THE EDUCATION OF SPANISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN

In Five Southwestern States

By

ANNIE REYNOLDS

Associate Specialist in School Supervision
Office of Education

Bulletin 1933, No. 11

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR - - *Harold L. Ickes, Secretary*
OFFICE OF EDUCATION - - - - - - - - - - - - - - *William John Cooper, Commissioner*

UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE - - - - - - - - - - - WASHINGTON : 1933
For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - Price 10 cents

CONTENTS

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D.C., June 1933.

SIR: The manuscript transmitted herewith has been prepared by Miss Reynolds after careful study and a visit into the territory concerned. There have been many Spanish-speaking foreigners largely from Mexico in the United States in recent years. They are sufficiently numerous, however, in our five Southwestern States to constitute a rather serious school problem. Enough of the social and economic status of these people is here enumerated to serve as a background for certain educational problems which arise. Their intelligence as measured by our better tests is given. It shows an overageness that needs to be taken into account. The American prejudices against Mexicans in most communities must also be considered, for this often leads to separate housing and equipment. The problem of segregation is not so troublesome in cities, since the Mexicans tend to colonize in a part of the city where rents are lower. This automatically throws them into the neighborhood school. In other places, however, there are attempts to place them either in old buildings or in temporary construction or to give them schooling between the hours of 7 a.m. and 12 noon. Moreover, there do not seem to be serious efforts made except in California to check up on their attendance. These attempts to violate the child labor laws are hard to deal with, since the school board itself may quietly favor them.

Efforts to find the special school talents of the Mexican children, the proper education of their teachers, and adequate training for their supervisors, are problems dealt with by this bulletin. A special, selected, and annotated bibliography is included. The manuscript, I am sure, will be of

interest to school people particularly in the Southwest, and to child-labor workers everywhere.

I respectfully recommend that it be published as a bulletin of this Office.

Respectfully submitted.

WM. JOHN COOPER,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

THE EDUCATION OF SPANISH-SPEAKING CHILDREN IN FIVE SOUTHWESTERN STATES

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

A BRIEF HISTORICAL ACCOUNT

A brief statement concerning the early history of southwestern United States from the time of the arrival of the first settlers to the region up to 1863 may provide a background for the understanding of certain problems relating to the education of Spanish-speaking pupils in Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas. This early history is characterized by the immigration of Spanish-speaking people to the country lying north of Mexico which later became our own Southwest. The first period is characterized chiefly by the forts and missions established by the Spaniards who reached the region by the way of Mexico. The missions in Arizona date from 1629, in Texas from 1690, and in California from 1769. The objective of the missionaries was the conversion of the native Indians, numerous throughout the region. In California, where the missions attained their greatest success, the total population of the 18 missions in 1800 was 18,000, mostly Indian neophites. The number of Spanish colonists directly concerned with the development of the missions or with the establishment of homes for themselves is not known, but available information is to the effect that except in New Mexico slight progress was made in colonization.

Finally Mexico declared its independence of Spain in 1821 with marked effects, especially upon the history of California and Texas. The period of Mexican governors, 1821 to 1846, was marked in California by the arrest in the development of the missions and eventually by their

decay as the result of the policy of the Mexican Government. The missions ceased legally to exist in 1833. The influence of the mission style of architecture on public and private buildings in California and the cultivation of the olive, the orange, and the vine, brought from Spain and first raised in connection with the missions, entitle them to rank high among Spanish contributions to the welfare of the State. Moreover, the mission edifices, preserved largely through the interest of the Landmarks Club of the State, have been mainly responsible for the interest in and the glamour connected with the Spanish occupancy of the State.

The colonization of New Mexico was quite different from that of California, in fact from that of any of the other States in our study. During a period of many years after the date of the first permanent settlement in 1598, groups of settlers came from time to time from Spain. For more than 200 years the descendants of these various groups, occupied chiefly in farming and grazing, lived, peaceably in great measure, side by side with Indians who for many years greatly exceeded them in numbers. In the case of the poorer members of the groups a certain amount of intermarriage with Indians took place. This was not the case among the members of the upper classes, who were represented to a considerable extent. As the New Mexico of that day included territory which many years later became a portion of the present State of Colorado, a certain number of these Spanish colonists settled in the future Colorado.

