologies of many of these ailments, they are more likely to occur among poor people. Most of the poor people in South Texas are Mexican-Americans.
- Mexican-Americans appear to be dying of a relatively broader spectrum of ailments and conditions than are Anglos.

Other than the age difference, the LBJ School report identifies additional explanations 13/ for the differences in the mortality between Anglos and Mexican-Americans: (1) socioeconomic conditions, (2) genetic composition, and (3) cultural traits. Socioeconomic conditions seem to be the most prominent factor in determining mortality differences between the two ethnic groups.

Fonner combined data from death records for the years 1969-1971. With these data he determined age, cause of death and sex rates for Anglos, faxican-Americans, and blacks. He used 1970 Census data as the source to calculate



^{12/} Ibid. p. 31.

^{13/} Ibid. p. 31-32.

specific age for the three groups; Fonner's findings are based on the antira State of Texas. 14/

Fonner's findings were used in the LBJ School report because 56 percent of Texas' Spanish-surnamed population was in South Texas in 1970.

The 1975 LBJ School mortslity study 15/ information sources were death certificates in the Texas Department of Health Resources (TDHR). The certificates provided information on age, sex, county of residence, and primary cause of death. Of the 17,641 death records used for the study, there were 10,217 deaths recorded for Anglos and 6,289 for Mexican-Americans.

Infant mortslity data were taken from (TDHR) unpublished reports. These data were calculated for the period 1970-1975. They ware divided into five groups: 0 to 14 years; 15 to 29; 30 to 44; 45 to 64; and 65 or more years (these grouping were borrowed from the Fonner study).

Morbidity data were gathered from (TDHR) published reports on reportable communicable diseases (data for years 1974, 1975 and 1976). In the use of these mortality and morbidity data there were some limitations and problems as it partains to Mexicans-Americans in South Texas. Limitations of these data included:

 Hanual rather than machine coding of ethnic data by persons, which method could result in a possible undercount;



^{14/} Edwin Fonner, Jr. "Mortality Differences of 1970 Texas Residents: A Descriptive Study" (Master's thesis, School of Public Health, The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, 1975) Cited in The LBJ School of Public Affairs. Mexican-American Policy Research Project. The Health of Mexican Americans in South Texas: A Report, No. 32. The University of Texas, Austin, 1979. 17-32.

^{15/} The LBJ School of Public Affairs. Mexican-American Policy Research Project. The Health of Mexican Americans in South Texas: Report, No. 32. The University of Texas, Austin, 1979. 17-32.

- Reporting of causes of death by persons other than physicians and coroners;
- Ascertaining total ailments and conditions only from mortality statistics.

There were similiar limitations in the infant mortality data. Again, coding of ethnicity was done manually, creating the same problem of possible undercount of Spanish-surname births and infant deaths. In addition, there was possibly a problem of underreporting of Mexican-American infant deaths elong the border. The morbidity data usage presented two problems:

1. Not all cases of disease are reported, and

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 Selective underreporting (this is where a particular disease is reported for one group and it is not necessarily reported for others because of reporting sources). 16/

According to the 1975 LBJ School study, cancer and heart diseases ranked highest among the ten leading causes of death for each sex for both Anglos and Mexican-Americans in South Texas. Mexicar-Americans appear to die more often of infective and parasitic diseases, disbetes mellitus, accidents, homicides, and certain causes of illness in early infancy compared to Anglos, who have higher percentages of disease of the arteries, bronchitis, emphysems and sathms, and cerebrovascular diseases. (see Table 2), 17/

Table 2 shows the tun leading causes of deaths to South Texas residents for 1975 by sex and ethnicity. Table 3 shows the same variables, narrowed to the five leading causes of deaths but expanded to include age groups.



^{16/} Ibid.

^{17/} Ibid.

TABLE 2. Ten Leading Causes of Death to South Texas Residents by Sex and Ethnicity, 1975

. (
•		Percent 0,	f All Causes	
	An	gios .	Mexican	Americans
Cause of Death	Males	Females	Males	Females
Neoplesms, Total	20.20	20.40	14.89	18.95
Heart Disease	35.12	34.67	28.88	29.44
Ischemic Heart Disease	30.31	~29 . 54.	× 24.41	23.57
Other Heart Diseases	4.31	5.13	4.47	5.87
Cerebrovascular Disease	8.32 -	13.83	7.16	9.66
Diseases of Arteries	4.96	4.14	(1.81)	(1.83)
Influenza and Pneumonia	2.90	3.06.	2.77	3.52
Bronchitis, Emphysema and Asthma	2.34	(1.09)	(9.85)	(0.64)
Certain Causes of Mortality	/	(0.58)	2.00	3.75
in Early Infancy	(1.03)	(0.78)	3.89	
Death by Violence®	11.70	6.01	17.69	8.45
Accidents	7.67	3.98	11.93	5.08
Suicides	2.95	1.56	(1.65)	(0.38)
Homicides	(1.98)	(0.47)	4.11	(0.99)
Infective and Parasitic Diseases	(0.85)	(0.81)	(1.59)	2.32
Diabetes Mellitis	(1.05)	2.01	3.54	5.31
All Other Causes	11.53	13.20	16.93	18.13
	n=5738	n=4479	n=3650	n=2639

[&]quot;The categories "Heart Disease" and "Death by Violence" are in this table for the interest of the reader. They are not considered in the ranking of the ten leading causes of death.

Note: Figures in brackets indicate that the particular cause was not among the leading ten for that particular sex and ethnic group.

Source: Data on death certificates obtained from the Texas Department of Health Resources.

Source: The LBJ School of Public Affairs. Mexican American Policy Research Project. The Heslth of Mexican-Americans in South Texas: A Report, No. 32. University of Texas at Austin, 1979.



Table 3 shows that Mexican-American males have a high percentage of deaths in the category of homicides, particularly within two age groups: 15 to 29 years (representing 21 percent of all deaths in that age group) and 30 to 44 years. In these same age groups, cirrhosis of the liver is responsible for a higher percentage of deaths among Mexican-American males than Anglo males. Anglo males have a higher percentage of deaths in the category of ischemic heart disease in the age group 30 to 44 years and 45 to 64 years. Mexican-American females have a higher percentage of deaths from complications of pregnancy in the age group 15 to 29 years of age than do to Anglo females. Anglos females have a-high-percentage of death from neoplasma 18/

Table 3 also shows infant mortality percentages for both Anglos and Mexican-Americans in the 14-years of age or younger category. Mexican-Americans infants have higher death rates from infectious and parasitic diseases, influenza, and pnuemonia than Anglo infants.

Included in the LBJ School study was an examination of infant mortality rates over time. The researchers found that overall infant mortality rates declined between 197Q and 1975 for both Anglos and Mexican Americans. The infant mortality rate for Anglos in 1970 was 18 deaths per 1000 live births and in 1975 was 15.1 deaths per 1000 live births. The infant mortality rate for Mexican-Americans was 20.2 deaths per 1000 live births in 1970 and 14.5 deaths per 1000 live births in 1975. 19/ For the low infant death rates



^{18/} Ibid.

^{19/} The LBJ School of Public Affairs. Mexican Policy Research Project. The Health of Mexican Americans in South Texas: Report, No. 32. The University of Texas, Austin, 1979. 17-32. However, the researchers express caution about the reliability of the mortality rates among Mexican-Americans because of uncertainty and to the comprehensiveness of reported birth and death data.

TABLE 3. Five Leading Causes of Death to South Texas Residents by Age Group, Sex and Ethnicity, 1975

•	Persont of All Courts							
	. And	bs 1	Mexicon-A	meriant				
Course of Doeth	Meles	Females	Males	Females				
Individuals 14 years of age or younger	n=191	a=131	a≈371	n=266				
Cortain Couses of Martality in		-						
Early Infancy .	30.89	26.72	38.27	37,22				
Accidents	21.43	24.06	14.29	13.16				
Congenital Anomalies	18.85	19.06	17.52	14.29				
Neceleums, Total	4.71	9.16	2.57	(4.89)				
Influenza and ProJesoule	4.71	3.82	4.31	5.64				
Infectious and Paraeltic Diseases	(1.56)**	(2.29)	2.97	5.27				
All Other Causes	17.83	14.85	19,67	19.53				
Individuals 15 to 29 years of ago	n=290	E- 99	1-7i	am 94				
Death by Violence*	80.29	64.17	11.69	54.25				
Accidents	38.97	40.40	52.44	39.36				
Suicide	12.07	15.15	8.31	5.32				
Homicide	9.25	8.62	20.92	9.57				
Neoplasms, Total	7.24	13.13	3.44	11,70				
Infective and Parasitic Diseases	(0.34)	-	2.29	(3.19)				
Major Cardiovascular Diseases	3.10	4.04	3.44	11.70				
Complications of Pressancy	J.,10	(2.02)	3279	5.32				
All Other Causes	9,03	16.64	9.16	20,22				
Individuals 30 to 44 years of age	2231	n=111	a=249	n=133				
Death by Violence	44.60	30.63	53.81	21.81				
Accidents	21.65	14,41	30.12	15.04				
Suicide .	14.29	16.22	(5.22)	(0.75)				
Homicido	1.66	→	18,47	6.02				
Moort Disease*	21.65	3134	11.24	13,53				
Ischemic Heart Disease	18,61	-	7.23	9,02				
Other Heart Diseases	(3,04)	6,31	(4.01)	4.51				
Neoplasms, Total	13,85	25.23	5.22	26,31				
Cerebravascular Disease	(4.76)	(3.40)	(3.21)	4.51 -				
Diebetes Mellitus	(0.43)	3,60	(0.80)	(3,01)				
Circheela of Liver	(1.73)	(0.90)	7.63	(3.01)				
All Other Causes	12.98	29.73	18.09	27,82				



Percent of All Causes

i	An	rios	Mexican-Americans		
Cause of Death	Males	Females	Moles	Females	
Individuals 45 to 64 years of age	n=1368	n=775	n=913	a ~ 537	
Heart Disease*	37.95	20.90	36.06		
Ischemic Heart Disease	35.72	16.00	35.05	26.07	
Other Heart Diseases	5.23		30.12	19.55	
Death by-Violence*	12.12	4.90	(4.93)	6.52	
Accidents		13.68	12.60	(5.21)	
Suicide	5.42	(4.65)	8.65	(3.72)	
Neoplasms, Total	6.12	8.52	(1.53)	(0.56)	
Cerebrovascular Disease	27.04	37.81	20.48	29.43	
Diabetes Mellitus	(3.32)	6.71	6.02	7.64	
Cirrhonis of Liver	(0.89)	(1.94)	(3.83)	7.45	
All Other Causes	(3.50)	(3.13)	- 6.02	(4.10) 4	
VII Other Climat	15.18	15.83	16.00	20.10	
Individuals 65 years or older	m=3454	n=3360	a=1609	n=1764	
Heart Disease*	39.40	41.01	39.46	37.97	
Ischemic Heart Discase	34.19	35.65	33,73		
Other Heart Diseases	5.21	5.36	5.73	31.39	
Neoplasms, Total	19.46	16.88	18.14	6.58	
Cerebrovescular Diseases	11.90	16.70		17.09	
Diseases of arteries	4.46		10.88	12.80	
Diabetes Mellitus	(1.27)	5.24	(3.06)		
All Other Causes		(2.11)	4.93	5.97	
	23.51	18.06	23.53	23.13	

[&]quot;The categories "Heart Disease.. and "Death by Violence" are placed in this table for the convenience of readers of this report. They are not considered in the ranking of the ten leading causes.

Source. Data on death certificates obtained from the Texas Department of Health Resources.

Source: The LBJ School of Public Affairs. Mexican American Policy Research Project. The Health of Mexican-Americans in South Texas: A Report, No. 32. University of Texas at Austin, 1979.



^{**}Figures in brackets indicate that the particular cause was not among the leading ten for that particular sex and ethnic group.

of Mexican-Americans, LBJ researchers provides two explanations: (1) "the underreporting of deaths, suggesting that the data are not highly reliable" and (2) "the newly available services which have mffectively intervened in the problem of neonatal mortality".

Mexican-Americans in South Texas and Puerto Ricans in New York City show similiar mortality experiences. Infant mortality rates are included in these similiarities.

According to a report prepared by the National Puerto Rican Forum, Inc., Puerto Ricans in New York City (NYC) from [1969-71] had higher mortality rates from cirrhosis of the liver, accidents, and diabetes than the total New York City population. Percentages for both groups follow: cirrhosis of the liver (Puerto Ricans 7.5-NYC 3.3), accidents (Puerto Ricans 4.9-NYC 2.5) and diabetes (Puerto Ricans 2.9-NYC 2.3). Also, annual death rates from drug dependency, homicides, and accidents were higher for Puerto Ricans in the 15 to 44 aga group than the NYC total population. In addition, annual mortality rates were also higher for Puerto Ricans 12 years and under from bronchitis, influenzs, pneumonis, accidents, and homicides. 20/

Access to, and Utilization of the Realth Care System

Similiar to the case of health data on Hispanica, there is a paucity of data on medical care use (including dental care) 21/ by Hispanica. However,



^{20/} Alera, Jose Oscar. Puerto Riuana and Health Findings From New York City, Honograph No. 4 Hispanic Research Centar, Fordham University Naw York, 1978. p. 6, Table 3. Cited in The Next Step Toward Equality by National Puerto Rican Forum. September 1980. p. 13.

^{21/} Roberts, R.E. and Lee, E.S. Hedical Care Use by Maxican-Americans Evidence from the Human Population Laboratory Studies. Hedical Carm Harch 1980. p. 267.

earlier research of health utilization by Hispanics (Mexican-Americans)

characterized this group as different from other population groups in their health belief and behavior. In accounting for these differences, emphasis was on the role of cultural and ethnic factors, a primary assumption in much of this research was that folk beliefs are chief determinants of health and illness behavior. 22/ This body of research was summarized by Weaver:

the Mexican American population is an undifferentiated homogeneous mass who distrusts scientific medicine, seeks treatment from folk healers, views illnesses fatalistically, sees many illnesses as resulting from and only curable by magic and witchcraft; illness-is a social, or collective, as opposed to an individual event; the Mexican-American community holds a culture, one aspect of which is recognizable by a complex system of health related traits, which forms a barrier to effective utilization of scientific health care. 23/

Recent research on medical use by Hispanics (Mexican-Americans) has taken a different approach. More emphasis has been placed on comparing the use of traditional sources of health care and less focus has been placed on cultural and ethnic factors. Now emphasis are placed on indicators such as age, sex, income, education and occupational stability. 24/

Andersen and Aday and et al., have compared Latines (using the Bureau of the Census definition of Spanish heritage) to other groups. They examined patterns of physician, dental, and hospital visits, health insurance, regular source of care, satisfaction with services received and two need assessment measures. They found that blacks and Latines reported the similar rates (65 percent for physician visits in the past year) as compared to 77 percent for other whites. Rates on hospitalizations for these groups were also similar: 10 percent for blacks, 12 percent for Latines, and 11 percent for other whites. Rates on dental visits within the past year showed wider gaps among the groups: 18 percent for blacks, 31 percents for Latines, and 52 percent for other whites. 25/

22/ Ibid.

23/ Ibid.

24/ Ibid.

Gardia and Juarez, have reported (1978) that Chicanos underutilized dental services and that the services they do use are primarily those of a "symptomatic" nature. Heaning that Chicanos used more acute dental services than cosmetic and preventive services. They found that there were statistically significant differences in dental visits between the two groups. Anglos had a dental visit rate of 58.9 percent compared to 43.5 percent for Chicanos. 26/

These researchers compared dental behavior of Chicanos and Anglos in Pima County, Arizona using regression analysis to examine several socioeconomic variables to explain the differences and similarities.

They reported that socioeconomic variables alone do not explain the dental-care behavior of Chicanos. According to Garcia and Juarez these variables are more relevant to Anglos in use of dental services.

Berkanovic and Reeder, using data from the Los Angeles Hetropolitan Area Survey, examined the role of ethnic, economic, and social-psychologic variables in the source of medical use among blacks, whites and Hexican-Americans. They found that 78 percent of whites used private physicians compared to 60 perce t for blacks and 59 percent for Mexican-Americans. 27/



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^{25/} Andersen R. Access to Medical Care Among the Latino population of the Southwestern United States. Paper presented at the American Public Health Association meeting, Los Angeles, October 16, 1978. Cited from Medical Care Use by Mexican-Americans. Evidence from the Human Population Laboratory Studies.

^{26/} Garcia and Juarez. Utilization of Dental Health Services by Chicanos and Anglos. Journal of Health & Social Behavior. December 1978. p. 428-436.

^{27/} Berkanovic E., Reeder L. G. Ethnic, economic, and social psychological factors in the source of medical care. Social Problems. 1973. 21:246. Cited from Medical Care Use by Mexican-Americans, Evidence from the Human Population Laboratory Studies.

CHAPTER 8

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST HISPANICS IN HEALTH CARE SERVICES: A LEGAL SUMMARY

Charles V. Dale American Law Division

Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act 1/ bars discrimination because of race, color, or national origin in all programs and sctivities that raceive Federal financial assistance. Regulations of the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) specify that Federal aid racipients cannot adopt criteria or methods of administration which have the effect of discriminating against racial or ethnic groups. 2/ This obligation applies to hospitals, nursing homes, doctors, dentiats, and State medicaid agancies. Although the issue of discrimination against Hispanics in the delivery of federally subsidized health care services has received fittle attention in the courts, two recent developments may have significant implications for the problem.

The Office of Civil Rights is the administrative arm of HHS for civil rights enforcement. For years, the sgency's primary focus had been on education cases, but with creation of the new Department of Education, discrimination in health care may take on a higher priority. By the end of 1980, HHS had ambarked on an ambitious program of drafting new regulations, guidelines, and civil rights reporting requirements for health services. In addition, policies were being devaloped to provide bilingual services and bilingual notices of hospital closures and medicaid cutbacks.

Recent initiatives by the Government into discrimination in health care has produced mixed results. The Justice Department in Guerra v. Bexar County Mospital District 3/ joined private litigants in a title VI suit to enjoin the relocation of the Bexar County, Texas public hospital from the barrio to the suburbs on the ground of its discriminatory effect on Maxican-American residents. Finding that the decision to relocate the facility was supported by substantial medical and governmental reseams, however, the district court denied relief because intent of purpose to discriminate had not been shown.

(107)



The Bexar County Hospital District had the right to lawfully change the site from which it provides public services, because the decision to relocate was not made with a discriminatory intent or purpose, especially since the relocation will not have a discriminatory effect; and that the nature and scope of injunctive relief sought by the plaintiffs is not justifiable under the law and evidence in this case. 4/

But in a similar suit involving the closing of Sydenbam and Metropolitan Hospital in New York, the Second Circuit Court of Appeals in <a href="https://declined.com/motor-street-

In In re Hotel Dieu, Mercy, and Southern Baptist Hospitals 6/ located in HHS made a formal administrative determination of discriminatory impact violative of title VI. The evidence there showed that while the hospitals' aervice area was heavily minority, only a token number of minority persons were accepted as patients. The cause of the discrimination was the hospital's failure to accept Hedicaid patients because the hospitals' staff physicians refused to participate in the Hedicaid program. After negotiations for voluntary compliance failed, the Office of Civil Rights sought a cutoff in Federal funding, and an administrative law judge ordered the termination of Federal funding to two of the three hospitals involved. This appears to be the first ruling that has applied some of the Hill-Burton community service obligations to a non-Hill-Burton hospital where jurisdiction is based on title VI.



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^{1/ 42} U.S.C. 2000d et seq.

^{2/} See, 45 C.F.R. § 80.3, 1979.

^{3/ 484} F. Supp. 855 (N.D. Tex. 1980).

^{4/ 484} F. Supp. at 360.

^{5/ 627} F. 2d 612 (2d cir. 1980).