The early colonists in New Mexico showed considerable talent in arts and crafts. The following statement is based chiefly on a magazine article by the late Frank Applegate.[1] The early colonists in New Mexico, "removed from their sources of supply by 6 months of horseback riding in addition to the sea voyage", brought with them only what could be carried in saddlebags or in the crude solid-wheeled carretas drawn by oxen. Under these circumstances the colonists made many articles for use in their homes, including furniture, and in so doing were "largely influenced by limitations of tools and materials and by the arts and crafts of

[1] Applegate, Frank. Spanish colonial arts. Survey Graphic, 19: 156–157, May 1931.

the Indians among whom they settled." They made chests of native pine or strips of native tanned buffalo leather ranging in size from the tiny ones used for holding small articles to the huge chests used for storage of grain, bedding, clothing, and church vestments. Weaving was an important handicraft. The Spaniard learned the art of using fine vegetable dyes from the Indians and used them to color designs on blankets, ceremonial garments, leather, and baskets. "From 1800 to 1850 Spanish colonists employed Navajo Indian women to spin and weave blankets for them. These women became in this way very proficient and carried the art back to the tribe, so that ever since these Indians have been famous for their weaving. • • • The fine arts reached their highest development among the Spanish colonists of New Mexico in religious painting and carving in wood." The artists, not having access to canvas or oils, used for a background "split panels from sections of smooth-grained pine logs", for there were no sawmills. A coating of gypsum made a smooth, white surface. For paints they used Indian dyes.

In 1836, 15 years after Mexico supplanted Spain, the Americans in what is now Texas, numbering about one fourth of the population, with the cooperation of Texans who had immigrated thither from Mexico or whose immediate ancestors were Mexicans, won the independence of Texas from Mexico. In 1845 Texas was admitted to the United States. Following the admission and in consequence of it, war between the United States and Mexico ensued. The establishment of the present boundaries of the five States concerned in our study was a result of the terms of the treaty closing the Mexican War in 1848, of the Gadsden purchase, of the settlement of the western claim to territory made by Texas, and of the cession of certain portions of New Mexico to Colorado and Arizona in the years following. As already indicated, the year 1863 marked the end of the early history of the region. At that time two State governments, those of California and Texas, and three Territorial governments, those of Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico, had been organized in accordance with provisions embodied in the United States Constitution.

179619°—33——2

THE QUESTION OF TERMINOLOGY

In the interests of clarification attention should be called to the fact that Spanish-speaking people in the five States in our study represent two groups each of which has its own designation. One group is composed of the relatively large numbers of immigrants from Mexico and their descendants who have entered the region subsequent to about 1850. They are known as Mexicans. The other group of Spanish-speaking people is composed of descendants of earlier Spanish colonists who came directly from Spain or from Spain by way of Mexico. These descendants are so few in California, Arizona, and Texas that references to them among the school population are rare in these States, and the designation "Mexican" for all Spanish-speaking pupils is in general use.

A different situation obtains in New Mexico. In the view of educational leaders, with few exceptions the Spanish-speaking people in the State are descendants of the early colonists. These leaders state that the number of people in New Mexico to whom the term "Mexican" applies is negligible and that the term "Spanish American" or "people of Spanish descent" will include them and at the same time be true to fact as far as the bulk of the Spanish-speaking people is concerned.[1] In Colorado people solve the problem by using the designation "Mexican and Spanish American" in referring to Spanish-speaking persons. A new designation, that of "bilingual people" is at present in limited use, especially in New Mexico, in reference to adults and pupils, with Spanish as their mother tongue who are able to express themselves also in English, as a more correct designation than either "Mexican" or "Spanish speaking."

[1] Three observations may be made: (1) As statistics have not been compiled along this line, it would seem that no one is in position to know with accuracy how many in the Spanish-speaking population of New Mexico are recent arrivals from Mexico or the descendants of comparatively recent immigrants, and thus "Mexicans" as the term is used in other States. (2) It is evident that census enumerators have from the beginning reported persons of Spanish stock in New Mexico as "Mexicans." (3) In the opinion of certain educational and other writers, Spanish Americans and Mexicans are on the whole so similar in characteristics and in economic and educational status that no special significance attaches to the use of one designation instead of the other.