^{6/} No. 79-HHS (T.D.)-30 (HHS Oct. 6, 1979). This is a decision by an administrative law judge on OCR's efforts to cut off Federal funds to three New Orleans hospitals, and is a continuation of Cook v. Ochaner, 559 F. 2d 968 (5th Cir. 1977) in an administrative forum.

CHAPTER 9

HOUSING OF HISPANICS by Dorothy J. Bailey Government Division

More than 14 million Hispanics, e varied ethnic group including Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ridans, Cubans, and South and Central Americans, live in the United States. Compared to the general population this group has lower levels of income, education and employment and less adequate housing. This section of the report, on the housing of Hispanics, provides an overview of the housing conditions of Hispanics and a discussion of some housing issues affecting Hispanics.

A primary source of information on housing conditions for Hispanics is a study 1/ prepared by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) based on data from the Annual Housing Surveys for 1975 and 1976, collected by the Census Bureau for the Department.

Hispanice are a highly urbanized group who are concentrated primarily in central cities. Eighty-four percent live in atandard metropolitan atatistical

(109)



^{1/} U.S. Dapartment of Housing and Urban Development. Office of Policy Development and Research. How Well Are We Housed? 1. Hispanics September 1978.

sress (SMSA's) 2/ compared to 68 percent of the general population. As an urbanized population, the housing conditions of Hispanics tend to reflect the general housing conditions of other urban minority groups.

When compared to the aggregate profile of metropolitan dwellers, Hispanics are more likely to be renters, more likely to live in inferior quality attructures, and more likely to live in overcrowded conditions.

According to the HUD study, 58 percent of the Hispanic population rent shelter as compared to 35 percent for the general population. Hispanics are also more likely to live in multifamily groupings and older structures.

Not only are there significant differences in housing characteristics between the Hispanic population and other segments of the population, there are noticeable differences among the Hispanic subpopulations. Puerto Ricans are the worst housed, Cubans are the best housed, while the housing conditions of Mexican-Americans fall in between 3/ These differences are documented in the following tables.

Why are Cubana are the best housed? It would appear in part because they are more able to pay for adequate housing. According to Census data, Cubana have the highest family median income (\$15,326) of Hispanies 4/



^{2/} An SMSA is an urban area that usually includes a central city and the countles adjacent to it. The SMSA defines a geographical unit that is used to report statistical information.

^{3/} U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Office of Policy Development and Research. 1. Hispanics, September 1978.

 $[\]frac{4}{}$ U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Report, Series P-20, No. $3\overline{54}$, Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States: March 1979. October 1980.

TABLE 1, Nearly 10 Percent of All Housing Was Flawed in 1976

Type of	Units	" Units with	% of all units		Inadequate	units by n	umber of f	lews
flaw	without flaw	flaw_	with flaw	1 flew	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaws
PLUMBING	72,134	1,946	2.6%	522	858	\$04	238	26
KITCHEN	72,738	1,342	1.8%	311	358	421	228 ,	26
MAINTENANCE	71,034	3,046	4,1%	2,243	456	137	185	26 '
PUBLICHALL	73,777	303	0.4%	,199	84	14	60	. 0
HEATING	72,924	1,158	1.6%.	. 864	149	, 62	64	18
ELECTRICAL	74,012		0.1%	19	26	13	2	
SEWAGE	73,135	945	1,3%	0	242	445	233	26
TOILET ACCESS	72,728	1,352	1.8%	1,126	201	23	2	0
TOTALS (in thousands)	66,906	7,174	8.7%	5,283	1,085	540	239	26

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed? Kispanics 1. 1978

TABLE 2. Hispanic Housing Was Almost Twice As Often Flawed in 1976

Type of flaw	Units without	Units with	% of all units	inadequate units by number of flaws						
	flaw	fiaw	with flaw	1 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaw		
PLUMBING	3,188	109	3.3%	27	42	25	14	1		
KITCHEN	3,207	81	2.8%	25	37	18	12	1		
MAINTENANCE	3,044	,254	7.7%	156	69	22	7	. 1		
PUBLIC HALL	3,259	39	1.2%	18	17	3	2	0		
HEATING	3,134	164	5.0%	110	31	15	•	1		
ELECTRICAL	3,292	6	0.2%	0	. 4	2	0	0		
SEWAGE	3,261	37	1.1%	0		17	12	1		
TOILET ACCESS	3,150	148	4.5%	100	36	10	0	0		
TOTALS (in thousands)	2,689	609	18.5%	436	122	36	14	. 1		

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978.



TABLE 3. Cubsns Live in the Best Hispsnic Housing in 1976

Type of	Units •	Units	% of all	Inadequate units by number of flaws						
flew	witbout flaw	with flow	units with flas	1 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaw		
PLUMBING	243	3	1,2%	0	3	0	0	0		
KITCHEN	235	11	4.5%	9	3	0	´ 0	0		
MAINTENANCE	242	4	1.6%	3	2	0	0	0		
PUBLIC HALL	,243	3	1.2%	3	C	0	0	0		
HEATING	243	3	1,2%	1	•	• 0	0	0		
ELECTRICAL.	246	0	0%	0	0	9	0	0		
SEWAGE	246	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0		
TOILET ACCESS	244	2	0.8%	2	0	0	0	0		
TOTALS (in thousands)	224	22	9 8%	18	4	0	0	0		

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed? Hispsnics 1. 1978

TABLE 3. Cuban Housing Is Better Than General American Housing in 1975

Type of flew	Units without	Units with flaw	% of all	Inadequate units by number of flaws						
	flaw		units with flaw	1 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaw		
PLUMBING	224	3	1.3%	3		0	0	0		
KITCHEN	224	3	1.3%	3	0	0	0	0		
, MAINTENANCE	221	•	2.6%	4	1	0	0	0		
PUBLIC HALL	227	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0		
HEATING	* 223	4	1.8%	4	0 .	0	0	0		
ELECTRICAL	227	0	-0%	0	0	0	0	0		
SEWAGE	227	0	0%	0	0	0	Q	o´		
TOILET	226	1	0.4%	0	1	0	0	0		
TOTALS (in thousands)	212	15	7.1%	•14	1	0	0	0		

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed?' Hispanics 1. 1978.



TABLE 5. Puerto Rican Housing is Frequently Flawed in 1976

Type of flow	Units	Units with	% of all	inadequate units by number of flaws					
	without flaw	flew	units with flaw	1 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaws	
PLUMBING	502	15	2.9%	3	8	2	3	0	
KITCHEN	503	14	2.7%	3	7	0	3	۵	
MAINTENANCE	424	93	18.0%	58	31	3	2	0	
PUBLIC HALL	490 .r	18	3.5%	3	11	3	2′	, 0	
HEATING	Š06	11	2.1%,	5	Ä	•0	2	0	
ELECTRICAL	513	4	0.8%	0	4	0	0	o 🛇	
SEWAGE	515	2	0.4%	0	0	0	2	0	
TOILET ACCESS	481	36	7.0%	26		2	0	0	
TOTALS (in thousands)	377	140	27.1%	97	37 [,]	3	3	0	

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978

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TABLE 6. Puerto Rican Housing Suffers Particularly from Maintenance Flava in 1975

•	Type of flew	Units without	Units with	% of all	Inadequate units by number of flaws						
	new	flaw	flew	with flaw	1 flew	2 firms	3 flaws	4 flews	5 + fiswi		
	PLUMBING	444	21	4.5%			-	2	0		
	KITCHEN	455	10	2.2%	0	3		2	0		
	MAINTENANCE	3 75	90	19.3%	75	15	Ð	0	0		
	PUBLIC HALL	447	18	3.9%	7	4	•	0	0		
	HEATING	450	•	1.3%	ž	1	0	2	0		
	ELECTRICAL	463	2	0.4%	0	1	. 0	0	0		
	SEWAGE	443	2 .	, 0.4%	0	0	0	2	0		
	TOILET ACCESS	423	42	8.0%	31	10	0	0	0		
	TOTALS (in thousands)	313	152	32.7%	124	21	•	2	0		

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Welli Are We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978.



TABLE 7. Mexican-American (Chicano) Housing Suffers Particularly From Heating Flaws in 1976

Type of	Units	Units	% of all	Inadequate units by number of flaws						
flew	without flaw	with flaw	units with flaw	1 flaw	·2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaws		
PLUMBING	1,877	73,	3.7%	18	23	20	11	1		
KITCHEN	1,901	49	2.5%	10	16	13	. 9	1]		
MAINTENANCE	1,829	121	6.2%	71 .	27	15	6	1 •		
PUBLIC HALL	1,910	10	0.5%	8	3	0	0	0		
HEATING	1,812	138	7,1%	93	23	15	6	1		
ELECTRICAL	1,948	2	0.1%	0	0	. 2	0	0		
SEWAGE	1,916	34	1,7%	0	5	17	11	1		
TOILET ACCESS	1,850	100	5.1%	65	27	8	0	0		
TOTALS (in thousands)	1,581	369	18 9%	265	62	30	11	1		

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: Now Well Are We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978

TABLE 8. Hexican-American (Chicano) Housing Met the Hispanic Average in 1975--20 Percent Flawed

Type of	Units	Units	% of all	Inadequate units by number of flaws					
flaw	without flaw	with flaw	units with flaw	3 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 4 flaws	
PLUMBING	1,652	54	3.2%	13	21	13	6	• 1	
KITCHEN	1,668	38	2.2%	10	11	11	5	1	
MAINTENANCE	1,596	110	6.4%	72	22	10	5	1	
PUBLIC HALL	1,698		0.5%	8	0	0	0	0	
HEATING	1,594	112	6.6%	77	22	.9	3	1	
ELECTRICAL	1,704	2	0.1%	1	1	0	0	0	
SEWAGE	1,678	28	1.6%	0	9	12	8	1	
TOILET ACCESS	1,600	106	6.2%	85	13	9	0	0	
TOTALS (in thousands)	1,362	344	20.2%	267	49	21	8	1	

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed?' Hispanics 1. 1978.



TABLE 9. Cantral and South American Housing Ham Improved by 5 Percent in 1976

Type of	Units	Units	% of all	Inadequate units by number of flaws						
flew	without flaw	"with flaw	units with flaw	1 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaws		
PLUMBING	185	7.5	3.9%	1.5	4.5	1.5	0	0		
KITCHEN	184	9.0	4.6%	1.5	6.0	1.5	0	0		
MAINTENANCE	176	16.5	8.6%	12.0	. 3.0	1,5	0	.0		
PUBLICHALL	191	1.5	0.8%	0	1.5	0	0	. 0		
HEATING	189	4.5	2.3%	2.9	1,5	•0	0	0		
ELECTRICAL	193	0	0%*	0	0	0	Ò	0		
SEWAGE	193	` 0	, 0%	0	0	0	0	0		
TOILET ACCESS	188	4.7	2.4%	3.2	1.5	0	0	0		
TOTALS (in thousands)	161	31.7	16.4%	21.2	9.0	1,5	0	, 0		

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are Wa Housed? Hispanica 1. 1978.

TABLE 10. Central and South American Housing Suffers Moet From Maintenance Flave in 1975

Type of flaw	Units without	Units with	% of all units	Inadequate units by number of flaws					
	flaw	flaw	with flaw	1 flaw	2 flaws	3 flaws	4 flaws	5 + flaws	
PLUMBING	178	4.4	2.4%	3.0	1.5	0	0	· 0	
KITCHEN	180	2.8	1.6%	1,4	1.4	0	0	0	
MAINTENANCE	163	20.4	11/1%	18.0	4.4	0	0	, 0	
PUBLICHALL	179	4.3	2,3%	2.8	1.5	0	0	0	
HEATING	173	10.1	5.5%	5.9	. 4.2	0	0	0	
ELECTRICAL	183	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0	
SEWAGE	183	0	0%	0	0	0	- 0	0	
TOILET ACCESS	178	4.5	2.5%	3.2	1.4	0	0	0	
TOTALS (in thousands)	143.6	39.4	21.5%	32.2	7.2	0	0	0	

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Davelopment. Report: How Well Are We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978.



Among the variables HUD examined to evaluate the conditions of Hispanic housing were physical adequacy and affordability.

PHYSICAL ADEQUACY

Fhysical sdequacy was defined in terms of the availability of heating and plumbing, the structural soundness, the availability of sewage disposal aystems, the maintenance of the living unit, its design, its electrical system, and its kitchen. The eight apecific items used to observe physical adequacy in the HUD study appear in table 11.

The HUD study above that nationally there were more than 7 million housing units with one or more flaws, but "that the chances of an Hispanic household living in deficient housing is more than twice that of the general population." 5/ Between 1975 and 1976 there was a decrease in the number of flawed housing units, both for the general population and for Hispanics, but the incidence of flaws in Hispanic housing remains high.

According to the HND study, of the eight items used to determine physical insdequacy, heating flaws rated significantly higher in Hispanic housing than in that of the general population. Five percent of Hispanic housing units had hearing flaws compared to 1.5 percent for the total population. HUD attributes this difference in percentages to the high rate of heating flaws in Mexican-American occupied units. In 1976, the heating-flaw rate for Mexican-Americans was 7.1 percent of all units with flaws. Many Mexican-Americans live in the Southwest where heating systems might not be as necessary to maintaining a comfortable dwelling as they would be in the Northeast section of the country. (HUD cautions that some of the data on heating flaws can be misleading).



^{5/} U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Office of Policy Development and Research. 1. Hispanics. September 1978.

TABLE 11. Inadequate Housing Suffers From One or Hore of These Defects

PLUMBING

unit lacks somelete plumbing or unit shares complete plumbing

KITCHEN

unit lacks or shares a somplete kitchen

REWAGE

absence of a public sever, septic tenk, or assuppoil for sevege disposal or no chemical tellet for sevege disposal

HEATING*

there are no means of heating, or unit is heated by unvented room heaters burning gas, ell, or kerosene, or unit is heated by fireplace, stove, or space heater

MAINTENANCE

It suffers from any two of shees defects: leaking reof open gracks of holes in interior wells or seiling holes in the interior floor

broken plaster or peeling paint (ever 1 square foot) on interior wells or callings

PUBLIC HALL .

It suffers from any two of these defects: public halfs lack light fixtures lease or missing steps on common stainways stair railings missing or not firmly attached

TOILET ACCESS

access to sole flush toilet is through one of two or more bodrooms used for sleeping (applies only to households with children under 18)

ELECTRICAL

unit has exposed wiring and fuses or circuit breakers blew 3 or more times in last 90 days and unit lacks well plugs (outlets) in 1 or more reoms

(*) Doos not apply in the South Connus Rugian.

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Are We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978.



AFFORDABILITY

Affordability was defined as a family's paying ability for adequate housing in regards to needed space for family size.

HUD attributes the number of Hispsnics living in deficient housing to two variables:

- The simple economic factors of income and the price of housing, and
- 2. The demographic characteristics of the household.

When housing costs increase, a family is less likely to live in quality housing. Where households live geographically will bear on the price of housing. For example, HUD estimated the price of housing in the four Census Regions: Northeast, North Central, South and West. They found that "the likelihood of the family being inadequately housed is greater in the rural west and in the New York City area. It is least likely to be ill-housed in the North Central region in an SMSA of 1.5 million." 6/

A lower percentage of Hispanics are able to pay for adequate housing compared to the general population without spending more that 25 percent (a percentage traditionally accepted as the amount to pay for adequate housing) of their income. According to the HUD etudy, 71 percent of the Hispanics population can afford adequate housing at this percentage as compared to 80 percent of the general population. Affordability of housing within the



^{6/} Ibid., p. 19.

Hispanic subpopulations differs(see table 12). Cubans and South and Central Americans are closer to paying the-total-population percentage of 80 percent shelter cost, while seventy-three percent of Mexican-Americans can afford housing for the standard percentage of income (25). Puerto Ricans are least able to afford housing at the 25 percent standard with only 48 percent of them able to pay for adequate housing at that percentage rate-far less than is true for all other Hispanics and all U.S. households.

TABLE 12. Hispanics, and Especially Fuarto Ricans, Spend Proportionally
More for Adequate Housing Than Others Do in 1976

Ratio Of Adoquate Housing Cost To Income	% Of .2.U RA Househalds	% Of All Hispanic Households	% Of . Chicanes	% Of Puerte Ricen	% Of Cuben	% Of Central and South American
Under 10%	44,0%	23.9%	23.8%	9.5%	20.3%	24.4%
Under 20%	74.3%	60.7%	62.1%	36.3%	73.8%	M AŠ
Under 25%	80.3%	70.7%	72.9%	48.0%	79.7%	78.2%
Under 30%	34.4%	77.0%	79.1%	96.9%	#3.9%	80.3%
Under 36%	87.5%	82.8%	94.9%	87,7%	86.9%	84.4%
Linder 40%	80.9%	86.1%	87.7%	75.8%	90.3%	96.5%
Under 50%	92.9%	90,7%	91.0%	96.5%	94.4%	92.7%
Under 80%	94.7%	\$3.4%	93.7%	80.0%	95.2%	94.8%
Under 70%	96,0%	95.1%	95.1%	92.2%	87.2%	94.8%

Source: U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Report: How Well Ara We Housed? Hispanics 1. 1978.





TENURE

Home-ownership among the Hispanic population is low compared to the total population. In 1980, 42.4 percent of the Hispanic households owned housing units compared to 65..6 percent for the total population. 7/

The rate of Hispanic home-ownership differs from city to city, according to a CRS report. Howe-ownership was examined in 10 cities with large Hispanic concentrations. Finchings were such that in those cities Hispanic home-ownership rates were usually lower compared to the total home-ownership rates. Additionally, there was some relationship between the degree of Higpanic home-ownership and the degree of home-ownership for the total population. However, this relationship was not constant, "with the Hispani rate ranging from 84 percent of the total rate in Denver down to 47 percent of the rate in New York [two of the cities examined]." 8/

LOCATION

As previously noted, in comparison with the total population, more Bispanic households live in metropolitan areas. They comprise 5.4 percent of those in SMSA's and 7.4 percent of those in central cities; but only 2.3 of households outside of SMSA's. 9/



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^{7/} U.S. Department of Commerce and U.S Department of Housing and Urban Development. Annual House Survey, 1980. Current Housing Reports Series H-150-80, February 1982. Table A-9, p. 47, A-1, p. 1.

^{8/} U.S. Library of Congress. Congressional Research Service. The Housing of Hispanic Households in Selected Cities in the United States; by Grace Milgram and Both A. Innis. [Washington] 1979. 26 p.

^{9/} Ibid.

In addition, Hispanic households tend to be clustered in cities. These concentrations are characteristic of the ethnic group settlements in general in the United States. They occur partly because of language and cultural differences and partly because of discriminatory practices within the housing market. 10/

Displacement

Gamerally, minority groups are more susceptible to housing displacement than other segments of the population. This is so because a disporportionate number of them are located in low rent and declining central city neighborhoods. According to some Hispanic housing leaders these neighborhoods in the past have been targets for redevelopment because residents, many of whom are poor, lacked the political or aconomic clout to resist the destruction of their neighborhoods.

Hispanics, the sacond largest minority group, have very probably not been shaltered from the displacement phenomenon. Despite the lack of available attained from the displacement phenomenon. Despite the lack of available attained from the displacement to conjecture that the Hispanic experience mirrors that of other minorities, particularly blacks, with regard to displacement from inner city neighborhoods. A paper 11/ by the The Netional Hispanic Housing Coalition (NHHC) citas cases of Hispanic displacement in such cities as Phoenix, Arizona and Albuquerque, New Mexico. Not only is displacement of Hispanics a result of private market action, but, according

^{10/} Ibid.

^{11/} Paper on Proposed National Hispanic Housing end Community Development Policy. National Hispanic Housing Coalition. 1980.

to the NHMC, such Federal programs as Community Davelopment Block Grant (CDBG) are prime contributors. In Phoenix, seventy percent of displaced persons were Rispanics resulting from CDBG programs.

Discrimination

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Like blacks, many Hispanics have experienced discrimination in the housing market. An example of this is reported in a MUD study, 12/ which showed Chicanos (Mexican-Americans) are discriminated against in the housing rental market in the Dallas area.