The use of a distinctive term to refer to one element in the population necessarily connotes resort to a similar expedient in the case of the other element. Pupils in the five States of our study coming from homes in which English is the spoken language are generally referred to in professional literature as "American pupils", occasionally as "non-Mexican pupils", or in New Mexico as "Anglos." In States in which Mexicans are white under the law, the use of "Mexican" and "other whites" is customary. In the present publication an effort has been made to record usage. It is not our purpose to attempt to change it. Thus in each case we have tried to adhere to the terminology used in the original reports upon which certain information is based, or to the terminology of the educators cooperating in a particular portion of the study.

THE EXTENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM

In order to present some idea of the extent of the educational problem involved in the education of Spanish-speaking pupils in the five States of this study, information is included based on data from the United States Bureau of the Census. The tabulation of figures in table 1 is based on the reports of the Bureau from 1890 to 1930. The figures give the total population and the numbers and distribution of the Mexican population of the five States of our study. The data for 1910 and 1920 differ from the data for 1890 and 1900 in that the census reports for 1910 and 1920 tabulated an analysis of the population of Mexican stock. Under this designation the reports enumerated separately persons born in Mexico and persons born in the United States one or both of whose parents were born in Mexico. By this extension of information the 1910 and 1920 census reports are more nearly in accord with the popular usage of the term "Mexican" than were former reports, and thus give a better idea of the extent of the Mexican population in the various States. The Fifteenth Census report (1930) aimed to come still nearer to popular usage. It departed widely from the practice hitherto observed and included Mexicans under a separate heading in the general class of

"other races." This latest census report defines the designation "Mexican" in the above enumeration as covering "persons of Mexican birth or parentage who were not definitely returned as white or Indian in 1930."

TABLE 1.—*Total population and Mexican population included in the total in each of the 5 States included in our study*

Categories by year	Arizona	California	Colorado	New Mexico	Texas	Total of 5 States
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1890						
Total population	59, 620	1, 208, 130	412, 198	153, 593	2, 235, 523	4, 069, 064
Population born in Mexico	11, 534	7, 164	607	4, 504	51, 559	75, 368
Percentage of population born in Mexico	19. 3	0. 59	0. 14	2. 9	2. 3	1. 9
1900						
Total population	122, 931	1, 485, 053	539, 700	195, 310	3, 048, 710	5, 391, 704
Population born in Mexico	14, 172	9, 086	274	6, 649	71, 062	101, 243
Percentage of population born in Mexico	11. 5	0. 6	0. 05	3. 4	2. 3	1. 9
1910						
Total	204, 254	3, 377, 549	799, 024	327, 301	3, 896, 542	8, 604, 670
Mexican stock	51, 102	51, 137	3, 330	21, 945	232, 920	360, 437
Born in Mexico	29, 452	33, 444	2, 543	11, 918	124, 238	201, 595
Mexican or mixed parentage	21, 650	17, 693	787	10, 030	108, 682	158, 742
Percent Mexican stock is of total population	25. 0	1. 5	0. 5	6. 7	5. 9	4. 2
1920						
Total	334, 162	3, 426, 861	939, 629	360, 350	4, 663, 228	9, 724, 230
Mexican stock	91, 514	126, 086	14, 533	34, 083	398, 174	664, 390
Born in Mexico	59, 824	85, 209	10, 835	19, 763	248, 308	423, 939
Mexican or mixed parentage	31, 690	40, 877	3, 698	14, 320	49, 866	140, 451
Percent Mexican stock is of total population	27. 4	3. 7	1. 5	9. 5	8. 5	6. 8
1930						
Total	435, 573	5, 677, 251	1, 035, 791	423, 317	5, 824, 715	13, 396, 647
Mexican stock	114, 173	368, 013	57, 676	59, 340	683, 681	1, 282, 883
Percent Mexican stock is of total population	26. 2	6. 5	5. 5	14. 0	11. 7	9. 6

As indicated by table 1, if the States are named in order, beginning with the lowest number according to total population of Mexican stock, and so on, the order remains constant from 1910 to 1930, as follows: Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona, California, and Texas. The relative percentage which the Mexican population was of the total State population in each case remained constant from 1890 to 1930. If the States are ranged in order on this basis, naming the State with the smallest percentage of Mexicans first and so on, the order for 40 years is: Colorado, California, Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. From 1890 to 1920 the States

maintained the same rank order as to total population. Naming the State with the smallest total population first and so on, the order is: Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, California, and Texas. By 1930 New Mexico had lost its relative place to Arizona. It may be further noted that the Mexican population increased faster in each of the five States than did the total population during the period 1910 to 1930. This increase, as represented by the varying percentages which the Mexican population was of the total State population in 1910 and in 1930, was so slight as to be negligible in Arizona. In the remaining four States the increase was considerable. The percentage of Mexicans in the population of New Mexico and Texas in 1930 was more than two times and in California more than four times the corresponding percentage in 1910. It approximated 11 times the 1910 percentage in Colorado.

In table 2 the Mexican population of the five States is analyzed so as to indicate somewhat the degree to which it is urbanized and its relative concentration or general distribution throughout the States. The data tabulated are based on the 1930 report of the United States Census Bureau.

TABLE 2.—*Distribution of Mexican population among cities of 25,000 and more and among the counties in which these cities are located in the five southwestern States*

State	Number of cities of 25,000 or more in the State	Number of cities in column 2 with 100 or more Mexicans	Number of counties in which cities in column 3 are located	Mexican population in cities indicated in column 3	Percent of total Mexican population of State in cities indicated in column 3	Mexican population in counties indicated in column 4	Percent of total Mexican population of State in counties indicated in column 4
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Arizona	2	2	2	18,228	16.0	45,587	39.9
California	21	20	14	174,510	47.4	291,354	79.2
Colorado	3	3	3	10,794	18.7	12,952	22.5
New Mexico	1	1	1	610	1.0	1,255	2.1
Texas	16	15	14	215,696	31.6	286,796	41.9

As table 2 indicates, a considerable number and percentage of the Mexican population of the five southwestern States are in the largest cities. This is especially true in the case of California, the State with the greatest number of

such cities, 21 in all, and measurably true of Texas, the State ranking next to California in the number of large cities, 16 in all. In order to obtain a more adequate idea of the situation, corresponding figures for the number of Mexicans in the counties containing the cities of 25,000 and more are given. By means of the latter the Mexican population massed around the large cities is taken into consideration. Almost four fifths of the Mexican population of California and a little more than two fifths of the Mexican population of Texas are in the counties which include the largest cities. Almost two fifths of the Mexican population of Arizona are in the two counties which include the two large cities and one fifth of this population in Colorado is in Denver County, which includes the city of Denver. The following facts concerning the Mexican population in the fifth State are important. Concentration of the Mexican population in the largest urban centers and in the counties in which these centers are located is not found to any great extent in New Mexico. The one city with a population of 25,000 or more, Albuquerque, and the county in which it is located have a comparatively small Mexican population. Of the remaining six cities in the State with a total population of 5,000 or more only two are in counties with a Mexican population of 2,000 or more. Nine of the 10 counties with 2,000 or more Mexicans in the population are in the southern part of the State. Only 1 of the 9 counties contains a city of 5,000 or more, and that city, Las Cruces, has a population of less than 6,000.

In all the five States considered Mexicans are distributed, although in small numbers in certain localities, throughout the States as a whole. All counties in Arizona and New Mexico, all but 1 in California, all but 3 in Colorado, and all but 9 in Texas include Mexicans in the population. No county in Arizona has fewer than 400, but in each of the other States a number of counties have fewer than this number. The respective numbers and proportions of the counties having fewer than 400 Mexicans are as follows: 20 counties in California, or more than one third of the counties in the State; 34 in Colorado, or more than half; 13 in New Mexico, or about two fifths; and 130 in Texas, or more than half of the counties in the State.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS NOW IN OPERATION

SCHOOL HOUSING

The presentation in the following paragraphs includes a discussion of problems met in efforts to provide school buildings and rooms for Mexican pupils, various means devised and recommended for meeting typical situations, the physical standards met by schools for Mexican children, and the reaction of Mexicans to the question of separating Mexican from other school pupils.