The study finds that dark-skinned Chicanos encountered blatant forms of housing discrimination much more often than light-skinned Chicanos. Finally, the study finds that, at least in the Dallas rental market, light-skinned Chicanos appear to encounter discriminatory treatment about as often as blacks, while dark-skinned Chicanos appear to encounter discriminatory treatment more often than bl cks.

That dark-skinned Chicsnos in Dallas are discriminated against significantly more often than either blacks or light skinned Chicsnos is clearly the most important finding of the study. There are several possible explanations why dark-skinned Chicanos encounter more discrimination.

One explanation could be that different rental agents discriminate for different reasons and that dark-akinned Chicanos, as a group, are discriminated against not only by agents who discriminate against Chicanos, per se, but also by agents who discriminate because of skin color. Another explanation could be that rental agents are more average to renting to Chicanos with dark skins because they consider them to be less assimilated or of lower sociosconomic status than those with light skins. It is also possible that dark-akinned Chicanos are more likely to be thought of as illegal immigrants.

There is no resson to believe that the Dallas experience is an exception to general treatment of Hispanics in housing markets.



^{12/} U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development. Office of Policy Development and Research. Discrimination Against Chicanos in the Dallas Rantal Housing Market. August 1979.

CHAPTER 10

EQUAL HOUSING OPPORTUNITIES FOR HISPANIC AMERICANS by Charles V. Dele American Law Division

INTRODUCTION

The problem of exclusionary zoning, and its impact on housing opportunities for minorities generally and the Hispanic community in particular, has been the acurce of increasing controversy within the context of court actions challenging local governmental action to block the construction of low and moderate income housing. In Ybarra v. Town of Los Altos Hills 1/ the Ninth Gircuit Court of Appeals austained the dismissal of a suit by a Mexican-American monprofit organization claiming that the large lot zoning oxdinance of Los Altos Hills, Galifornia, unconstitutionally prevented the construction of a section 236 fadarally subsidized project on land acquired by the plaintiffs for that purpose. Similarly, in Acevedo v. Massau County 2/ the Second Gircuit rejected a similar challenge on the ground that county officials had no constitutional or atatutory duty to provide low-income family housing for its Mexican-American residents. In each case, the court found that the zoning action, which applied equally to all low-income projects, did not discriminate against prospective Mexican-

(123)



^{1/ 503} F. 2d 250 (9th Gir. 1974).

^{2/ 500} F. 2d 1078 (2d Gir. 1974).

American residents. In a third case, Southern Alamede Spanish-Speaking
Organization (SASSO) v. Union City 3/, both the trial and appellate courte
refused to overturn a referendum, held by objecting residente, to nullify a
soning change to permit construction of a section 236 project in a white middle
class neighborhood, because the evidence did not warrent a finding of purposeful
discrimination. On remand, however, the district court invoked a remedy which
imposed rigorous affirmative duties on the defendant city to accommodate the
hossing needs of its low-income Spanish-speaking residents.

The focus of exclusionary land use litigation has shifted from the Constitution to challenges based on the Federal civil rights laws, particularly the 1968 Fair Housing Act, in the wake of the 1977 Supreme Court ruling in the Arlington Heighte case. The court there held that proof of discriminatory intent was necessary to setablish an equal protection violation by the actions of local authorities in exclusionary zoning cases. Subsequently, however, a series of lower Federal court decisions have found the Fair Housing Act of 1968 violated by land use practices that had the effect of excluding blacks, Hispanics, and other minorities from the community even though discriminatory motive could not be shown. The application of this "effects" test in the context of the Fair Housing Act promises a significant advancement in housing opportunities for all groups covered by thu 1968 Act, including persone of Hiepanic origin. The remainder of this report will consider the implications of these post-Arlington Heights decisione and other recent actions by the Department of Justice attacking the problem of exclusion of subsidized low and moderate-income housing by local governmental action.



^{3/ 424} F. 2d 291 (9th Cir. 1970).

An Overview of the Federal Law on Exclusionary Zoning

Municipalities traditionally have had broad powers to control the uses to which proparty owners may put their land through the enactment of local zoning ordinances. 4/ Over the past decade, however, the Federal courts in axclusionary land use litigation have increasingly been called upon to determine the legality, under the Federal Constitution and civil rights laws, of local policies that have the effect of excluding racial and athnic minorities from the community by limiting construction of low and moderate-income housing. Judicial review in these cassa has generally involved claims of alleged racial and ethnic discrimination forbidden by the Equal Protection Clause of the Fourteenth Amendment and the 1964 and 1968 Civil Rights Acts. As currently interpreted by the Supreme Court, the Equal Protection Clause forbids only those exclusionary zoning achemes that are the product of a racially discriminatory purpose & the local decision-making body. 5/ Thus, the most expansive source of judicial authority over exclusionary zoning decisions lies in the Civil Rights Acts, particularly the Fair Housing Act of 1968, which has baen hald in a recent aerizz of Federal court of appeals decisions to prohibit policism that have a discriminatory effact on housing opportuties for minorities aven where an intent to discriminate cannot be shown.

The use of Federal funds by localities in a manner fostering racial saggragation within the community is prohibited by title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, providing that "no person shall, on the ground of race, color,



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^{4/} Sea, e.g., Village of Euclid v. Ambler Realty Co., 272 U.S. 365, 1926; Village of Belle Terra v. Boreza, 416 U.S. 1, 1974.

^{5/} Village of Arlington Heights v. Matropolitan Housing Department Corp., 429 U.S. 252, 1976.

or national origin, . . . be subjected to discrimination under eny progress or activity receiving Federal financial assistance." 6/ The 1964 Act has thus been held to forbid the use of discriminatory site end tenent selection procedures for federally subsidised housing projects that contribute to segregated residential patterns in the sided community. 7/ Additional Federel authority over local land use controls was provided by the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974 8/ which conditioned all community development sesistance, including that for nonhousing related projects, on compliance with the Act. In order to "reduc[a] . . . the isolation of income groups within communities and geographical areas and . . . [promote] the spatiel deconcentration of housing opportunities for persons of lower income," 9/ each community applying for a block grant wea required by the 1974 Act to submit a housing assistance plan (HAP) for lower income persons "residing in or expected to reside in the community." 10/ The community was also required to provide "astisfactory assurances that the program will be conducted and administered in conformity with" the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Feir Housing Act of 1968. 11/



^{6/ 42} U.S. 2000d.

^{7/} See, e.g., Hills v. Gautraaux, 425 U.S. 284, 1976; Shannon v. HUD, 436 F. 2d 809 (3d Gir. 1970); also, 24 C.F.R. \$ 14(b)(2)(i), 1980.

^{8/ 42} U.S.C. 5304-5305.

^{9/ 42} U.S.G. 5301(c)(6).

^{10/ 42} U.S.G. 5304(a)(4)(A).

^{11/ 42} U.S.G. 5304(e)(5).

In enacting the Fair Housing Act, to provide "within constitutional limitations, for fair housing throughout the United States," 12/ Congress vested the courts with broad remedial authority to combat public and private discrimination in the housing market. 13/ The Act makes in unlewful to "refuse to sell or rent . . . or otherwise make unavailable or deny, a Jwalling to any person because of rece, color, religion, sex, or national origin. 14/ This general prohibition is supplemented by further bens against discrimination "in the provision of services or facilities in connection" with the sale or rental of a dwalling 15/ and actions that "coerce, intimidate, threaten, or interfere with any person in the exercise or enjoyment of" rights granted under the Act. 16/ Bacausa of judicially engrafted limitations on the reach of the Equal Protection Clause under Arlington Heights, 17/ the courts have increasingly ralied on the Fair Housing Act to invalidate local zoning actions that discriminate against minorities.

In Arlington Haighte, the Supreme Court ruled that local officials' refusal to reaone a percel of land to accommodate a proposad low and moderate income housing project did not violate the Constitution because there was no showing of a racially discriminatory purpose. Guided by its 1976 ruling in

^{12/ 42} U.S.C. 3601.

^{13/ 42} U.S.C. 3612(c).

^{14/ 42} U.S.C. 3604(a).

^{15/ 42} U.S.C. 3604(b).

^{16/ 42} U.S.C. 3617.

^{17/} See, nota 2 (supra).

prarequisite to reliaf under the Squel Protection Clausa, the Court concluded that the "finding that the Village's decision carried a discriminatory 'ultimate effect' is without independent constitutional significance," but remanded the case for a determination of whether this discriminatory effect along would violate the fair housing provisions of title VIII. 19/ On remand,

19/ In finding a lack of discriminatory purpose in the Arlington Heights case, the Court sought to indentify "without purporting to be exhaustive," subjects of proper inquiry in determining whather racially discriminatory intent existed. The courts enumeration and analysis of relevant factors, however, indicates no cleer choice between a subjective and objective test for intent, but suggests that both kinds of evidence have a place. Generally, for intent, but suggests that both kinds of evidence have a place. Generally, the inquiry is to include consideration of such "circumstantial and direct evidence as may be available." The opinion refers explicitly to the evidence as may be available. The opinion refers explicitly to the motivation of the defendants and deems relevant the contemporaneous atatements and subsequent testimony of members of the decision-making body, (continued)



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^{18/ 426} U.S. 266, 1976. Davia involved an equal protection challenge to a verbal ability teat used by the District of Columbia police dapartment to screan its applicants. Rejected black applicants charged that the teat procedure was constitutionally invalid because blacks failed in greater proportion than their whita counterparts, and because there was no showing of a aufficiently close relationship between test results and job performance. In danying relief, the Suprame Court drew a distinction in Davis between an in danying relier, the Suprame Court drew a distinction in Davis between an equal protection claim, which it held could only be based on purposeful racial discrimination, and a claim under title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights racial discriminatory intent need not be proven. The Court affirmed Act, for which discriminatory intent need not be proven. The Court affirmed its previous holding in Griggs v. Duka Power, 401 U.S. 424, 1971 thet title The Court affirmed VII prohibita employment practices that diaqualify a aubstantially diaproportionate number of blacks, unless the practices are validated in terms of jou performance. "However this process proceeds," Justica White wrote in describing the "more rigorous" title VII at indard, "it involves a more probing judicial review of, and less deferance to, the ageningly reasonable acts of administratora and executives than is appropriate under the Constitution where special racial impact, without discriminatory purpose, is claimed." While Davis mada clear that statutory nondiacrimination requirementa, such as the title VII ban on employment discrimination, are not subject to the same limitations as constitutional claims, and that Congress may by statute prohibit mere disproportionate racial impact or discriminatory effect, it did not indicate whether title VII atandarda apply in other atatutory contexta, auch as title VIII.

the Court of Appeals for the Seventh Circuit held that the Fair Housing Act claim should be sustained if "the Village's rafusal to rezone effectivaly precluded plaintiffs from construction low-cost housing within Arlington Heights, because "at least under some circumstances a violation of title VIII can be established by a showing of discriminatory effect without a showing of discriminatory intent." 20/

The Supreme Court to date has not specifically addressed the question left open by Arlington Heights whether discriminatory effect or discriminatory purpose is the proper measure of a Fair Housing Act case, and the court of appeals have split over the extent to which the "effects test" daveloped by the Court in Griggs v. Duke Power Co., 21/ and other employment discrimination decisions, should be extended to housing cases. The Seventh Circuit's opinion



⁽continued) minutes of its meetings, or reports. But the lack of testimonial or other direct evidence regarding the subjective motivation of the decision—makers was not crucial. Other slements of the analysis point to an objective test. In this regard, disproportionate racial impact is relevant, as are the "historical background of the dacision" and the "specific sequence of evants" leading to it, particularly if they show a "departure from the normal procedural sequence." Moreover, the Court noted that "substantive departures" from prior policy may be relevant to a finding of intent if "the factors usually considered important by the decisionmaker atrongly favor a decision contrary to the one reached." See, 429 U.S. 266-268.

^{20/ 558} F. 2d 1283, 1290 (7th Cir. 1977), cert. denied, 434 U.S. 1025, 1978.

^{21/ 401} U.S. 424, 1971. Griggs held that proof of discriminatory intent is not required by title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, 42 U.S.G. 2000e et seq., which prohibits job requirements that have the effect of discriminating against blacks, even if they are adopted without any discriminatory motive. The Griggs court found that "Congress directed the thrust of the Act to the consequences of employment practices, not simply the motivation," and that "good intent or the absence of discriminatory intent does not redeem employment procedures or testing mechanisms that operate as 'built-in headwinds' for minority groups and are unralated to measuring job capability." 401 U.S. at 432.

in Arlington Meights II relied on two decisions of the Righth Circuit holding that title VIII prohibits housing practices with discriminatory affects, 22/ and the Third Circuit adopted the same position in a decision that came down after Arlington Reights, 23/ Taking the opposite view, the Sixth Circuit had rejected an affects test in an exclusionary soning case similar to Arlington Heights, 24/ and the Fourth Circuit has also indicated, in a split decision, that it considered proof of discriminatory intent to be required in a title VIII case. 25/ The Second Circuit has produced conflicting decisions. 26/ Moreover, even those courts of appeal that have agreed that a showing of discriminatory impact or affect establishes a prime facie case under the Feir Housing Act, there are differences in the nature of the defendent's burden of justification resulting from such a showing.

Noting the similarity of the statutory prohibition discrimination "because of race" in title VII and title VIII, and the commitment to integrated housing instinct in the declaration of congressional policy in the Fair Housing Act,

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^{22/} Smith v. Anchor Building Corp., 536 F. 2d 231 (8th Cir. 1976); United States v. City of Gluck Jack, Missouri, 508 F. 2d 1179 (8th Cir. 1974), cert. denied, 435 U.S. 908, 1978.

^{23/} Resident Advisory Board v. Rizzo, 564 F. 2d 126 (3rd Cir. 1977), cert. denied, 435 U.S. 908, 1978.

^{24/} Joseph Skillken & Co. v. City of Toledo, 528 F. 2d 867 (6th Cir. 1977), veceted and remanded, 429 U.S. 1068, 1977; 558 F. 2d 350 (6th Cir. 1977), Cert. denied, 434 U.S. 985, 1978.

^{25/} Hadison v. Jaffara, 494 F. 2d 114 (4th Cir. 1973).

^{26/} Compare, Boyd v. Lefrek Organization, 509 F. 2d 1110 (2d Cir. 1975), cert. denied, 423 U.S. 896, 1975 with Kannady Perk Homae Ass'n v. City of Lackewenne, 436 F. 2d 102 (2d Cir. 1970), cert. dunied, 401 U.E. 1010, 1971. See, also Citizens Committee for Fareday Wood v. Lindsey, 507 F. 2d 1065 (2d Cir. 1974), cert. denied, 421 U.S. 948 (1975); Acevando v. Nesseu County, 500 F. 2d 1078 (2d Cir. 1974).

the Seventh Circuit in Arlington Heights II reasoned that conduct that perpetuates segregation is as destructive of open housing as intentionally discriminatory action. As in Griggs, however, the appeals court recognized that not all practices with discriminatory effects are illegel and identified four "critical factors" that it considered relevant to a determination of liability under title VIII.

(1) how strong is the plaintiff's showing of discriminatory effect; (2) is there some evidence of discriminatory intent, though not enough to satisfy the constitutional standard of Washington v. Davis; (3) what is the defendant's interest in taking the action complained of; and (6) does the plaintiff sesk to compel the defendant to affirmatively provide housing for members of minority groups or merely to reatrain the defendant from interfering with individual property owners who seek to provide such housing. 27/

Applying these criteria, the court found that the Villege acted pursuant to a legitimate zoning interest, the protection of property values and presarvation of the integrity of its comprehansive zoning plan, and that ita refusal to rezone was not racially motivated. On the other hand, the moderately disproportionate impact of ita refusal to rezone—the disparity between a 40 percent minority representation in the class of eligible low-income tenanta and the 15 percent minority representation in the area of population—coupled with the nearly all—white population of the Village itself, constituted a atrong discriminatory effect. Because developers of the proposed project merely aought to enjoin the Village from interfering with private efforts to build integrated housing, however, it concluded that resolution depended upon clarification of whether the Village's zoning decision actually perpetuated aegregation within its borders. Thus if the trial court was unable to identify other property in the village both properly zoned and suitable for



^{27/ 558} F. 2d at 1290.

federally submidized low income housing, the refusel to rezone would result in a discriminatory effect atrong enough to constitute a violetion of Title VIII.

United States v. City of Black Jack 28/ is unique among the early exclusionary zoning cases because it was a title VIII suit brought by the Attorney General, and no claim under the Equal Protection Clause was involved. In Black Jack, the Eighth Circuit atruck down a zoning ordinance that prevented construction of a subsidized, integrated housing development in an ell white community near St. Louis, despite a trial court finding that Black Jack had not acted out of racial motives. Although there was substantial evidence of discriminatory purpose, the court explicitly refused to base its holding on this evidence. Rather, it cited a number of equal protection and title VIII cases to support its conclusion that

the plaintiff need prove no more than that the conduct of the defendant actually or predictably results in racial discrimination; in other words, that it has a discriminatory effect. The plaintiff need make no showing whatsoever that the action resulting in racial discrimination in housing was racially motivated. Effect, and not motivation, is the touchetone. . . . 29/

The court measured the effect of the city's action in terms of its ultimate effect and rejected the district court's reasoning that eince approximately the same percentages of blacks and whites in the area would be eligible for residence in the project, the law did not operate in a racielly discriminatory fashion. Conceding that the metropoliten area as a whole was substantially segregated "in large measure [es a] result of deliberete racial discrimination in the housing market, by the real satate industry, and by agencies of the federal, etate, and local governments," it considered the city's ordinance



^{28/ 508} F. 2d 1179 (8th Cir. 1974), cert. denied, 422 U.S. 1042, 1975. 29/ 508 F. 2d at 1184-85.

"but one more factor confining blacks to low income housing in the center city." 30/ Thus, the Eighth Circuit went on to determine that the city's action in blocking the development did have a discriminatory effect and that its claimed justification for that action——controlling traffic, preventing uvercrowded schools, and maintaining property values—were inadequate to meet its evidentiary burden.

Resident Advisory Board v. Rizzo, 31/ was he first exclusionary zoning case to reach a Federal appeals court after the Supreme Court decided Arlington Heights. That suit involved an affort by local officials to prevent construction of a low-income housing project in the Whitman Urban Renewal Area in South Philadelphia, a virtually all-white neighborhood. The Third Circuit held that the city's housing and redevelopment authorities, though not shown to have purposefully discriminated, nevertheless violated title VIII, because their "acts had discriminatory effect and . . . the agencies have failed to justify the discriminatory results of their actions." 32/ In reaching this conclusion, the court considered the history of racial segregation in Philadelphia and the fact that 95 percent of the persons on the city's waiting list for public housing were racial minorities. Further discussing the title VIII standard of proof, the Rizzo court stated that plaintiffs' prima facie came could be rebutted by evidence that defendants' action served a legitimate interest and was the means which produced the least adverse effect on racial minorities. Local officials failed at trial to produce such



^{30/ 508} F. 2d at 1186.

^{31/ 564} F. 2d 126 (3d Cir. 1977), cert. denied, 435 U.S. 908 (1978).

^{32/ 564} F. 2d at 146.

evidence, however, and in dicta, the Third Circuit went on to indicate that any colorable interest of the State in preventing racial disturbances did not sufficiently outweigh or justify the inffingement of rights protected by title VIII.

Predicting a significant increase in exclusionery zoning litigation under title VIII, the Rizzo opinion observed:

Until reletively recently, federal courts were not often celled upon to edjudicate Title VIII claims. We attribute this circumstance to our impression that, at lesst with respect to alleged discrimination in housing by govarnmental agencies, the inquiry into claimed equal protection violations has made unnecessary a separate consideration of the 'coextensive' rights and remedies efforded by Title VII. However, given the increased burden of proof which Washington v. Davie and Arliegton Heights now place upon equal protection claimante, we suspect that Title VIII will undoubtedly appear as a mora attractive route to nondiscriminatory housing, as litigants become increasingly aware that Title VIII rights may be enforced even without direct evidence of discriminatory intent. We conclude that, in Title VIII cases, by analogy to Title VII cases, unrebutted proof of discriminatory effect alone may justify federal equitable response. 33/

Thus, the Third Circuit interpreted Title VIII in a manner similar to the Eighth Circuit's interpretation in Black Jack and to the Seventh Circuit's decision on second in Arlington Heights, mandating construction of the project and enjoining governmental defendants from interfering with it.

On June 5, 1980, the U.S. District Court for the Northern Dietrict of Ohio rulad in <u>United States</u> v. <u>City of Parms 34/</u> that the City of Parms, Ohio, a white auburb of Cleveland, had engaged in a "pattern and practice" of racial exclusion in violation of the Fair Housing Act. In the first euch Justice Department suit against a municipality for actions beyond the frustration of a specific proposed housing development, the court found that Parma's



^{33/ 554} F. 2d at 146.

^{34/ 494} F. Supp. 1049 (N.D. Ohio 1980).

pereletent recietence to the construction of low-income housing was motivated by racial considerations and had discriminatory effects. "Regardless of whether a 'recially discriminatory intent' or a 'recially discriminatory' affacts' standard is employed," the court stated, "Perms has violated Section 804(s) and 817 of the Fair Housing Act."

The decision was based on the government's evidence regarding five series of actions taken by Parma officials between 1968 to 1975, all of which were claimed to have inhibited or prevented blacks from moving into Parma, theraby sateblishing a policy of racial exclusion. The apacific actions or series of actions that constituted the core of the government's case included the city's rejection of Community Davalopment Block Grant funds and the required HAP Plan; its refusal to adopt a fair housing resolution velcoming "all persons of good will" to Parma; its general opposition to public or low-income housing; its denial of building permits to the developers of a federally subsidized low-income project called Persmatown Woods; and its adoption of land-use ordinances imposing height, parking, and voter approval restrictions that had, in the court's view, the "purpose and affect" of preventing the construction of low-income housing in Parma.

The court found the evidence of recielly discriminatory intent
"overwhelming," with public expressions of reciel bies not limited solely to
residents of the city but its highest elected public officials as well.

Every time Perms was confronted with the choice between decisions that would have had an integrative or eggregative effect, Perms chose the latter. The city of Perms consistently has made decisions which have perpetuated and re-enforced its image as a city where blacks are not welcome. This is the very essence of a pattern and practice of recial discrimination. 25/



^{35/ 494} F. Supp. et 1097.

But the city violated the Fair Housing Act not only because it made decisions with the intent to discriminate, but also because its decisions had significant discriminatory effects. The challenged actions, the court held, "here had the effect, individually, and collectivaly, of excluding blacks from the City, maintaining the segregated character of the City, preventing the construction of housing in which blacks might reside, and deterring developers from proposing and constructing integrated housing." 36/ In addition to a pattern and practice of violating rights secured by the Fair Housing Act, the court found that the city had prevented groups of persons from enjoying these rights. Besides blacks, who had been prevented or deterred from obtaining housing in Parms, Parms regidents were found to have been denied the right and benefit of inter-racial sesociation guaranteed by the Act, and the city had interfered with private developers attempting to provide equal housing opportunities in Parms, all in violation of the Act.

In reaching its conclusions, the court rejected Parma's defense that its demographic patterns were the result of free choice, and the argument that it was unfair to single out the City alone when other localities in the Cleveland area were indistinguishable in demography and past public actions. The court also pointed out that

Actions which are typically lawful, such as mandatory referendum on housing and zoning matters, a locality's decision not to apply for federal assistance in housing, and a community's refusal to promote low-income housing, lose that character when they are undertaken for a discriminatory purpose. 37/





^{36/ 494} F. Supp. at 1100.

^{37/} Id., at 15927.

It was the court's findings, however, with respect to the segregative effects of the city's actions that may have the greatest pracedential value, for it seems unlikely that evidence regarding discriminatory intent, which in Parma's case was substantial, could be developed to the same satent in many other communities. 38/

The courts have also begun to scrutiniss local policies with regard to low and moderate-income housing in connection with school desagragation proceedings. For example, in response to the U.S. District Court order in Liddell v. Board of Education, 39/ the St. Louis, Board of Education, with cooperation of the Community Development agency of St. Louis, and the U.S. Department of Housing and Urben Development filed a suggested plan, as required by the order, "for insuring that the operation of federally-assisted housing programs in the St. Louis metropolitan area will facilitate the school desagragation order therein." Under the proposed plan, three major objectives are set forth:

1) to assure that assisted housing programs supported ongoing afforts to desegragate schools; 2) to establish methods whereby state and local officials can utilize Federal programs related to housing and urban development to sesist in school desegragation; and 3) to



^{38/} On Decamber 14, 1980, U.S. District Judge Battisti issued his remedial order in the Párma case. That order required the city to affirmatively seek minority residents to occupy low and moderate-income housing raquired to be built at a rate of at least 133 units annually, and provided for a special master to oversea these afforts. In addition, Judge Battisti invalidated a Psrma ordinance requiring voter approval for low-income housing and portions of other ordinances restricting low and moderate-income housing construction. A Fair Housing Committes was also created to develop advertising and aducational programs and draft a fair housing resolution, develop an outreach program to make Parma an open community, and to establish ties with regional fair housing and minority groups, establish a housing information and referral service to-assist interested perties, develop programs to foster an interest among housing davelopers in constructing low-income housing in Parma, and conduct a survey of vacant land in Parma suitable for use in low-income housing davelopment. Ses, Wall Street Journal, p. 13, December 5, 1980,

^{39/ 491} F.; Supp. 351 (E.D. Ho. 1980).

spacify the actions HUD will take in connection with its assisted housing programs to facilitate and augment the efforts of state and local officials to expand housing opportunities throughout the St. Louis Metropolitan area. 40/

Toward this end, HUD atetes that it will sack to assure e net increase in the number of minority children living outside racially impacted areas as a result of the use of its programs. Furthermore, where there is substantial evidence "that, notwithstending effirmative efforts to attract persons to projects, the sale or rantal of units in a project will result in the denial of equal housing opportunities," HUD and the Department of Justice will consider the imposition of sales and occupancy restrictions to the extent permissible in the program to achieve the ends of the plan. 41/

On Saptember 24, 1980, the U.S. Department of Justice and the Chicago Board of Education aigned a comprahensive agreement requiring desagragation of the Nation's third largest public school system by the start of the 1981-82 achool year. 42/ The agreement, recognizing that "achool boards acting alone cannot relieve the sagragation that exists in cities as large as Chicago," commits the Justice Department to bring about a coordinated administration of federal programs in Chicago to help create and maintain stably integrated achools. Under the agreement, the Justice Department will complete its investigation of whether the State of Illinois, suburban achool districts, and suburban housing and land use laws contributed to racial sagragation in the Chicago metropolitan area. Results of the investigation will be



^{40/} Potomsc Institute, Metropolitan Housing Memorandum 80-5, p. 7, Dec. 1980.

^{41/} Id., et p. 8.

^{42/} Dept. of Justice Press Release, September 24, 1980.

submitted to the court and the Justice Department will take whetever legel action is appropriate. The Chicago case appears to the first attempt by the government to link housing, employment, and achools to achieve integration on a metropolitan basis.

As a result of a two year investigation prompted by compleint of the NAACP, the Department of Justice on December 1, 1980, initiated a title VI suit against Yonkers, N.Y., a suburb of New York Gity, for racially segregating its schools and supporting this policy by forbidding the construction of Federally assisted housing projects outside of minority neighborhoods. 43/ In addition to denying minorities equal housing opportunities, the suit elleges that the location of housing reinforced the segregated character of the school system. In a related action, HUD has conditioned Yonkers' \$4.3 million fiscal 1980 community development block grant on the city's implementation of an affirmative housing plan.

However, Joseph Skillken & Co. v. Gity of Toledo 44/ demonstrates that not all of the courts of appeals are receptive to exclusionary zoning cases. The Sixth Gircuit there upheld Toledo's decision to block a subsidized housing development in an affluent, all-white neighborhood despite an extremely disproportionsta racial impact. Toledo had a 14 percent mindrity population, while minorities comprised 70 percent of those on the weiting list for this type of housing. The district court, which ruled for the pleintiffs, had ini:ielly decided that Toledo's refusel to permit the development was



^{43/} Dept. of Justice Press Relesse, Decomber 1, 1980.

^{44/ 528} F. 2d 350 (6th Gir. 1977), cart. danied, 429 U.S. 1068, 1977.

racially motivated, but ultimately based its decision not on defendants' motivation, but on the fact that their action would have a racial discriminatory effect and would perpetuate residential segregation in Toledo.

In revereing, the Sixth Circuit concluded that the court below erred in finding official discrimination, but its opinion does not make clear whether it also disagreed with the trial court's finding of discriminatory effect.

Rather, the appeals court stated simply that low cost public housing does "not balong" in exclusive neighborhoods, "where property owners, relying on the zoning laws, have spent large sums of money to build fine homes for tha enjoyment of their families." 46/ This emphasis on the economic interests of local residents also led the Sixth Circuit to declare that granting the injunction sought by the plaintiffs would mean that "[i]nnocent people who labored hard all of their lives and saved their money to purchase homes in nice residential neighborhoods, and who never discriminated against anyone, would be faced with a total change in their neighborhoods, with the values of their properties elashed." 47/ Accordingly, the court of appaals heid that a racially neutral policy was not invalid under either the Equal Protection Clause or the Fair Housing Act just because it had a greater impact on minorities.

To recapitulate, recent trands in the case law indicate that discriminatory exercise of municipal land use authority may constitute a volation of title VIII and related constitutional and statutory guarantees. The major issue in the cases decided thus far relates to what constitutes sufficient proof of a



^{45/ 380} F. Supp. 228 (N.D. Ohio 1974).

^{46/ 528} F. 2d at 881.

^{47/ 528} F. 2d at 881. Y

discriminatory practice, and the nature of defendent's burden to provide adequate justification. The Third, Seventh, and Eighth Circuits have held that, in cases challenging municipal land use policies, a showing of discriminatory effect is sufficient to sustain the plaintiff's burden of proof under title VIII, while the Sixth Circuit in Skillken eppeared to reject the "effects test" in fevor of a more rigorous approach. Significantly, the Seventh circuit identified two seperate kinds of discriminatory effect that could be made the basis of a Title VIII action. The first, or so-celled "disperete impect" test, was found inappropriate in Arlington Heights II, despite the fact that the Villege's refusel to rezone adversely effected a relatively greater percentage of minorities than white, because 60 percent of the eligible applicants for subsidized housing in the eres were white. But this fector did not preclude a finding of discriminatory affect under the second test edopted by the Rizzo and Arlington Heighte II courte; that ie, "if it perpetuates segregation and thereby prevents interrecial essociation it will be considered invidious under the Feir Housing Act independently of the extent to which it produces a disperate impact on different racial groups" 48/ However, the elements necessery to prove a discriminatory affect, as well as the sufficiency of rebuttel evidence, ere etill in the process of judicial definition.

That there may be limite to the relief eveilable to Title VIII plaintiffe in exclusionary zoning cases is also apparent from Arlington Heighte II and Rizzo. For example, those decisions indicate that municipalities may defend a challenge to a particular land use policy demonstrating that enother percel of land appropriately zoned and equally suitable for the proposed use, exists



^{48/ 558} F. 2d at 1290.

within the community. That is, title VIII liability might attach only where it could be shown that adequate housing opportunities for minorities do not already exist and that the chillenged zoning action forecloses any possibility for future development. In addition, neither court determined whether title VIII, which requires HUD to "affirmatively" promote integrated Housing 48/ also compels the States or localities to provide for integrated housing within their borders. 49/ Thus, while local government officials might be precluded by title VIII from using their zoning powers to prevent all private development of low and moderate-income housing, there may be less judicial willingness to find a duty imposed on the municipality itself to provide such housing.

^{48/ 42} U.S.C 3608(d)(5) provides: "The Secretary of Housing and Urban Development shall . . . (5) administer the programs and activities related to housing and urban development in a manner affirmatively to further the policies of this subchapter.

^{49/} The few courts that have considered the scope of \$ 3608(d)(5) have reached conflicting conclusions. In Acevedo v. Massau County, 500 F. 2d 1978 (2d Cir. 1974) the Second Circuit held that \$ 3608(d)(5)'s affirmative mandate to promote integration applied only to HUD. In contrast, a different panel of the Second Circuit in Otero v. New York City Housing Authority, 484 F. 2d 1122 (2d Cir. 1973) held that \$ 3608(d)(5) also imposes an affirmative duty on local governments. The court reasoned that the Secretary's duty passes through him to other agencies administering Federally assisted housing projects. Without relying on the language of \$ 3608(d)(5), other courts have required local governments to foster open housing because they consider the active leadership of local governmental authorities essential to increased minority housing. See, Banka v. Perk, 341 F. Supp. 1175 (N.D. Ohio) (duty of city administrator to support and aid housing projecta), rev'd in part on other grounds 910 (6th Cir. 1973); Crow v. Brown, 332 F. Supp. 362 (N.D. Ga. 1971) rev'd in part on other grounds, 473 F. 2d (responsibility of municipality for racial concentration within its border) Of course, Rizzo and the Parma case demonstrate that title VIII can result in a court order requiring the defendant to build integrated housing, but at the same time show that the relief in such a case should be tailored to correcting the particular violation proved.

Generally, the touchstone for title VIII liability is defined in terms of actions and inactions which interfere with housing opportunities, not the failure to provide remedial housing assistance. 50/ In any event, the Third Circuit in Rizzo stressed that the special problems posed by exclusionary zoning litigation, perticularly those concerning relief and the defendant's justification, required a delicate case-by-case approach to the use of the actifact standard under title VIII.

It should also be emphasized that absent evidence that local land use policies are discriminatory in purpose or affect, there is no authority in title VIII or the Constitution for either negating plans and regulations that exclude low and moderate income individuals from a locality, or requiring municipalities to take affirmative action with respect to such persons. 51/ Moreover, in Hills v. Gautraeux 52/ the Supreme Court accorded substantial deference to local land use decisions, and has alsowhere also indicated its



^{50/} See, 42 U.S.C. 3604, 3605, 3606.

^{51/} Of course, communities receiving funds under the Community Development Block Grent Program are required, as a condition to essistance under the Act, to adopt a housing assistance plan addressing the housing needs of low and moderate-income persons in the area in which the community is located. See discussion at p. 2 (supra).

^{52/ 425} U.S. 284, 1976. That case involved the unconstitutional practices of the Chicago Housing Authority and HUD with respect to the location of public housing projects in Chicago. The Supreme Court held that it was within the remedial power of the district court to require the Authority to seek dispersal of public housing projects outside the city limits (also within its jurisdiction) since such an order would not necessarily interfers with local government operations. The Court emphasized that those suburbe not implicated in the violation would retain their statutory power to withhold approval of federally subsidized housing within their borders, even though a metropolitan plan was appropriate to remedy the discriminatory acts of HUD and the authority.

support for use of referenda and the political process in reaching zoning daciations free of racial overtones. Thus, for example, in <u>James</u> v.

<u>Valtierra</u>, 53/ tha Court upheld an amandment to the California Constitution requiring approval by local referendum of low-income public housing projecta batore construction could begin. In so doing, the Court was particularly influenced by the long history of raferanda in California, and the fact that public housing was only one area subject to raferenda. It was only reasonable for the people to have a voice on public housing since it might financially burden them. Additionally, the racord did not show that the raferendum requirement "was aimed at a racial minority." The Court stated: "The Article requires raferendum approval for any low-rent public housing project not only for projects which will be occupied by a racial minority." 54/

As in the Parma case, however, the courts might, consistently with James, invalidate reference, in low and moderata-income housing where their history is not similarly race-neutral. In Reitman v. Mulkey 55/ the Supreme Court gave its explicit imprimatur to considerations of historical context in evaluating the lawfulness of referendum outcomes. It then rejected a California constitutional amendment, adopted by initiative, that would have prohibited legislative interference with private homeowner's freadom to sall to whomever ha chose. In doing so, the Court noted that the amendment was pased after a long legislative atruggle to pass open housing laws. The Court concluded that the purpose of the amendment was to promote discrimination, and that



^{53/ 402} U.S. 137, 1971.

^{54/ 402} U.S. at 141.

^{55/ 387} U.S. 369, 1967.

its ultimate affect would be to practude future State action to combat discrimination. As such, <u>Reitman</u> provides authority for the proposition that referendum results may be challenged in terms of historical context and ultimate discriminatory affect. 56/

Finally, it appears the the Perms case, discussed above, was one of a total five actions by the Justice Department challenging exclusionary land usa practices during the first ten years after enactment of the Fair Housing Act. The other four cases were in Black Jock, Missouri; Lackswanna, Naw York, Sault Ste. Haria, Michigan; and Milford, Ohio. Since that time, in addition to the achool desagragation suits in St. Louis, Chicago, and Yonkars (supra), the Department has initiated or participated in at least savan other axclusionary zoning cases during 1979 and 1980. Thus, the Department has intervened as plaintiff in a private suit charging the attempt by the Town of Manchaster, Connecticut, to withdraw from the Community Development Block Grant Program pursuant to an allaged racially inspired referendum violates both the Fair Housing Act and the Fourteenth Amendment. Suit was also filed by the Dapartment against the City of Birmingham, Michigan, alleging that it had pursued a "pattern or practice" of praventing the development of racially integrated low-income housing within its boundaries. In a suit against the City of Dunkirk, New York-which, unlike Manchaster and Birmingham, has a



^{56/} Sam, also, SASSO v. City of Union City, 424 F. 2d 191 (9th Cir. 1970) (historical evidenc was not as unambiguous as to warrant finding of discrimination in a referendum result which prohibited construction of low-income project which the city had approved) Otey v. Common Council of Milweukee, 281 F. Supp. 264 (E.D. Wiac. 1968). But cf., Ranjal v. City of Lansing, 293 F. Supp. 301, (W.D. Mich.), rev'd, 417 F. 2d 321 (6th Cir. 1969), cert. denied, 397 U.S. 980 (1970). (appallate court ruling that discriminatory) purpose is irrelevant to legality of proposed referendum on a planned low-income housing project, holding may be questionable after Suprame Court ruling in Arlington Haights.

eignificently minority population -- the Department has alleged that the City prevented the construction of low and moderate-income housing in white neighborhoods within its boundaries. It has also intervened in a private suit on behalf of the Lummi Indian Tribe in the State of Washington, challenging the State's interference with the Tribe's ability to provide sewer facilities, and thereby provide housing for Indian residents of the Lummi Reservation. Related suits involving land use practices, or other municipal policies regarding low and moderate income housing, have within the last year been filed by the Department against Chickessw, Alabama, Texarkene, Texas; and Hertford, Connecticut. 57/

In a June 2, 1980, speech to a national conference on The Liability Crisis in County Government, co-aponaored by the National Association of Countise and various legal groups, Assistant Attorney General under the Certar Administration, Draw S. Days III, indicated the Justice Department's concern over the exclusion of federally subsidised low and moderate income housing by local government action.

We do not seek to invelidate the exercise of local governmental authority so long as it does not conflict with the Fair Housing Act. . . [I]t is possible for the general operation of a municipality's land use practices to violate the Fair Housing Act even in the absence of specific actions directed toward blocking perticular housing developments. The extense of a notoriously exclusionary policy can serve to deter developers from even extempting to build certain types of housing in a municipality. 58/

Whether exclusionery soming prectices will continue to be a priority concern of the Department of Justice under the Reagan Administration remains to be seen.



^{57/} Information obtained from Dept. of Justice Press Releases issued during 1979 and 1980.

^{58/} Remarks of Oraw S. Days III, Assistant Attorney General, Civil Rights Division Sefors the Third Metional Conference on the Liability Crisis in County Government, held in Atlanta, Georgia, on June 2, 1980. p. 6.