The problem of the location and the adequacy in type and number of school buildings and rooms for Mexican pupils is complicated by the fact that prejudice has existed and continues to exist (probably to a lesser extent now than formerly) on the part of many American parents against sending their children to schools attended by Mexican children. As it is against the law to segregate Mexican and American pupils in all of the five States on the grounds of race or nationality, the segregation, if achieved arbitrarily, must be based on another ground. The reason generally given for segregation is connected with the educational needs and lacks peculiar to Mexican children. One of the earliest expressions of authoritative opinion on the question of segregation is found in the Texas educational survey report,[3] which states:

> On pedagogical grounds a very good argument can be made for segregation in the early grades. In the opinion of the survey staff, it is wise to segregate, if it is done on educational grounds, and results in distinct efforts to provide the non-English-speaking pupils with specially trained teachers and the necessary special training resources. This suggestion is not always a practical one, especially in the small school.
>
> This advice is offered with reluctance, as there is danger that it will be misunderstood by some. By others it may be seized upon as a means of justifying the practices now obtaining in some communities. In some instances segregation has been used for the purpose of giving the Mexican children a shorter school year, inferior buildings and equipment, and poorly paid teachers.

The question frequently takes care of itself in cities. No friction arises as to the location of schools attended by Mexican children in cities in which a considerable percent-

[3] Works, George A. Texas educational survey report, vol. viii. General report. Austin, Tex., Texas educational survey commission, 1925. p. 213.

age of the population is of Mexican stock, provided, as generally happens, the Mexican group lives by itself in a certain well-defined section of the city known as "the Mexican quarter." In these cases the selection of a site for the school in proximity to the pupils' homes solves the vexed question of segregation without arousing antagonism, and the school often becomes a "100 percent Mexican school." Los Angeles is a case in point. A citation follows from a letter written by a supervisory official of this city:

> Our educational theory does not make any racial distinction between the Mexican and native white population. However, pressure from white residents of certain sections forced a modification of this principle to the extent that certain neighborhood schools have been placed to absorb the majority of the Mexican pupils in the district. Neighborhood schools, as the term is used in Los Angeles, are schools so situated that a foreign language is spoken in from 76 to 100 percent of the homes.

In many cities certain groups of Mexicans live in segregated sections; others are scattered throughout a number of sections. Typical of such a situation is the following: Of 8 elementary school buildings, 2 are attended by Mexicans only because of residence; in 2 the attendance is 50 percent Mexican; in 1, it is 25 percent Mexican; while the remaining 3 enroll only an occasional Mexican child. Non-Mexicans in the schools enrolling mixed groups occasionally move to other neighborhoods, insist on the establishment of separate classes, or if neither of these measures is possible, acquire a more tolerant attitude toward the situation.

The question is apt to be more troublesome in small than in large school systems in which non-Mexican children predominate but in which the Mexican group is large enough to require separation, at least in the lower grades, and so irregular in attendance that provision which is ample during some school months becomes inadequate as to rooms and number of teachers during others. Overcrowding or a complete change in organization and number of teachers employed is inevitable, and the former too often is considered the most feasible solution.

In the 1-teacher school enrolling, say, 20 American and 15 Mexican pupils, the case is a still more difficult one to handle. The exigencies of the situation may prevent the

organization of separate classes to meet the special needs of Mexican pupils. The teacher has seldom received special preparation for teaching them. Her plight is a difficult one and her reaction to it what might be expected. In classes made up of English-speaking and Spanish-speaking primary children the teacher is likely to spend her major effort on leading the former group to make progress. She need not fear criticism for the failure of the latter, and she would be apt to meet with it for failure of the former. The dual teaching load prevents the acquisition of skill in teaching Mexican children which comes as a byproduct of the interest which Mexican children in a group by themselves so frequently arouse in city teachers. Even experienced teachers in situations similar to the foregoing frequently admit that they are able to do little for the school progress of the Mexican children. The failure of teachers to help Mexican pupils to use their school time to advantage results all too often in the development among them of many unpleasant characteristics. Mexican pupils in small schools enrolling both Mexicans and non-Mexicans frequently bear little resemblance to the alert, friendly, industrious Mexican children one sees in some city schoolrooms where conditions are favorable.

As a matter of general practice in city or country wherever it is feasible to maintain separate schools for Mexican children in the lower grades or in lieu of this to organize separate classes for their instruction the one or the other step is taken. In the opinion of many experienced teachers and supervisors the fourth or fifth is the grade at which separate instruction for Mexican pupils should end. They say in effect "After completing the fourth or fifth grade Mexican pupils, even at the risk of having farther to go to reach school, should be educated with other white children. If the teachers in these early grades have done their work well, Mexican pupils should be able to talk and understand English with considerable ease and use books with some facility by the time they finish the fourth or fifth grade. If this condition obtains, the pedagogical reason for separate teaching can no longer be urged. If Mexican pupils are to be stimulated to desire an education and to remain in school

willingly, the advantages of having other whites as their classmates is very evident." Theoretically the opinion expressed above seems sound. Practically, however, so few Mexican pupils reach the upper elementary grades that the opinion has not to date received much of a test.