APPENDIX

REPORTS FROM THE 1980 CENSUS OF POPULATION AND HOUSING

WHICH CONTAIN SPANISH ORIGIN DATA

1980 CENSUS VOLUME I AND II POPULATION REPORTS CONTAINING SPANISH ORIGIN DATA

REPORTS HOW AVAILABLE

PC80-1-8 General Population Characteristics

4,4

Reports available for each State and the Di trict of Columbia. Reports for the United States, Pruerto Rico, a 4 the outlying areas are forthcoming.

REPORTS PLANNED FOR PUBLICATION

PC8D-1-C General Social and Economic Characteristics

Reports will be prepared for the United States, each State, the District of Columbia, Fuerto Rico, and the outlying areas.

PCSO-1-D Datailed Population Characteristics

Reports will be prepared for the United States, each State, the District of Columbie, Puerto Rico, and the outlying areas.

PC80-2 Subject Reports

Each of the reports in this volume focuses on a particular subject. Selected subject reports will contain data on the Spanish origin population. In addition, tentative plans are to prepare a separate subject report focusing on persons of Spanish origin and persons of Spanish surname in the United States.

1980 CENSUS HOUSING REPORTS , VOLUMES I THROUGH V, CONTAINING SPANISH ORIGIN DATA

REPORTS NOW AVAILABLE

HC80-1-A General Housing Characteristics

Reports evailable for each State and the District of Columbia. Reports for the United States, Fuerto Rico, and the outlying areas are forthcoming.

MEPORTY PLANNED FOR PUBLICATION

HC80-1-8 Detailed Housing Characteristics

Reports will be prepared for the United States, each State the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the outlying areas.

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HC80-2 Ketropolitan Housing Characteristics

Reports will be prepared for the United States, each State, each Standard Metropolitum Statistical Ares, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

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Subject Reports

HC80-3

Each of the reports in this volume focuses on a particular subject. Plens for these reports are currently being developed. Selected subject reports will contain data on the Spanish origin population.

HC80-4 /Components of Inventory Change

HCSO-5 Residential Finance

1980 CENSUS SUPPLEMENTARY REPORTS CONTAINING SPANISH ORIGIN DATA

SERIES PC80-S1, PHC80-J1, and PHC80-J2

Population Reports - Series PC80-S1

- 1 Age, Sex, Race, and Spanish Origin of the Population by Regions, Divisions, and States: 1980
- 5 Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and Standard Consolidated Statistical Areas: 1980
- 7 Persons of Spanish Origin by State: 1980

Joint Population and Housing Reports

PHC80-S1-1 Provisional Estimates of Social, Zeonomic, and Housing Characteristics

PHCSO-S2 Advance Estimates of Social, Economic, and Housing Characteristics. (Data are now being released in a report for each state on a flow basis.)

1980 CENSUS JOINT POPULATION AND HOUSING REPORTS CONTAINING SPANISH ORIGIN DATA

SERIES PROPO

SIERLIAVA WON STRUGEN

PHCSO-V Final Population and Housing Unit Counte

•Fresents provisional population counts. Reports are available for the United States and each State.

PHC80-1 Block Statistics

This set of reports consists of 375 sets of microfiche (no printed reports), and includes a report for each Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA), showing blocked areas within the SMSA, and a report for each State and for Puerto Rico, showing blocked areas outside SMSAs, and a U.S. Summery report which is an index to the set. In addition to microfiche, printed detailed maps showing the blocks covered by the particular report are available.



15%

PHC80-3 Summary Characteristics for Governmental Units and Standard Netropolitan Statistical Areas

There is one report for each State, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

REPORTS PLANNED FOR PUBLICATION

PHC80-2 Census Trapts

One report will be prepared for each SMSA, as well as one for most States and Fuerto Rico covering the tracted areas outside SMSAs (designated selected areas).

PHC80-4 Congressional Districts of the 98th Congress

One report will be issued for each State and the District of Columbia.

PHC\$0-5P-1 Neighborhood Statistics Program

Tentative plans are to prepare a report for each State and for the District of Columbia.



U.S. Dureau of the Census, Current Population Survey Reports Series P-20 - Population Characteristics

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NO.	Mile
213	Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States: November 1969
224	Selected Characteristics of Persons and Families of Maxican, Fuerto Rican, and Other Spanish Origins March 1971
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Census Tract Reports, Series PHC(1) - This series of reporte consists of 241 individual reports. Each report refers to a particular Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) (as recognized at the time of the 1970 censue) and gives selected population and housing data for the censue tracts of the SMSA and for specially tracted areas—if they exist—adjacent to the SMSA.

Employment Profile of Schected Low-Income Areas, Series PHC(3) - This series consists of 76 individual reports. The data relate to low-income neighborhoods of 51 cities and of 7 pural poverty areas.

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Congress of the United States House of Representatives Washington, D.C. 20515

April 1, 1983

Honorable Robert Garcia committee on Post Office and Civil Service Subcementace on Consultand Population 601 House Office Building, Annex 1 Washington, D.C. 20515

Pear Bob:

In response to your request for comments on the Congressional Research Service Report on the Hispanic population I am submitting remarks on two of the four eximined areas, education and housing.

A few of the needs for education are the following:

Bilingual education for elementary and junior high school students; Wore Hispanic faculty and administrators in school districts with high percentage of Hispanic students; Math, science, engineering, and computer vocational and college prep programs that will increase the number and percentage of Hispanics in the high technology foolds: in the high technology fields;

Targeted agricultural training programs for rural and migrant Hispanics who do not usually follow conventional school semester chedule ;

Increase the awareness among the Hispanic community about the various financial assistance programs available at colleges from federal and

state scholarships, grants, work-study, and loans, and pevelop network of Hispanics in corporations and non-profit organizations that can donate and contribute financial and public relations resources towards Hispanics education issues.

The information on housing conditions for Hispanics dealing with opportunities and standards is inadequately documented. The exclusive reliance on HUD statistics and documentation has undermined the accurate presentation of Hispanic urban and rural housing patterns to the point of misrepresentation. In fact, HOD's-"Hispanic Population of the United States: An Overview" hat lost its credibility.

Independent Studies by the National Hispanic Coalition, The Puerto Rico terlition, The Housing Assistance Council and The Low Income Housing Condition document a more accurate portrayal of Hispanic housing conditions,

In addition, two universities, National Hispanics University, and Arizona State have conducted independent studies and their findings are role accurate than those reflected in this study. I would advise that CRs locate these studies and include them in this report.

Thank you for the opportunity for me to comment on this study. If i may be of further assistance, please let me know.

Sincerely,

SOLUMON P. ORTIZ Member of Congress



The Hunorable Pohert Garcia Chairman Hispanic Caucus H-2 - 557 Washington, D. C. 20515

Congress of the United States Pouse of Representatives Washington, D.C. 20315

Sear Bob

April 1°, 1983

1 very much appreciated the opportunity to review a copy of the draft report, The Hispanic Population of the U.S. An Overview.

Generally speaking, the report is an important effort to bring together in one place some of the more important information about the Hispanic population. This needed to be done, and the document will serve as a benchmark for the substantial work that still needs to be done.

I found no surprises in the report, and it confirmed the conclusions that my own staff have reached in their research over the years. Importantly, though, this formalized research is an invaluable tool for policy making and additional research.

I would have liked to see more definitive efforts to trace changes in the status of Hispanics. As an example, it might have been possible to compare changes in employment and income, as related to education through the years. Utilizing comparative census tract data for the census years, 1960, 1370 and 1980, could yield important findings about educational advances and how these have affected employment and income. Likewise, it might be possible, again using tract data, to show changes in housing patterns and population dispersion within urban areas. Although tract comparisons might not support broad general conclusions, there is no reason to believe that important and valid information would not emerge from such studies. (In 1970, I compared Hispanic, black and Anglo tracts in San Antonio, and was able to reach clear ideas about education, employment, income, and discrimination, and trace changes by comparing the data of that year with earlier data.) Surely comparative data on typical tracts in San Antonio, Los Angeles, New York and Hiami, would yield valuable information.

I would like also to see information on military service -rates of participation, job classification and rank, for example.
In this connection, a retrospective study on how the military
draft worked, would be important. It was my experience that the
draft exemption/deferment system worked to the great disadvantage
of Hispanics during the Vietnam era. A retrospective, objective
study today might enable us to prevent that from again occurring.

It seems to me that while an overview is useful, there is a need for more specific information. We know, for example, that housing conditions relate directly to economic status and discrimination -- but there is a need for data to show whether conditions are changing, and in what way, and whether programs addressed to housing needs have been effective.

. I commend the authors for an excellent job. The data available for the study was limited, its quality inconsistent, and its interpretation difficult. The Overview is the best effort to date to produce a useful picture of the large and diverse Hispanic population. It will be useful to me, and to anyone who has an interest in, and concern with, the problems and prospects of Hispanics in the United States.

Sipcèrely,

Henry B. Gonzalez Hember of Congress



SUPPLEMENTAL VIEWS OF REP. EDWARD R. ROYBAL

The importance of this <u>Overview</u> is that it provides a framework in which to evaluate both public and private response to Hispanic

concerns and interests.

This Overview clearly shows that Hispanics are a significant cultural force in the United States. In California, Hispanics increased from 2.4 million in 1970 to 4.5 million in 1980. In Texas, our numbers rose from 1.8 million to 3.0 million. Large increases were seen in New York and Florida. Increasingly, that strength is being translated into effective political action, as evidenced by the recent successes in the 1982 Congressional elections, the Gubernatorial races in Texas and New Mexico and in the mayoral race in Chicago. Hispanics are becoming a significant economic force, estimated currently at \$30 billion in consumer spending power. Increasing numbers of businesses are developing market appeals to the Hispanic consumer in home and food products, communications and financial fervices.

What is critical to building on this success is education. As indicated in the Overview, education directly affects employment and income levels. It is for this reason that Hispanic parents have for generations placed a premium on the education of their children. It is troubling to know that because of continuing social and employment barriers, Hispanic families face serious hardships in financing the higher education of their children. On the average, Hispanic families whose children plan to attend college earn \$9,200 to \$14,000 less than whites. Despite



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these barriers to equal education, many Hispanics have succeeded in the sciences and professions, and have risen to positions of power.

Since 1977, the number of Hispanic doctoral scientists and engineers has more than doubled, now standing at approximately 5,000. He can increase these numbers dramatically by focusing national attention and support on equal education and economic opportunity. Otherwise, Hispanics will face a disheartening employment future, caught in the electronic sweatshops of an advanced information society.

It is clear from the numbers and findings of the <u>Overview</u> that legislators and executives at both State and Federal levels must renew their commitment to equal education for Hispanics -- to an education of better science, math and communications skills.

I believe we need a blue-ribbon Commission on Recovery, composed of leading hispanics in science and technology, education, labor, business, and government. Its purpose would be to awaken this country to the human talent it has left unemployed -- and to embark on a strategy of national recovery. It would move to increase the number of Hispanics in the sciences, in mathematics, engineering and international affairs. Further, the Commission would work with the private sector and with elected officials on State and Federal initiatives in education and economic investment.





Persons of Spanish Origin by State: 1980

PC80-S1-7

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Introduction

GENERAL

This report presents 1980 census population counts of the Spanish origin population. by type of Spanish origin (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Other Spanish) for the United States, regions, divisions, and States. Counts of the Spanish and non-Spanish populations by race are also provided. In addition, the results of an evaluation study of the reporting in the 1980 census item on Spanish/Hispanic origin or descent are presented in the section on "Preliminary Evaluation of Responses in the Mexican Origin Category of the Spanish Origin Item."

SPANISH ORIGIN POPULATION

In 1990, the Spanish origin population in the United States numbered 14,608,673, an increase of 51 percent over the 1970 figure of 9,072,602 (text table). This sharp increase for the Spanish origin population appears to have resulted in part from high fertility and the resultant large natural increase (i.e., the excess of births over deaths) and substantial immigration from Mexico, Cube, and other Central and South American countries². The large increase in the number of persons who identified themselves as of Spanish origin is also a result

Hispanics constituted a larger proportion of the population in 1980 (6.4 percent) than in 1970 (4.5 percent) (text table). Five southwestern States -Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas-historically have had large Hispanic populations. These five States also contained the highest percentages of Hispanics in 1980 Hispanics comprised 37 percent of the population in New Mexico, 21 percent in Texas, and 19 percent in California. The proportions were 16 percent and 12 percent for Arizona and Colorado, respectively. In five States outside the southwestern area-New York, Florida, Hawaii, Nevada.





Table 1 shows the 1980 census totals for the population of Spanish origin and its subgroups (Mexican, Puerto Rican, etc.) for regions, divisions, and States. Percent distributions, based on the data in table 1, are shown in tables 2 and 3. The race reported by Spanish and non-Spanish persons in the census is presented in tables 4 and 5. In table 6, the 1980 and 1970 counts of the Hispanic population are shown for States with the largest Hispanic population in 1980; the States are ranked according to the size of this population in both 1980 and 1970. Comparable statistics are provided in tables 7. 8, and 9 for Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban origin populations, respectively. The data in the tables in this report may differ from those published in the 1980 Census of Population and Housing, Advance Reports, PHC80-V, and Supplementary Reports, PC80-S1-1. These changes reflect corrections made after these reports were prepared.

"In this report, the terms 'Spanish Origin," "Spanish," and "Hispanic" are used interchangeably.

of general improvements in the 1980 census including bettar Coverage of the population, improved question design, and an effective public relations campaign by national and community groups. These improvements may have contributed also to the inclusion of an unknown number of persons of Hispanic origin who are in the country in other than legal status.

In both 1980 and 1970, more than 60 percent of the Nation's Hispanics lived in California, Texas, and New York. In 1980, California ranked first with 4.5 million Hispanics, Texas ranked second with 3.0 million Hispanics, and New York ranked third with 1.7 million Hispanics. Florida and Illinois ranked fourth and fifth, respectively, each with over 600,000 Hispanic persons. These five States held the same rank position in 1970 (tables 1 and 6).

and New Jersey—the percentage of Hispanics was also high (above the national proportion of 6.4 percent). For each of these five States outside the southwestern area, the 1980 proportion of Hispanics was higher than the level seported in the 1970 census (table 2).

MEXICAN POPULATION

1

The Mexican origin population, which constituted the largest single group of Spanish persons in the United States, numbered 8,740,439 in 1980. The 1980 total represented a sharp increase of 93 percent, or 4.2 million persons, over the 1970 population count. Among the States, California ranked first in the number of Mexican origin persons (3.6 million) in 1980, followed by Texas (2.8 million). Illinois, with over 400,000 Mexican origin persons in 1980, ranked third in the number of Mexican origin persons, displacing Arizona which held that position in 1970 (tables 1 and 7).

Although the 1980 census indicated that the Mexican origin population was



²Since the official date of the 1980 census was April 1, 1980, the Cubens who came to the United States in the period immediately following April 1 may not be included in the 1980 census count.

Total Persons and Spanish Origin Persona by Type: 1980 and 1970

United States	1980	1970	Percent distribution	
			1980	1970
Total persons	226,545,605	203,211,926	100.0	100.0
Persons of Spanish erigin	14,608,673	9,072,602	6.4	4.5
Persons not of Spanish origin	211,937,132	194,139,324	93.4	93.5
Spanish origin	14,608,673	9,072,602	100.0	100.0
Hexican	8,740,439	4,332,433	39.0	50.0
Puerte Rican	2,013,945	1,429,396	13.0	15.0
Cuban	803,226	544,600	3.3	6.0
Other Spanish	3,051,063	2,566,171	20.9	20.3

still largely concentrated in the five southwestern States, the extent of this concentration had lessened somewhat since 1970. In 1980, 83 percent of Mexican origin persons in the United States were in the five southwestern States compared with 87 percent in 1970. Also, in 1980, six States outside of the southwest-Illinois, Michigan, Washington, Florida, Indiana, and Ohiohad more the 50,000 persons of Mexican origin; only two States outside the southwest had that number of

The next largest populations were in New Jersey with 244,000 Puerto Ricans and Illinois with about 129,000 Puerto Ricans. Sizeable Puerto Rican populations were also found in Florida, California, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, each with more than 75,000 persons (table 8).

Nationally, the Puerto Rican population increased by about 600,000 persons, or 41 percent, during the last decade (text table and table 8).

Considerable changes occurred in the

an increase of about 260,000, or 48 percent, over the 1970 figure. Cubans became more concentrated in Florida during the last decade as the proportion of the Nation's Cubans living-in Florida grew from 46 percent in 1970 to 59 percent in 1980. The Cubans in Florida numbered about 470,000 in 1980 (tables 1 and 9).

Sizeable Cuban populations were also found in other areas of the country. New Jersey included the second largest Cuban origin population (81,000 persons), replacing New York which had held that position in 1970. (The Cuban population in New York declined by 13,000 during the decade to a total of 77,000 in 1980.) A large Cuban population was also found in California (61,000). In 1980, as in 1970. Illinois ranked fifth and Texas ranked sixth in the size of the Cuban population. However, during the last decade, the Cuban origin population of Illinois declined slightly, while that in Texas doubled to 14,000 persons (table

Although Cubans accounted for only 6 percent of the Spanish origin population in the Nation, they represented higher proportions of the Hispanic populations



Mexican persons in 1970. The six States noted above contained 9.1 percent of the Mexican origin population in 1980, compared with 7.4 percent in 1970 (table 7).

Mexican origin persons constituted 60 percent of the Hispanic population in the United States; however, the proportion Mexican of the Hispanic population in each State varied considerably, ranging from 2 percent in New York to 92 percent in Texas. Other States with high proportions (above 75 percent) of Mexican origin persons among Hispanics were Arizona, California, Nebraska, Kansas, and Idaho (text table and table 3).

The 1980 data on Mexican origin presented for certain States are affected by misreporting in the Mexican origin category of the Spanish origin item. For a full discussion, see the section on "Preliminary Evaluation of Responses in the Mexican Origin Category of the Spanish Origin Item."

PUERTO RICAN POPULATION

In 1980, the Puerto Rican population in the United States totalled 2,013,945, with almost 1 million living in New York. geographical distribution of Puerto Ricans between 1980 and 1970. The population has shifted from New York, which is still the major port of entry for Puerto Ricans, to other States primarily in the Northeast and North Central regions. For instance, in 1980, New York contained 49 percent of all Puerto Ricans in the United States, compared with 64 percent in 1970. In contrast, New Jersey contained 12 percent of the Nation's Puerto Ricans, up from 10 percent in 1970. Similar increases were noted for most of the States with 10,000 or more Puerto Ricans in 1980 (table 8).

Puerto Ricans were the dominant Spanish origin group in five States of the Northeast and one State in the South. The highest proportions of Puerto Ricans among Hispanics occurred in Connecticut (71 percent), Pennsylvania (60 percent), New York (59 percent), Massachusetts (54 percent), and Delaware and New Jersey (50 percent each) (table 3).

CUBAN POPULATION

The Cuban origin population in the United States totalled 803,226 in 1990,

in several States—55 percent of all Spanish persons in Florida, 16 percent in New Jersey, 10 percent in Georgia, 8 percent in both Maryland and Louisiana, and 7 percent in Nevada (text table and table 3).

OTHER SPANISH POPULATION

The number of Spanish origin persons reported as "Other Spanish" in the 1980 census was 3,051,063, or 21 percent of the Spanish origin population (tables 1 and 3) The "Other Spanish" population includes persons from Spain, the Spanish-speaking countries of Central or South America, and Hispanic persons who identified themselves generally as Letino, Spanish-American, Spanish, etc.

Three-quarters of a million of the "Other Spanish" population lived in California, and over one-half million lived in New York. Other States with large "Other Spanish" populations included New Mexico and Florida, with over 200,000 persons, and Texas, New Jersey, and Colorado, each with over 100,000 persons (table 1).



Definitions and Explanations

SPANISH ORIGIN

Definition—The data on Spanish origin or descent were derived from answers to question 7, which was asked of all persons. (See facsimile of questionnaire item.)

Persons of Spanish origin or descent are those who classified themselves in one of the specific Spanish origin categories listed on the questionnaire—Mexican, Puerto Rican, or Cuban—as well as those who indicated that they were of other Spanish/Hispanic origin. Persons reporting "other Spanish/Hispanic" origin are those whose origins are from Spain, the Spanish-speaking countries of Central or South America, or they are Spanish origin persons identifying themselves generally as Spanish, Spanish American, Hispano, Latino etc Origin or descent can be viewed

Spanish origin totals because of a number of factors; namely, overall improvements in the 1980 census, better coverage of the population, improved question design, and an effective public relations campaign by the Census Bureau with the assistance of national and community ethnic groups. These efforts undoubtedly resulted in the inclusion of a sizeable but unknown number of persons of Hispanic origin who are in the country in other than legal status.

In the 1980 census Spanish origin question, specific changes in design included the placement of the category "No, not Spanish/Hispanic" as the first category in that question. The corro, ponding category sppeared last in the 1970 question.) Also, the 1970 category "Central or South American" was deleted

classify themselves in one of the specific race categories but marked "Other" and wrote in entries such as Cuban, Puerto Rican, Mexican, or Dominican were included in the "Other" race category; in the 1970 census, most of these persons were included in the "White" category.

The category "Black" includes persons who indicated their race as Black or Negro, as well as persons who did not classify themselves in one of the specific race caterories listed on the questionnaire but reported entries such as Jamaican, Black Puerto Rican, West Indian, Haitian, or Nigerian.

The category "American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut" includes persons who classified themselves as such in one of the specific race categories. In addition, persons who did not report themselves in





as the ancestry, nationality group, lineage, or country in which the person or person's parents or ancestors were born before their arrival in the United States. Persons of Spanish origin may be of any race

Persons of more than one Spanish origin and persons of both a Spanish and another origin who were in doubt as to-how to report a specific origin were classified according to the origin of the person's mother. If a single origin was not provided for the person's mother, the first reported origin of the person was used.

if any household member failed to respond to the Spanish/Hispanic origin question, a response was assigned by computer according to the reported entries of other household inembers by using specific rules of precedence of household relationship. If origin was not entered for any household member (excluding a paid employee), origin was assigned from another household according to the race of the householder.

Comparability with 1970 census data— The 1980 figures on Spanish origin are not directly comparable with 1970 because in 1970 some respondents ms interpreted the category, furthermore, the designations "Mexican-Ameri" and

Chicano were added to the Spanish origin question in 1980. In the 1970 census, the question on Spanish origin was asked of only a 5-percent sample of the population.

RACE

Definition—The concept of race as used by the Census Bureau reflects self-dentification by respondents, it does not denote any clear out scientific definition of biological stock. Since the 1980 census obtained information on race through self-dentification, the data represent self-classification by people according to the race with which they identify.

The category "White" includes persons who indicated their race as White, as well as persons who did not classify themselves in one of the specific race categories listed on the questionnaire but entered a response such as Canadian, German, Italian, Lebanese, or Polish In the 1980 census, persons who did not

one of the specific race categories but entered the name of an Indian tribe ware classified as American Indian.

In this report, the category "Asian and Pacific Islander" includes persons who indicated their race as Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, Vietnamese, Asian Indian, Hawalian, Guamanian, or Samoan. Persons who did not report themselves in one of the specific race categories but reported a write-in entry indicating one of the nine categories iisted above were classified accordingly. For example, entries of Nipponese and Japanese American were classified as Japanese, entries of Taiwanese and Cantonese as Chinese, etc.

The category "Other includes Asian and Pacific Islander groups not listed separately (e.g., Cambodian, Laction, Pakistani, Fiji Islander) and other faces not included in the specific categories listed on the questionnaire.

Comparability with 1970 census data— Differences between 1980 and 1970 census counts by race seriously affect the comparability for some race groups First, Spanish origin persons reported their race



differently in the 1980 census than in the 1970 census, this difference in reporting has a substantial impact on the counts and comparability for tha "White" and Other race purposations. A much raiger proportion of the Spanish origin population in 1980 than in 1970 reported their race as "Other." Second, in 1970, most persons who marked the "Other are category and wrote in a Spanish designation such as Mexican, Venezuelan, Lating, etc., were eccassified as White." In 1980, such persons were not recossi

As a result of this procedural change and the differences in reporting by this population the Spanish origin population classified as "Other" raise in the 1980 census was substantially tigher than that in the 1970 census Nationally, in 1970, only 1 percent of Spanish origin persons were classified as "Other raise and 93 percent as, White" in 1980, a much larger proportion—40 percent—of Spanish origin persons re-

fied but remained in the Other race

Category

ported their race as "Other" and only 56 percent reported "White." As a conse quence of these differences, 1980 population totals for "White" and "Other" are not comparable with corresponding 1970 figures

The 1980 count for the Asian and Pacific Islander population reflects a high revel of immigration during the 1920's, more racial categories used in 1980 (Vietnamese, Asian Indian, Guamanian, and Samoaii), and change in racial classifications of Asian Indians who were included in the White category in 1970.

OTHER 1980 CENSUS REPORTS

Provisional data for the Spanish origin population from the 100 percent census tabulations were published in individual State reports in Advance Reports, PHC80-V, for substate areas such as counties and cities. The 1980 Census of Population, Supplementary Report, PC80-S1-1, Age, Sex, Race, and Spanish Origin of the Population by Regions,

Divisions, and States. 1980," contained ago and sex data for the Spanish origin population at the national level. Counts of the Spanish origin population for standard metropolitan statistical areas were shown in the 1980 Census of Population, Supplementary Report, PC30-S1-5, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and Standard Consolidated Statistical Areas. 1980." The data presented in this report may differ from those shown in the Advance Reports and Supplementary Reports Inoted above. The changes reflect corrections made after the reports were prepared.

Data on the Spanish origin groups cross-classified by age, sex, marital status, and household relationship for the United States, States, and substate areas are piesented in Characteristics of the Population, General Population Characteristics, PC80-1-B, currently being published on a State-by-State basis. Data for census tracts and governmental units as well as limited data for blocks will appear in separate census report series.



Facsimile of questionnaire item 7.

7. Is this person of Spanish/Hispanic Origin or descent?

Fill one Circle.

7. No (not Spanish/Hispanic)

7. Yes, Mexican, Mexican-Amer, Chicano

7. Yes, Puerto Rican

7. Yes, Cuban

7. Yes, Other Spanish/Hispanic

Instructions to the respondent for questionnaire item 7.

7. A person is of Spanish/Hispanic origin or descent if the person identifies his or her encestry with one of the listed groups, that is, Mexican, Puerto Rican, etc. Origin or descent (encestry) may be viewed as the nationality group, the lineage, or country in which the person or the person's parents or encestors were born.

SYMBOLS USED IN TABLES

A dash "-" represents sero or a percent which rounds to less than 0.1. Three dots "..." mean not applicable.



Table 1. Total Persons and Spanish Origin Persons by Type of Spanish Origin: 1980

(For messing of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

Daited States			Spanlai	+rigin		
Regions and Divisions States	Total persons	Total	Mexican	Pwerto Rican (Other Spenish	Not of Spanish Origin
Valted States	226 545 605	14 606 673	8 740 439 2 0	13 945 803	226 3 051 043	211 937 132
ENGIONS AND DIVISIONS						
Northeast	49 135 283 12 348 493 36 786 790	2 604 259 299 145 2 305 144	16 520	71 786 13	875 846 121 473 97 346 402 748 755	46 530 994 12 049 348 34 481 444
North Central East North Central West North Contral	58 865 670 41 682 217 17 183-453	1 276 545 1 067 944 206 601		97 198 29	558 216 777 382 168 846 176 47 931	57 549 125 40 614 273 16 97,4 852
South Atlantic	75 372 362 36 959 123 14 666 423 23 746 816	4 473 966 1 194 172 119 513 3 160 281	199 743 1 64 139	.40 530 - 493 8·303 - 4	460 675 703 050 361 044 888 39 993 522 274 676	70 898 396 33 764 951 14 546 910 20 586 535
Nest Newitein Pseifie	43 172 490 11 372 785 31 799 705	6 253 873 1 442 909 4 810 964	954 614	14 238 7	333 1 312 462 435 462 602 898 849 860	36 918 617 9 929 976 26 988 741
STATES			1			
Now Englands Helan	1 124 440 920 610 511 456 5 737 037 947 154 3 107 576	5 003 3 587 3 304 141 043 19 707 124 499	1 342	4 621	206 2 346 332 2 787 147 2 206 617 50 391 361 13 189 610 26 053	1 119 455 915 023 504 152 3 595 594 927 447 2 583 077
Middle Atlantics Bow Toth, Pow Jordey, Penarylvania,	17 554 072 7 364 823 11 863 895	1 639 300 691 883 153 961	13 146 2	43 540 40	942 397 214 640 154 337 (20 37 204	15 898 772 6 872 940 11 709 934
East Borth Ceatroly Chlo 2ndland 2ndland Hithous Hichigan	10 797 630 5 430 224 11 426 578 9 252 078 - 705 767	119 483 87 647 615 440 162 440 62 972 5 ±	33 318 37 623 408 323 1 112 183	32 442 3 12 443 1 29 165 19 12 425 4	223 30 890 916 14 822 063 79 049 177 33 653 993 3 10 429	10 677 747 3 403 177 10 790 916 9 099 638 4 642 795

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Table? Perc int Spanish Origin Persons by Type of Spanish Origin: 1980

(for massing of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

Vaited States			Spe	alsh origin		-	W.A 4
Regions and Divisions States	Total persons	Total	Mexican	Puerte Rican	Cubes	Geber Spenish	Not of Spanish Origin
United States	100.0	6.4	3.9	0,9	0.4	1.3	23.6
PECIONS AND DIVISIONS	ŀ		•				
Merchesst,	100.0 100.0 100.0	5.3 2.4 6.3	0.2 0.1 3.2	3.0 1.4 3.6	0.4 0.1 0.4	1.7 0.8 2.0	94.7 97.6 93.7
Herth Central East North Central Vest North Central	100.0 100.0 100.0	2.2 2.6 1.2	1.4 1.6 9.9	0.3 0.5 9.1	0.1 0.1	0.4 0.4 0.3	97.8 97.4 98.8
South Atlantie	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	5.9 3.2 0.8 13.3	4.1 0.5 0.3 11.9	0.2 0.4 0.1 0.1	0.7 1.3 0.1	0.9 1.0 0.3 1.2	94.1 96.8 99.2 86.7
Vest	100.0 100.0 100.0	14,5 12,7 15,1	11.0 8.4 11.9	0.3 0.1 0.4	0.2 0.1 0.2	3.0 4.1 2.7	85.5 87.3 84.9
STATES	i					}	
New Ingland: Kafae New Kempshire Yerwent Kasachusetta Rhode Island Connecticut	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	0.4 0.6 0.6 2.5 2.1 4.0	0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1 0.1	0.1 0.1 0.1 1.3 0.5 2.8	0.1 0.1 0.1 0.2	0.2 0.3 0.4 0.9 1.4 0.8	99.4 99.4 99.3 97.9 94.0
Hiddle Atlantic: Few York Rev Jetsey	100.0 100.0 100.0	13. 13.	0.2 0.2 0.2	5.6 3.3 0.8	0.4	3.2 2.1 0.3	90.5 93.3 98.7
East North Cestral Ohie Indiana Illineif Kichiges Viscempin	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	1.1 1.6 3.6 1.8 1.3	0.3 1.0 3.6 1.2 0.9	0.3 0.2 1.1 6.1 0.2	0.2	0.3 0.3 0.7 0.4 0.2	98.5 98.4 94.4 98.2 9 8.7



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West North Centrals		0.8	0.5			0.2	99.2
Minacosta	100.0	0.9	0.6			0.2	99.1
Love,	100.0	1.1	0.7	0.1		0.31	98.9
Missouri	100.0	0.6	0.4	٠	. •	0.2	99.4
North Dakets		0.6	0.3			0.21	99.4
South Daketa	100.0	1.8	1.4			ŭ.3	98.2
Nebraska	100.0	2.7	2.1	0.1		0.41	97,3
Zansef	100.0	2,7	4.4	0,1		i	
South Atlantic+					0.1	0.5	98.4
Delavere	100.0	1.6	0.3	0.8	0.1	ĕ.5 į	98.3
Naryland	100.0	1.5	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.9	97.2
District of Columbia	160.0	2.8	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.3	98.5
Virgiela	160.0	1.5	0.3	0,2	0,1	6.3	92.3
Veet Virginia	100.0	0.7	0.3	. :	0.1	ŏ:31	99.0
North Carelina	100.0	1.0	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.31	98.9
South Carelina	100.0	1.1	0.6	0.1	0.1	6.41	98.9
Coorsis	100.0	1.1	0.5	0.1	4.6	2.2	91.2
71erida,	100.0	8.8	0.8	, 1.0	•.•	••••	· · · · · ·
Zast South Central:	- 1					0.3	99.3
Kentucky	100.0	0.7	0.4	0.1	•	6.3	33.3
Tennesses	100.0	0.7	0.4	0.1	•		99.1
Alabena	100.0	0.9	0.5	0.1	•	0.3	33.61
Kississippi	100.0	1.0	0,6	•	•	0.3	"".0
**					,		
Vest South Central:	100.0	0.8	0.5		•	0.2	99.2
Azhensee	100.01	2,4	0.7	0.1	0.2	1.4	97.6
Chichese.		1,9	ĭ.;	0.1		0.5	98.1
Okiehema	100.0	21.0	19.3	0.2	0.1	1.4	79.0
7ex#8	100.0	21.0	.,,,	***			Į.
Hountain:			0.8	_	_	0.41	98.7
Mentans	100.0	, 1,3	3.0			0.8	96.1
Idaho.,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	100.0	3.9	3.4	0.1		1.7	94.8
Wyon Inda	100.0	1 5.2	7.2	0.1	0.1	4.41	88.2
Colerado	100.0	11.8		0.1	VI.	18.5	63.4
New Mexico	100.0	36.6	17.9	ŏ.i	-	1.4	43.8
Arisonaxaxxaxxaxxaxxaxxaxxaxxaxxaxxaxx	100.0	16.2	14.6	0.1	-	1.4	95.9
1780 3 x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x	100.0	4,1	2.6	0.2	0.5	2.0	93.3
X4V046. *********************************	100.0	6.7	4.1	0.2	***		
Pacific	•					0.8	97.1
Antiussous *********************************	100.0	2.9	2.0	0.1	•	ŏ.7	\$7.5
Oregon	100.0	2.5	1.7	0.1	0.3	3.2	\$0.8
Califernia	100.0	19.2	15.4	0.4	v. 3	6.6	97.6
Alaska	100.0	2.4	1.1	0.2 2.0		4.4	92.6
HAVALLANDER HANDON HANDERS CONTRACTOR OF THE STREET	100.0	7,4	0.9	2,0			
XAVAJI xxxxx xxxx xxxx xxxx xxx xxx xx							



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Table 3. Percent Distribution of Spanish Origin Persons by Type of Spanish Origin: 1980

	(for meaning of symbols, se	v Introduction.	For definition of terms,	see Definitions	and Explanations)
United States		•			
Regions and Divisions : States	Total	Hexisan	Puerte Rican	Cuban	Other Spanish
United States	100.0	59.8	13.8	5.5	
RECTORS AND DIVISIONS		,,,,	•,,•	,,,	20.9
Northeast	100.0	3.4	57.3		
New England	100.0	5,5	57.4	6.8 4.5	32.5 32.5
Middle Atlantic	100,0	3,1	57.3	7.1	32.5
Kerth Central	100.0	44.3 63.0	16.1 18.5	2.6 2.8	17.0 15.8
West Morth Central	100,0	70.8	4.2	2.0	23.0
South Atlantic	100.0	69.2	4.0	11.7	15.1
East South Centtal	100.0	16.7 55.3	11.8 7.1	41.3 4.1	30.2 33.5
West South Central	100,0	19.6	1.0	0.7	8.7
West	100,0	75.7 66.4	2.1 .	1.1	21.0
Pacific	100.0	78.5	1.0 2.5	0.5 1.3	32.1 17.7
STATES					
New Englands					
New Nampahire	100.0	30.7 20.6	14.3	4.1	50.9
Verment	100.0	20.6 19.0	23.6 9.8	5.9 4.4	49.9
Massethusetts	100.0	3.2	4.2	4.7	66.8 35.9
Rhode Island	100.0	5.8	23.4	2,8	66.9
Connecticut	100.0	3.6	71.0	4.5	20.9
Hiddle Atlantics Few York	100.0		••		
Key Jersey	1 100.0	2.3 2.7	39.4 49.5	4.6	33.6
Pennsylvania	100.0	12,6	3976	16.4 3.6	31.4 24.2
East North Central;					
Ohio	100.0 100.0	44.5 66.2	27.1	2.7	25.8
Illineis	1 100.0	64.2	14.\$ 20.3	2.2 3.0	17.0 12.4
Michigen	100.0	6.1	7.6	2.6	20.7
Viscensin	1 100.0	45.1	16,6	1.6	16.6
	130				



West North Central					1
/ Minnesota	100.0	63.6	4,4	2.5	29.1
" leve,	100.0	. 71.1	2,\$	1,9	24.2
Missouri	100,0	62,0	4,9	2.9	30.2
North Daketa	100.0	59.4	6,3	1.5	32.8
South Dekete	100,0	59.7	5.7	1.1	33.5
Xebraska	100.0	\$0.0	2.2	1.3	16.4
Kansas	100.0	78.8	4.6	1,5	15,1
South Atlantic					
Delavara	100.0	15.9	49.7	6.2	28.2
Haryland	100.0	19.1	13.9	8.2	59.8
District of Columbia	100.0	17.7	8.1	5,5	69.7
Virginia	100,0	30.2	12.8	6.2	50,8
West Virginia	100.0	49.2	5.2	2.3	43,3
North Carolina	100.0	49.1	13.1	5.5	32.3
South Carolina	160.0	52.4	12,3	5.0	30,3
Georgiangerennennennennennennennennennen	100.0	45,1	12.9	9.6	32,4
Florida	100,0	9.3	11.0	× 54.8	24.9
,East South Central:					i
Kenturky	100,0	51.6	10.0	3.5	34.9
Tennessee	100.0	54.5	7.0	4.5	34.0
Alebenanianiani	100.0	56.7	6.9	4,6	31.8
Mississippi	100.0	59.8	4.3	3.5	33.4
West South Central				-	1
Arkanaas	100.0	40,8	4.6	3.4	31.1
Levisiana	100.0	28.8	4,6	8.0	58,6
Oklahowa, , , ,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	100.0	} 67 . 9	5,0	1.4	25.7
Texas,,	100,0	92.2	0.8	0.5	6.6
Yountain .					į.
Mentana	100,0	64.8	2.9	0,8	31.5
ldabe	100.0	76.9	1.1	0.3	21.7
Syoning	100,0	65.1	1.2	0.4	33.4
Celorado	100,0	61.0	1.2	0,4	37.3
Yev Mexico.	100.0	49.0	0.3	0.1	50.5
Artaona	100.0	89.9	0.9	0.2	8.9
11tan	100,0	63.1	2.5	0.5	34.0
%evada,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	199.0	A0.7	3.4	6.9	29.0
Pacific		1			- 1
Weshington	100.0	/ 67.6	4.2	1.0	27.1
Oregon	100.0	/ 69.6	2.7	1,6	27,1
California	100.0	. 60.0	2.0	1.3	16.6
Alara	100.0	49.5	10,2	1,7	39.6
Heratta	/ 100.0	12.1	. 27.2	0,6	60.1
	/ 100.0	12.1	. 27.2	0.6	60.1



Jable 4. Total Persons and Spanish Origin Persons by Race: 1980

For meaning of symbols, see Introduction. For deligition of terms, see Definitions and Explonational