A citation from the conclusions as to advantages and disadvantages of segregation reached by one investigator[4] follows:

> Evidently Mexican children do not profit much by associating on the playground with American children. In fact, in a mixed school the two nationalities do not associate much. Mexican children form their own ball teams and do not want to play with American children. Unless carefully watched, Mexican children speak Spanish altogether in their play. American parents tell their children not to play with Mexicans because of the danger of vermin. The majority of playground difficulties in the Mexican schools are due to the difference in nationality. Better results in Americanization are secured in Mexican schools than in mixed schools. American ideals which should be taught to Mexican children are very familiar to American children. In a mixed school the teacher faces the problem that what the Mexican children need the American children do not need and what the American children need is beyond the grasp of Mexican children.

Whether segregation results in the maintenance of high or low physical standards in schools enrolling only Mexicans depends upon various factors. In localities in which the English-speaking population meets high standards in the type of school buildings maintained for its own children and has developed a favorable attitude toward the need of providing adequate educational facilities for the Spanish-speaking population, buildings and rooms assigned for the use of the latter meet similar high standards. School-board members upon whom responsibilities along this line chiefly rest generally reflect the prevailing public sentiment. Occasionally instances are found in which members of local school boards prove unwilling to treat the Mexican school population as well as many of the school patrons would like in regard to quarters assigned to their use.

---

[4] Parr, Eunice Elvira. A comparative study of Mexican and American children in the schools of San Antonio, Tex. Master's thesis, 1926. University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Local school boards composed of Spanish-speaking members, due to their lack of acquaintance with acceptable building standards and the low economic status of the districts they frequently represent, seldom provide even as good school buildings for their children as do English-speaking boards in bilingual districts.

Sometimes the question of segregation of Mexican children causes so much feeling that recourse is taken to the law. Generally speaking, however, Mexicans have accepted proposals looking toward the segregation of Mexican school children without demur. The following account of protest on their part is cited from an article entitled, "Segregation of Mexican Children", which appeared in El Nacional, a daily paper published in Mexico City, September 6, 1931:

> In Lemon Grove, Calif., parents of 75 Mexican children were notified by school authorities that their children, who had up to that time attended the same school as that attended by other whites, should in the future attend a school destined exclusively for Mexicans. School trustees responsible for this action justified it by stating that they had established such separation in order to facilitate the acquisition of the English language on the part of Mexican children. In spite of the protest of Mexican parents, the school authorities stood their ground. Meanwhile the Mexican children did not attend any school. The case finally went to the courts. The judge decided in favor of the complainants, and the Mexican children were readmitted to the school from which they had been excluded. Prior to rendering his decision the judge said: "I understand that some children might be separated if they need special instruction in order to improve their situation but to separate in a group, all the Mexicans would be to infringe the laws of California. I believe that this separation deprives the Mexican children of the presence of American children which is so necessary for them in order to learn English."

TEACHING TECHNICS AND MATERIALS

Teaching materials adequate in amount and of the right kind for Mexican children are conspicuously absent. This is the testimony of teachers—verified by observation and by special studies of the situation made in the Southwestern States.

Lack of suitable material adapted to enlarge children's experiences and to promote reading readiness, of carefully selected texts adapted to much and to easy reading, and the

like, are of even more than the usual importance among non-English-speaking children or children of non-English-speaking parents. The laws of learning demand that such equipment as objects or pictures be at hand when their names are taught and that teachers and children participate in activities of many kinds and talk about their performances, if young learners are to acquire the ability to use a language, whether their mother tongue or, as in the case of these children, a second language.

Four publications[5] based on studies designed to overcome the difficulties generally experienced in teaching foreign-language-speaking children during their first school year are summarized below. In the summary they are given numbers to correspond with the order of their enumeration in the footnote. The Tucson course of study is no. 1, the Texas bulletin, no. 2, the California guide for teachers, no. 3, and the New Mexico course of study is no. 4.