	Specific origin							
United States Argions and Divisions States		-		390106	American Indica,	Aslan såd		
310100	Total person	Total	Walte	Black	Catino, and Alms	focific lalameter	Other	
Imited States	274 545 80	14 400 473	8 113 254	350 852	94 745	166 010	5 841 810	
ERCIONS AND BITISIONS	}	1						
Herthoeters 2 V A Her England 2 2 V A Hiddle Atlanticy 2 V A	49 [33 29 12 346 49 36 746 79	299 145		143 678 13 221 129 632	6 890 1 089 3 801	14 104 1 993 17 173	1 109 311 136 704 983 807	
Forth Control	38 863 97 41 662 21 17 163 43	1 067 944	566 431	40 419 34 011 6 408	10 417 6 300 4 117	13 136 9 944 3 132	327 898 431 218 76 670	
South Steetie Course Co	36 939 12	1 194 173		163 456 93 023 32 706 37 727	14 340 4 770 821 10 769	23 462 14 197 1 960 7 323	1 334 493 177 440 12 913 1 144 322	
Moustain	43 172 49 11 372 79 31 799 70	1 441 909	3 197 896 788 973 2 276 972	43 879 5 441 36 498	61 078 17 343 43 493		2 865 716 625 595 2 260 121	
STATES	· '	ĺ						
Wer England Malen		3 567 3 304 141 041 19 101	4 313 2 443 68 443 12 009	44 121 35 7 646 874 4 449	64 49 36 362 123 263	83 39 813 244	4 435	
How York	17 358 07 7 364 61 11 863 81	491 66	301 129	17 313		2 943	168 374	
East North Central (Mis	3 490 21 11 426 31 9 262 01	87 043 635 603 191 44	36 791 221 921 3 46 716	2 957 13 489 8 341	454 2 213 1 928	875 5 122 1 996	31 144 293 157 63 459	
West Roych Control Himeosts. Himeosts. Historican	2 913 86 4 916 66 632 71 690 76 1 569 83	23 34 4 31 65 2 3 90 4 4 02 5 28 07	15 643 3 33 921 2 2 356 3 2 159 5 13 003	407 3 393 33 446	334 544 186 533	353 1 019 74 200	4 339 12 752 1 234 1 119 1 1766	
South Atlantie: boloware, Paryland, Paryland, Pisterict of Columbia Virginals, Vost Virginale, Describes Constitute Const	4 216 91 636 3 3 346 8 1 949 6 3 681 7 3 121 8 3 463 1	5 66 74 17 62 8 79 64 4 11 70 6 34 64 0 33 47 3 61 76	6 42 476 9 7 774 8 50 341 7 21 154 7 29 940 6 13 139	7 644 3 757 10 307 644 12 299 17 044	384 110 431 6 1 46 243	2 333 400 2 924 3 985 9 985 7 811	11 441 3 677 14 433 746 10 791 4 243 7 732	



	ı 		t of Speelsh	eciala	
ntted States Resting and Existing states	fetal	Mite		American Indisa, Asion and Bobino, Pacific and Alout Inlandor	Other
21 3	211 937 132	100 256 346	N 104 173	1 323 633 3 334 429	116 301
BOLL WE CONTINUE			~ *		i
a fiheasi	46 530 954	62 993 546	4 703 333	72 144 / 543 630	212 257
are inglant	12 049 348	11 629 407	461 328	29 500/ 29 020	39 003
PLITTA FEATL	× 411 444	29 344 999	4 244 025	31 649 646 630	133 232
ests esteni	U 349 125	51 310 114	3 296 676	237 976 376 454	167 303
(414 mgc (94)	44 616 273	33 544 024	4 314 533	99 607 293 000	123 107
seit ware seed	16 974 852	13 926 098	782 141	138 367 83 854	44 398
ungl?	70 878 376	55 978 373	13 884 331	233 670 444 340	102 402
anith scho re	33 744 931	27 754 629	7 538 946	113 936 246 439	10 181
ARE JOSE PRAIL	14 544 910	11 631 126	1 334 134	21 636 39 119	10 223
HARE - YES (# 1883)	10 344 333	16 642 588	3 481 131	120 254 160 782	""
we's?	34 918 617	31 222 293	2 217 813	639 661 1 963 543	333 263
Moy Taks	2 322 016	9 172 045	263 399	346 796 93 078	34 X4
26-141 3	26 968 742	22 350 248	1 954 424	312 442 1 872 507	278 697
375785	- 1				
Yes ingland					1
Maline ,	1 119 655	1 103 840	3 060	4 023 2 748	3 964
new Hampinh (gla vamost)	913 023	905 304 362 871	3 859 1 100	1 303 2 846 934 1 316	1 311
Master asotta	3 333 336	3 294 131	213 615	7 161 49 444	32 361
stade taland	927 447	884 683	26 716	2 773 3 639	8 222
^* ## .F	2 103 677	2 733 418	212 984	4 270 19 363	12 040
FIFSIE STIENTE	- 1	•			
rev er .	15 010 771	13 164 234	2 299 127	35 353 303 434	96 502
rev erses Errania	6 872 940 11 709 994	3 825 338	907 354 (037 344	7 469 100 903	31 474
S 12.15.15.9.2.1.9	11 /0/ /24	14 3/3 02/	(0)/)44	8 818 82 669	23 276
Past more? entrel	•				
*1	10 677 747	9 527 514	1 048 994	11 434 44 348	23 433
Indiana Illin La	10 790 916	4 933 463 8 911 764	411 829 1 641 909	7 340 19 582 14 070 134 331	10 644
MICHIGAN	7 077 670	7 705 333	1 190 442	38 122 54 774	30 513
dia matri	4 642 795	1 463 676	101 122	20 579 17 443	+ 112
West North entral					j
Minnesote	4 043 647	3 914 529	52 572	14 172 25 803	14 769
(wa	2 840 272	2 823 342	61 293	3 121 L1 224	7 272
विशेष कर्या. अध्यक्षि विशेष्ट	6 863 933	4 311 400	510 842	11 733 22 077	8 720
'mit's personal	649 815 684 745	625 201 637 311	3 533 2 184	19 976 1 880	1 221
wheesen	1 341 800	1 473 374	47 955	747 (77)	1 134
X4^461	1 300 342	2 136 331	124 010	14 342 14 491	é iii
work effects	ı				1
wissers	544.677	483 129	94 839	1 234 3 922	1 333
Maritans	4 192 229	3 116 160	950 464	7 633 62 723	16 247
triggi y sit stankin triggista	673 654	14 14	443 134	912 6 228	4 113
HEST SEERS OF	5 266 930 1 936 737	6 179 452 1 643 597	998 166 64 (03	\$ 995 62 280 1 347 4 520	10 034
art at lan	3 923 999	4 476 347	1 104 140	62 972 20 107	2 270
Sym of Real	3 864 314	7 132 100	935 626	3 510 11 023	1 127
न हेंद्राव पर कार्यक	3 401 443	3 914 044	1 448 137	7 199 12 404	8 963
· • · •	3 844 144	7 473 293	1 317 399	17 091 32 732	26 829 2

Table 4 Total Persons and Spanish Origin Persons by Race: 1980-Em

(for unpains of symbols, see introduction. For definition of terms, des befinitions and Explanations) Spenish atible American Indian, Asian and Zahimo, Pacific Block and Alout Inlander mited Stage Legismo and Sintelese States CLAST Tatal . Local persons STATES- COM 2 134 2 071 12 639 • 20 311 22 303 17 043 11 036 27 406 34 677 33 797 24 731 3 646 777 4 391 120 3 693 248 2 320 638 west South Control 3 774 16 449 1 633 17 633 2 284 439 4 203 900 3 925 290 14 229 191 17 904 99 134 37 419 2 983 826 10 414 70 775 26 863 848 144 Arbanios de ser esta esta el e pestola
Rentsola
Jedon
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Galorida
Galorida
Galorida
Alitenda
Jedon
Beroda
Jedon
Jedon 3 738 13 634 16 333 161 619 291 631 214 499 31 668 33 991 23 30 66 1 619 846 1 732 243 336 787 649 380 2 839 3 642 7 437 993 1 616 133 241 112 1 443 334 1 339 434 1 613 3 223 20 201 9 37A 132 527 130 703 215 674 26 310 17 323 786 670 963 933 669 537 2 889 966 1 302 896 2 718 213 1 461 837 800 693 9 974 36 613 26 699 339 717 627 222 440 791 64 302 33 879 Paulite Macologican Oragea California 3 313 1 244 67 984 624 34 732 37 126 27 847 2 113 841 2 128 16 379 126 916 63 847 -844-354 9 507 21 263 33 292 34 348 2-244-001 3 093 19 099 1 575 334 31 471 222 692 2 718 1 600 38 132 630 621 4 132 134 2 833 105 33 841-863-461 831 664 691

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Polited States	Nos of Specials origin													
Regions and Birtilons States	70-	tel	,	≜ic•		Black	American Indiso, Estimo, and Alout	Arian and Parific Intender	Or.b.					
STATES Com.						_								
East South Control?														
Restocky	3 633 2		2 354											
Towns sees	4 30 6					319	2 41 6	9 399	4 74					
Alabana	3 849		3 811			171	4 833	13 349	6 71					
Miceleolppi	2 493 5		2 433			676	7 344	9 338	4 62					
	,,	•	1 104		870	340	6 617	7 911	2 21					
West South Controls														
Artonios	2 368 5													
Levisiane	4 104 7		1 879			218	9 124	8 493	2 91					
Mahama			2 445		1 222		11 003	22 443	7 89					
Page -	3 967 8		3 276			839	144 441	16 293	n n					
Tease	11 243 3	47	9 330	297	1 692	342	23 999	114 831	31 67					
News Color				•	-				•••					

Kentana	276 2			410		713	36 483	2 330	1 76					
Idaho	907 3			167		***	7 832	3 7 67	1 10					
Vyenlegannannan annan annan annan annan anna	445 0			133	,	284	6 714	1 417	i 24					
Coloredo	2 350 3		2 310			884	15 239	28 453	11 20					
See Houles,xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx	613 6			134	2)	134	102 637	6 267	7 63					
At 10004	2 277 3		2 924			145	143 366	20 673	12 02					
Ttab	1 400 7		1 334			100	14 11	14 429	4 41					
Sevelenzantenzantenzantenzantenzanten	746 6	l4	***	334		443	11 271	13 133	4 11					
Detitler								•••						
Weshing too. xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx	4 012 1													
	2 347 2		2 723			***	38 094	97 224	26 74					
Oregon	19 123 1		3 454			322	25 714	33 3t1	13 491					
Colifornie	392 3		15 762		L 783		161 237	L 183 632	276 700					
Manage description of the state			304			431	63 473	7 420	3 39					
Toutt	#1 4		211	731	14	472	2 342	348 520	ห เม					



Table 5 Percent Distribution of Persons of Spanish Origin by Race: 1980

(for meaning of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Cofinitions and Explanations)

1	/145 m44#1	A 41 4).		h erigia	. 701					enich erigi	•	
United States Regions and Divisions States	Tetel	Wate.		American	Kea selek cilicar Trabasisi	Other	Total	Vhita		American Indian, Eskipe,	Asias and Pecific Islander ¹	Other
United States	100.0	55.6	2.7	0.6	1.1	42.0	100.0	85.1	12.3	0.6	1.6	0.4
REGIONS AND DIVISIONS						[,		
Northeast	100.0 100.0 100.0	51.1 32.2 51.0	3.5 4.4 3.6	0.3 0.4 0.3	0.3 0.7 0.5	42.6 42.4 42.6	100.0 100.0 100.0	88.1 94.9 85.7	10.1 3.8 12.3	0.2 0.2 0.1	1.2 0.7 1.4	0.5 0.5 0.4
Morth Central	100.0 100.0 100.0	53.6 53.0 56.7	3.2 3.2 3.1	0.8 0.6 2.0	1.0 0.9 1.5	41.4 42.3 36.8	100.0 100.0 100.0	89.4 87.6 93.8	9.2 11.1 4.6	0.4 0.2 0.8	0.7 0.7 0.3	0.3 0.3 0.3
South	100.0 100.0 190.0 160.0	65.5 25.8 59.5 61.9	3,7 7,8 27,4 1,2	0.4 0.4 0.7 0.3	0.5 1.2 1.6 0.2	29.9 14.9 10.8 36.3	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	74.0 .77.6 80.0 80.8	19.4 21.1 19.3 16.9	0.5 0.3 0.1 1.1	0.6 0.7 0.3 0.8	0.3 0.3 0.1
Housto It	150.0 150.0 100.0	50,7 54,7 49,4	0.7 0.4 0.8	1.0 1.2 0.9	1.8 0.4 2.3	43.4 43.4 46.6	100.0 100.0 100.0	85.9 92.4 83.6	6.0 2.7 7.2	1.8 3.5 1.2	5.3 0.9 6.9	1.0 0.5 1.1
STATES	ĺ					1						
Mew England Hains Hew Hampshire Symmet. Hassachusetta Radd Telend Gennettcyt	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	79.7 82.2 85,7 48,7 40.9 51.4	1.4 2.3 1.1 3.4 4.4 3.6	1.3 0.9 0.8 0.4 0.6 0.2	4.0 1.3 1.2 0.6 1.2 0.5	13.0 10.3 44.9 32.8	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	98.8 99.0 99.2 94.6 95.4 91.7	0.3 0.4 6.2 3.8 2.9 7.1	0.4 0.1 0.2 0.1 0.3	0.3 0.3 0.9 0.5	0.2 0.2 0.6 0.9
Midèle Atlantic: New York	100.n 100.0 100.0	48.0 61.4 49.7	6.2 3.6 5.1	4.1	0.4	34.3	100.0 100.0 100.0	82.8 84.8 90.3	14.3 13.2 8.9	0.1 0.1 0.1	1.5	0.5
fast North Central Ohle	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	54.3 54.3 50.6 53.4 59.3	6.5 3.4 2.1 5.1 2.3	0.5 0.3 1.2	1.0 0.8 1.2	15,7 46.1 39.1	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	49.2 91.7 82.6 85.6 94.3	10.0 7.6 15.4 13.1 3.9	0.1 0.1 0.1 0.4 / 0.6	0.4 1.4	0.2





, na mara s and						٠, .						
Vest Forth Centrel	147.0	59.4	• •									. 1
Minesotta , ,,,, seersessa zavarians	100.0	67.2	2.4 1.4	2.6 1.3	2.3	37.8	190.0 190.0	96.9 97.8	1.3	0.8	0.6	0.4
MESSGRE	100.0	3.5	4.4	1.1	2.0				1.4	0.2	0.4	2.3
Worth Dekota	100.0	60.4	0.8	4.6	7.5	24.7	100.0	88.6 96.1	10.5	0.2	6.5	0.2
South Dalota	100.0	53.6	1.0	15.7		31.6	100.0		€,±	3.1	0.3	0.2
Nebratha. seneralessannanasanasana	100.0	33.3	1.6	1.9	1.		100.0	92.6	0.3	1.3	0.2	0.2
34548	100.0	16.2	2.1	1.6	9.9	42.0	100.0	95.7	3.1	0.6	9.4	3.2
	100.0	40×X	4-4	1.0	9.7	44.13	190.0	73.0	5.4	0.4	0.6	0.4
South Atlantic												1
Delayetexercassons accessment and	100.0	48.3	10.4	1.0	2.0	28.1	100.0	\$2.5	16.2	0.2	6,7	0.3
M4.1895 in i yeer seering courteer	100.0	45.9	11.9	0.6	3.9	17.7	160.0	75.0	22.9	0.1	1.5	0.4
listrict of Columbia Annangaranasa	100.0	42.6	21.2	3.7	2.3	33.2	1∞.0	25.5	71.7	ŭ.i	1.0	0.7
FIRECIA EL TURIA CORREACEMENT LEVER	100,0	63.0	X3.1	6.6	4,9	18.3	100.0	79.4	11.9	0.2	1.2	0.3
Sent direinien z nesermannen en	107.0	87,8	3.5	0.5	2.2,	4.0	100.0	96.2	3.3	6.1	. 0.1	0.1
With Catelina xxxxx xxxxxxxxx	100.0	31.1	21.2	3.0	1.7	15.0	100.0	74.0	32.4	1.1	0.3	0.2
Seath Catelina	100.0	45.2	31.5	0.7	2.4	12.7	100.0	47.0	\$0.3	0.2	0.4	0.1
Georgia	100.0	34.0	27.6	1.6	1.7	15.9	100.0	12.5	24.1	9.1	0.4	0.2
Flatida	190.0	82.9	2.9	0.2	0.5	i3.6	100.0	\$4.1	14,8	6.2	0.6	6.3
East South Centrals						- 1						
Xenteday H	160.0	74.5	7.9	0.7	2.1	16 3	100.0	92.4	7.2	0.1	č.)	0.1
Temperer	150.0	66.0	20.E	6,2	1.7	19,7	100.5	13.7	15.8	6.1	6.3	2.2
Alabama	100.0	31.2	18.0	0.7	1.1	9.0	100.0	14.0	25.5	0.2	0.2	3 1
Misstanippi	100.0	44.6	43.8	4.1	1.6	9.3	100.0	4.3	35.1	0.2	63	4.1
heat South Cameral									4	f		• • • •
ARASSABLA PERA A REPLEXACE NEW	160.0	54.2	41.1	1.6	1.4	37.8	100.0		14. 4	0.4	0.3	1
Land Stands - Carla Internation - April 1888	100.0	71.4	1	1.0	0.9	11.9	160.8	42.2 49.2	29.5	0.3	0.4	0.1
Tale and the state of the state	160.0	46.7	2.6	6.0	1.2	43.3		84.6	4.8		6.4	0.2
16741,	100.0	61.2	0.6	6.2	0.2	353	100.0	33.2	15.1	\$.6 6.3		0.4
	100.0	****	9.6	V. 4	V. 2	37.4	100.0	23.4	1771	8.3	1.0	0.3
Meyetesk		_										- 1
Mansamana c ic riprecipie ad	100.0	57.5	0.7	7.9	1.5	32.3	100.0	94.6	5.2	A.7	6.3	0.7
[446	190.0	42.2	0.1	1.8	0.7	33.2	160.0	57.7	ŭ. 1	1.1	4,6	0.31
where the second section is a second section of	100.0	59 4	0.3	1.6	0.5	31.1	100.6	41.7	0.7	1.5	0.4	0.1
Califaders a sina carre or a	100.0	33.3	0.5	0.8	0.4	44.7	100.0	#3.7	٧.9	2.4	1.1	0.6
Mental Control of the	100.0	61.1	6.3	D. ž	0.1	37.7	165.0	4).1	2 x \$	12.4	0.8	0.5
Aggenta	100.0	48,7	0.4	1.7	6.3	45.9	150,0	ŧ9.₽	3.2	6.4	0.	0.1
18 ⁵ 2 11 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 4 2 4 4 4 4 4 4	100.0	51.2	0.4	1.7	6.8	44.0	460.6	76.4	0.4	1.3	1.0	0.6
*eva5e-,	199.0	61.1	10	1.9	1.9	31.1	100,0	69.3	4.4	1.6	1.0	0.5
Polatte						į						- 1
had sharw	100.0	44.4	4.3	ž.)	4.4	47.8	100.5	92.9	2.6	1.6	7.4	0.7
£84	109.0	52.5	è.8	2.4	1.9	42 3	100.0	95.7	1.4	1.6	5.3	0.6
'all retain the second	104.0	45,5	0.8	5.8	1.5	47.6	100.0	42.4	9.3	0.9	4.3	1,2
Alaxes	100.0	\$1.6	4.1	6.6	ě. ý	39.4	160.0	77.6	5.4	14.2	1.5	0.9
Severe	100 0	>6.7	1.0	6.6	48.7	23.0	100.0	33.3	1.5	6.3	61.5	2.9
								****			V4.4	417

, in dee it a notion and the state received separates of the last arm morph (M) could desected the extension of the last and the last the section of the last of the last of the sections.



Table 6 Spanish Origin Persons in Selected States by Rank: 1980 and 1970

(for meaning of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

	1980			1970				
United States States With 100,000 or Hore Persons of Spanish Origin in 1980		Rank	Nuber	Partent distribution	Rank	Number	Percent distribution	
United States			14 608 673	100.0	•••	9 072 602	100.0	
Selecta' States Cal'(etr Texas Kev Yerk Florids Illinois New Jersay New Hexico. Artcond. Colorade Michigan Fennavivanis		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 * 9 10 11	13 254 580 4 544 310 2 985 824 1 659 300 558 158 635 602 491 883 477 222 440 701 139 717 162 440 153 961 141 633	90.7 31.1 20.4 11.4 5.9 4.4 3.4 3.3 3.0 2.1 1.1 1.0 0.9	1 2 3 4 5 7 6 8 9. 10	8 026 185 2 369 292 1 840 648 1 351 982 405 036 393 204 288 488 308 340 264 770 225 506 151 070 108 893 66 166 65 458	88.5 26.1 20.3 14.9 4.5 4.3 3.2 3.4 2.9 2.5 1.7	
Connatticut		13 14 15	124 499 120 016 119 883	0.8	19	57 358 129 995	0.0	

Table 7. Mexican Origin Persons in Selected States by Rank: 1980 and 1970

(For meaning of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

•								
		1980		1970				
United States States With 50.000 or More Parsons of Mexican Origin in 1980	Rank	Mmber	Percent distribution	Renk	Mmbar	Partent distribution		
United States	•••	8 740 439	100.0	•••	4 532 435	100,0		
Salected States California Texas Illinois Arizons hew Hexito Colorado Mithigan Washington, Florida Indians	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	8 019 294 3 637 466 2 752 487 408 325 396 410 233 772 207 204 112 183 81 112 79 392 57 623 53 318	91.7 41.6 31.5 4.7 4.5 2.7 2.4 1.3 0.9 0.9 0.7	1 2 4 3 5 4 7 8 13 9	4 275 704 1 857 267 1 619 064 160 419 239 811 119 0.9 103 584 65 329 33 483 20 869 30 014 26 795	94.3 41.0 35.7 3.5 5.3 2.6 2.3 1.4 0.7 0.5 0.7		







Table 8 Puerto Rican Origin Persons in Selected States by Rank: 1980 and 1970

(For meaning of symbols, see introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

United States		1980								
States With 10,000 or Here Persons of Puerce Rican Origin in 1980	Rank	Mmber	Percent distribution	Rask	Mmber	Percent distribution				
United States,	,	2 013 945	100.0	•••	1 429 396	100.0				
Selected States	•••	1 924 069	95.5	•••	1 389 980	97.2				
New York	1	986 389	49.0	- i	916 608	64.3				
New Jerssy	2	243 540	12.1	ž	138 896	9.7				
Illinois	3	129 165	6.4	3	87 477	6.3				
Florida	4	94 775	4.7	į	28 166	2.				
California	, 5	93 038	4.6		50 929	5.				
Peansylvania		91 802	4.6	3	44 263	3.				
Consecticut	7	88 361	4.4	i	37 603					
Massachusetts		76 450	3.8	i	23 332	2.				
Ohie	` j	32 442	1.6	i	20 272	1.				
Texas	10	22 938	i.il	11	6 333	l r				
Mawaii	ii	19 351	1.0	ió	9 284	0. 0.				
Indiana	12	12 643	0.6	ii	9 269	ŏ.				
Michigan	. 13	12 425	0.6	13	6 202	0.				
Viecems's	14	10 483	0.3	15	7 248					
Virginia	15	10 227	0.51	17	A 028	v.				

Table 9. Cuban Origin Persons in Selected States by Rank: 1980 and 1970

(For meaning of symbols, see introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

	The state of the s									
United States		1980		1970						
States With 10,000 or More Persons of Cuban Origin in 1980	Rank	Hmber	Percent distribution	Rank *	Meher	Percent distribution				
United States	•••	803 226	100.0	•••	544 600	100.0				
Selected States	 1 2 3 4 5	722 243 470 250 80 860 76 942 61 004 19 063 14 124	89.9 58.3 10.1 9.6 7.6 2.4 1.8	1 3 2 4 5	483 369 250 406 68 048 89 395 47 340 20 796 6 963	88,8 46,0 12,5 16.5 8,7 7,8				



Preliminary Evaluation of Responses in the Mexican Origin Category of the Spanish Origin Item

INTRODUCTION

The evaluation of census data is an integral part of the 1980 census program. This section describes an evaluation study conducted by the Census Bureau to determine whether there was substantial misreporting in the Mexican-American

category of the 1980 census Spanish origin question for certain subnational areas. Misreporting of Mexican origin was suspected because (a) preliminary analysis showed some unreasonable distributions for the Mexican origin population in selected areas of the Nation, (b) comparisons of Spanish origin data from the

1980 census with independent administrative data showed possible misreporting, and (c) examination of responses to the Spanish origin question on a small sample of census questionnaires revealed some misunderstanding of the Mexican origin category. Furthermore, the reporting problem appeared similar to that noted

Table E-1 Mexican Origin Persons by Race for Regions, Divisions, and States: 1980

(For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

Area Total		Percent distribution						Percent distribution			
	Total	Whi to	Black	Other ¹	Area	Total	Total	White	Black	Otherl	
UNITED STATES	8.740,439	100.0	53.2	1.\$	45.0	STATES-Con.					
RECIONS AND DIVISIONS Anotheast New England	\$7,776 16,520 71,256	100.0 100.0 100.0	62.9 71.9 60.8	15.7 8.1 17.5	21.4 19.9 21.8	Nebraska	2,317 2,401 22,431 49,917	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0	56.5 48.1 50.2 44.3	0.5 0.4 0.9 1.4	43.0 51.4 48.9 54.3
				19.)	•					



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North Central	820,218	100.0	51.6	2.7	45.7	l	1 1				
East North Centrel	672,510	100.0	51,5	2.8	45.8						
West Worth Central	147,700	100.0	52.2	2.5	45. 3	Delavare,	1,537	100.0	53.7	24.7	21.6
*****	1,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	100.0	32.2	2.,	43. 3	Maryland	12,339	100.0	56.5	26.0	17.5
South	3.096.792	100.0	60.7	3.3	36.0	District of Columbia	3,132	100.0	31.4	42.7	26.0
South Atlantic	199,748	100.0	48.5	26.9	24.6	Virginia.	24,104	100.0	54.7	27,7	17.6
East South Central	66,139	100.0	53.4	37.4	9 2	West Virginia	6,256	100.0	90.9	3.9	5.2
Fest South Cotral	2.830.905	100.0	61.7	0.9	37. 5	North Carelins	27,818	100.0	45.6	36.9	17.5
	1 -,050,,00	100.0	04.7	0.9	37.3	South Carelina,	17, 523	100.0	33.8	56.6	9.5
Year	4,735,653	100.0				Georgia.	27,647	100.0	39.2	46.6	14.2
Heuntain	958.634		48.4	0.5	51.2	Florida	79, 392	100.0	50.1	11.1	38.8
Pacific	3,777,019	100.0	52.3 47.4	0.3	47.4		1 i				
Pactate	3,777,017	. 100.0	47.4	0,5	52.1	East South Central:	i i				
STATES	i !					Xentucky	14,150	100.0	78.3	9.6	12.2
SIAIG	<u> </u>				1	Tennessee	18,577	100.0	63.1	27.6	9.3
New England:	1 !		-			Alabama	18,869	100.0	41.3	51.4	7.3
	i i					Mississippi	14,543	100.0	32.6	58.7	8.7
Maine.	1,539	100.0	31.9	0.6	17.5		i i				
New Hampshire	1,152	100.0	81.4	1.0	17.6	West South Central:	l 1				
Verment	627	100.0	86.9	0.2	12.9	Arkansas	10,886	100.0	51.8	24.9	23.3
Massachusetts	7,385	100.0	70.1	7.3	22.6	Louisiana	28,558	100.0	54.3	32.0	13.7
Rhede leland	1,342	100.0	74.8	7.2	18.0	Oklahoma	38,974	100.0	42.2	2.3	55.5
Connecticut	4,475	100.0	66.2	15.4	18.4	Texas	2,752,487	100.0	62.1	0.4	37.5
Middle Atlantic:						Neustain:	!!				
New York	38,755	100.0	57.0	17.7	25.3	Mostana	6,463	100.0	50.2	0.6	49.2
New Jersey	13,146	100.0	59.7	20.4	19.8	Idaho	25, 143	100.0	34.6	0.1	65.3
Pennsylvania	19, 355	100.0	69.0	15.1	15.9	Wyoming	15,940	100.0	57.2	0.2	42.5
						Celorado	207, 204	100.0	32.0	0.4	47.6
Yest North Contral:					l	New Mexico	233,772	100.0	62.0		
Obio	53.318	100.0	56.9	.7.7	35.4	Arizona	396, 410	100.0	47.6	0.2	37.9
Indiana	57,625	100.0	\$6.7	2.9	40.4	Utah	38,021	100.0	50.0	0.3	52.1
Illinois	408,325	100.0	50.0	1.7	49.2	Nevada	32,681			0.3	49.7
Michigan	112, 183	100.0	49.2	4.3	46.4		, ••··	100.0	59.1	0,7	40,2
Wisconsis	41,067	100.0	37.7	2.0	60.4	Pacifici					
	,				ا		4	100.0			
West North Central:					!	Washington Oregon	81,112	100.0	30.0	0.7	61.2
Minnesota.	20,437	100.0	55.5	1.4	43.1		45, 170	100.0	44.4	0.6	55.1
Iova	10, 161	100.0	37.3	1.4	41.2	California	3,637,466	100.0	47.7	0.5	51.9
Missouri	32,036	100.0	60.9	6.9	32.2	Alaska	4,615	100.0	54.2	1.1	44.7
	22,076	1000	₩.,	6.7	32.2	Havai 1	8,656	100.0	38.5	1.0	€0.5

Includes American Indian, Eskino, and Aleut; Asian and Pacific Islander; and other races.



in the 1980 census pretest program, in which the Bureau made efforts to eliminate the misreporting by revising the wording and format of the Spanish origin question.

The evaluation study described here is limited to only one facet of response error to the Spanish origin question. namely, overreporting in the Mexican origin category. Detailed analysis of the 1980 census data together with the Census Bureau's experience in collecting ethnic origin data indicates that other response errors exist. This study should not be interpreted as implying that overreporting in the Mexican origin category is the only response error in the Spanish origin data or that all response errors involve overreporting. Further evaluation of the reporting of Spanish origin will be based on data from the postcensal Content Reinterview Study and the sample data from the 1980 census.

It is important to note that the study results have not been used to alter the official census counts generated for the Spanish or Mexican origin population in the 1980 census.

ically, the response problem appeared to be greatest in the Southern States (excluding Texes), the Northeast (excluding the New York city area), and a few States of the North Central region, the data seemed reasonable, however, for the remainder of the country. Although the possible misreporting was found among persons of the White and Black race, the problem was not evident for persons of American Indian, Asian and Pacific Islander, or "other" race. Table E-1 shows the 1980 census racial distribution of the Mexican origin population.

The basic approach of the study was to screen 1980 census long-form questionnaires with a series of edit rules (i.e., consistency checks) to identify those White and Black persons possibly misreporting in the Mexican origin category. A telephone reinterview study was then conducted to validate whether these edit rules were effective in identifying overreporting.

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into five strata according to the "suspected" level of misreporting. However, States were not grouped into strata for Black households because the level of misreporting of Black persons appeared to be fairly uniform throughout the study sample area. Table E-2 provides a list of the study States with 1980 census counts of White and Black persons reporting Mexican origin.

Application of Edit Rules

The adit rules were developed to identify the households with possible misreporting, and were designed to favor the acceptance of a Mexican origin response to avoid overstating the extent of misreporting. Households in the sample were classified into the following two categones.

"Acceptable" Mexican Origin Response— A response was acceptable if the respond ent or any other member of the household had, in addition to the Mexican origin response in the Spanish origin question,



Sample Design

Probability samples of long-form questionnaires for 5,400 White households and 600 Black households with at least one person in the household reporting Mexican origin were selected from 27 States and the District of Columbia. For the White household sample, States were grouped

METHODOLOGY

600 Black househor person in the house househor person in the househor person

Table E 2. Mexican Origin Persons by White and Black Race for States in Study of Spenish Origin Reporting in the 1980 Census

(For definition of terms, sea Definition; and Explanations)

analysis of 1980 census data. Specif

Area '	White Hexicans	Black Hexicans	Area c	White Mexicans	Black Hexican
Study States	332,313	110,955	Group III States	71.684	(1)
-	-		Plorida	39,750	e. ès
Group I States	51,405	(1)	Louisiana	15,500	9, 13
Delavere	825	380	Oklshons	16,434	911
District of Columbia	582	1,336			711
Georgia	10.841	12.889	Group IV States	110,244	(1)
Keryland	6,967	3.212	Indiana	32,683	1,68
North Carolina	126678	10, 266	Kichigan		
South Carolins	5.929	9, 924	Ohio	55, 221 30, 340	4,867
Virgitia	13,183	6,687	•====================================	, 30,340	4,088
	•		Group V States	44,328	(1)
			Consecticut	2,964	687
			Xainy	1,260	•
Group II States	44,652	(1)	Masaachusetts	5, 175	539
Alabama	7,788	9,696	New Hampshire	938	11
Arkenses	. 5,644	2.711	New Jersey	7,854	2,684
Kestucky	11,073	1,356	New York	11,236	2,129
Mississippi	4.747	8, 531	Pennsylvania	13,352	2,927
Tennessee	11, 715	5,130	Rhode Islend	1,004	97
Vest Virginia	3,485	243	Verment	345	"

The Black population was not divided into State groups for this study. Excludes the New York city area.

given positive indications of Spanish ancestry in answers to at least one of the following census questions:

- A Spanish origin response (other than Mexican origin) in the Spanish origin question;
- A Spenish ancestry¹ (including Mexican) response or only a single response of "American Indian" in the ancestry question:
- 3 Report of a Spanish-speaking country, Puerto Rico, or one of five southwestern States in the place of birth question; or
- 4. Spanish as the language reported in the current language question.

"Rejected" Mexican Origin Response (i.e., possible misreporting)—A household was rejected if it had none of the "acceptable" indications cited above.

Validation of Edit Rules

To confirm the effectiveness of the edit rules in identifying individuals who misreported, a limited "probing-type" tele-



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³ The determination of Spanish encestry in the ancestry question applied to all single responses and to the first two responses when more than two ancestries were reported. This is consistent with the processing procedures of ancestry responses in the 1920 census.

Table £ 3. Mexican Origin Persons and Rejected Mexican Origin Responses for White and Black Persons in Study of Spanish Origin Reporting in the 1980 Census

(For meaning of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations. Individual items may not add to totale due to independent rounding)

		Study results1				
Area and race	Hexican origin persons, 1980 census (1,000)	Percent of Hexican origin responses resected	Confidence interval of percent rejected ²	Estimated number of Hexican origin response rejected (1,000)		
UNITED STATES						
Tetal Hexican erigin3	8,740	•••				
UniteBiack	4,649	•••	•••			
STUDY STATES						
Total Mexican origin3	633					
White	332 111	32.7 92.9	30.5-34.9 91.2-94.6	109 103		
White Mexicene by State group: Tet '	332 51 47	32.7 49.1 62.2	30.5-34.9 44.9-53.3 56.6-67.8	109 25 29		
Group III	72 118 44	18.2 18.7 39.9	15.2-21.2 15.0-22.4 36.8-43.0	13 22 18		

Based on a sample of 1980 census long-form (sample) questionnaires.

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non Spanish persons had occurred in the 1980 census. The application of the edit rules to the study population resulted in rather large proportions of Mexican origin entries being rejected for both Black and White persons. For Black persons who reported Mexican origin, the rejection rate was extremely high (93 percent); and although the rejection rate for White persons was lower (33 percent), it was still substantial (see table E-3).

The rejection rate among White persons reporting Mexican origin varied widely by State group. As shown in table E-3, the rejection rate for persons classified as White Mexicans is highest in groups II and I (which include only Southern States) and lowest in group III (consisting of Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Florida) and group IV (which includes three North Central States). In State group II, the majority (62 percent) of Mexican origin responses made by White persons were rejected and in State group i about one-half (49 percent) of the responses were rejected. The rejection rate was moderately high (40 percent) for group V (including the Northeastern States but excluding New York city). For both State groups III and IV, the rejection rate was about 18 percent.



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The confidence interval was based on 2 standard errors. To illustrate, if all long-form quastionnearce were edited using the study editing fulse, 4 conclusion that the overall rate of rejection lies within a range of plus or minus 2 standard errors from the sample rejection rate would be correct for about 95 percent of all possible samples.

Includes American Indian, Eakimo, and Aleut, Asian and Pacific Islander, and other races not shown separately.

^{*}Includes 27 States and the District of Columbia.

phone reinterview of the sample households was performed in January 1982. A sample of about 200 White households and 100 Black households with reported telephone numbers on the census questronnaire was randomly chosen from the study households rejected by the edit rules. About 76 percent of the households were contacted. Results from the reinterview sample clearly supported "rejection of the Mexican origin responses as determined by the edit rules. The over whelming majority of Black persons (99 percent) and White persons (94 percent) in the reinterviewed households reported as "not Spanish." No attempted reinterview of "accepted" households was made.

Limitation of the Methodology

Extreme caution should be exercised when attempting to interpret the results of this study (discussed below). Since a full validation of the edit rules was not performed for either the rejected or

accepted Mexican origin responses, the rejection rate² of Mexican origin responses made by the edit rules should not be interpreted as truly estimating a net misreporting rate. However, given the available data, the rejection rate can confidently be interpreted as an indicator of misreporting. Although the study sample was not large enough to provide rejection rates for individual States, the study results may be used to Identify broad geographical areas particu larly susceptible to misreporting and to give some indication of the order of magnitude of the reporting error for these areas.

MAJOR FINDINGS

The results of the study demonstrated that misreporting of Mexican origin by

By inflating the sample results from the edit operation to the level of the full 1980 census population in the study States, an estimate of the total number of Mexican origin responses which are probably erroneous can be derived. About 200,000 false reports were estimated by application of the edit rules; inese false reports were equally divided betwean White and Black persons (about 100,000 for each group). Table E-3 shows the estimated number of rejected responses for both White and Black persons (by State group for White persons).

IMPLICATIONS

The estimated number of false reports of Mexican origin comprised a rather large proportion—almost one-third—of the total Mexican origin population in the study areas, but a much smaller proportion—only about 7 percent—of the



^{*}Proportion of "rejected" Mexican origin

Preliminary Evaluation of Responses in the Mexican Origin Category of the Spanish Origin Item

total Spanish origin population in those areas. The study results indicate that the extent of misreporting of White persons varies considerably by State groups, and that the degree of misreporting is most pronounced in the South (excluding Texas, Florida, Oklahoma, and Louisiana).

Results based on available data from the study suggest that the impact of potential misreporting of Mexican origin in the 1980 census is severe in specific areas of the Nation where the Spanish origin population is generally sparse. In those areas of the study where persons reporting Mexican origin comprised a sub-

stantial proportion of the total Spanish origin population, the size of that population could be seriously overstated. In such areas, the distribution of Spanish origin persons by race would be distorted and the White non-Spanish and Black non-Spanish population understated. However, the study results show that National 1980 census data on the Mexican origin population are not seriously affected by this reporting problem. For example, if the 212,000 persons rejected were in fact misreported as being of Mexican origin, they would constitute only 2.4 percent of the overall 8.7 mil-

lion Mexican origin persons reported in the 1980 census,

This study has focused on only one type of error in the reporting of Spanish origin in the 1980 census. Subsequent evaluation of 1980 census data will provide more information on the quality of data for the Spanish origin population. Future studies will deal with erroneous reporting of Spanish origin (both over reporting, as found in this study, and underreporting), coverage of the Spanish origin population, and the effects of allocation and processing procedures on that population.