Publication no. 1 presents a vocabulary selected to meet the needs of the children during their first school year, indicates desirable equipment to be secured, and outlines methods by which pupils gain an English vocabulary which prepares them through activities and blackboard reading for the texts which are to follow. The equipment recommended includes a large collection of objects, toys, charts, and pictures, collected and made by teacher and pupils.

Publication no. 2 contains classified and alphabetical lists of words "for which the child will have the greatest immediate need * * * when he is taught first to express himself about his little world of school and home." Words selected as minimum essentials are differentiated from those selected for a more extensive list. General objectives and standards of attainment are given for each of the first three

[5] Rodee, None. Teaching beginners to speak English. A course of study for non-English-speaking children and a manual for teachers. 2d ed. Tucson, Ariz., Tucson public schools, 1923.

Texas, State department of education. A course in English for non-English-speaking pupils, Grades I–III. Austin, Tex., State department of education, Bulletin No. 268, vol. VI, no. 2, February 1930.

California. Department of education. A guide for teachers of beginning non-English-speaking children. Sacramento, Calif., State department of education. Bulletin No. 8, Apr. 15, 1932.

Hughes, Marie M. Teaching a standard English vocabulary with initial reading instruction. Santa Fe, N. Mex., State department of education, 1932.

grades; speech errors and devices for overcoming them are considered; and type reading lessons included.

Publication no. 3 is the result of material developed, evaluated, and organized by a group of rural school supervisors under the direction of a member of the State department of education. It offers specific suggestions for the removal of speech difficulties and for developing facility in language expression through activities relating to health, play, and music. The words in the basic speaking vocabulary included are classified under 18 heads and checked with the words in the Thorndike, Gates, Horn and Corts, and Neal and Storm lists.

Publication no. 4 is based upon results of a study in Dona Ana County, N.Mex., in which first-grade teachers cooperated with the county supervisor. The outcome was this course of study designed to provide children with a meaningful verbal vocabulary taught through units of activities of nonreading type requiring many excursions and related to the home, the farm, the community, the school, literature, and the play life of children. The publication discusses room equipment, including the use of such items as a bulletin board, easels, paper of various kinds, toys, pictures and posters, and books for the library; and room organization with a sample daily program for each of three types of situations—pre-first grade alone, pre-first grade with one or more additional grades, and the 1-room school.

An account of an experiment in San Antonio, Tex.,[6] to adapt material and methods to meet the needs of more than 50 percent of the children in the lower grades of that city who come from homes where English is not spoken includes this statement:

> Our problem then was, by means of activities that grew out of their experiences, to give the children a practical vocabulary that they could use in expressing their needs, and to build up meanings to serve as a background for reading. * * * The source of material was the child himself, his pets, toys, games, his school, his home, and community activities. * * * Children must be trained to think in English, not through the translation of their own language. First-hand experiences through excursions, dramatic play, objects, and

[6] Neal, Elma A. Adapting the curriculum to non-English-speaking children. The Elementary English Review, 6: 183–185, September 1929.

pictures are used daily in developing each lesson unit. • • • The conversation is planned definitely in order that the reading vocabulary may be introduced orally and interwoven into the child's conversation.

There is no doubt in the mind of one recent observer that the young Mexican children in the primary grades of San Antonio have a good time in connection with learning to read. It may be stated at this point that the spirit of happiness so conducive to learning to read does not obtain in some other classes visited, in which teachers prodded uncomprehending children to "read the next sentence" prior to preparing them to do it. Surely the use of mechanical methods is not the way to introduce underprivileged children to the wonderland of reading.

Children in San Antonio delight to help their teachers make booklets. The teacher furnishes the text, composed of words already taught in class, and the children furnish suitable drawings in color. It is difficult to tell which they enjoy more, the art products of their classmates or the related sentences. These booklets, with titles denoting excursions made by the class, such as "The Farm" and "Our Picnic", are kept on reading tables in the first-grade rooms and eagerly sought by individual children who read them silently, or better, orally, to an interested pupil or other listener. A few typical sentences are given below:

Father took the family to the farm.
Father drove the automobile.
Uncle Pedro has a fine farm.
Carlos dug potatoes from the ground.
Uncle Pedro gave the pigs corn.
We played games in the park.
We fed the gold fish.
The children saw a squirrel climb a tree.

A report of a promising experiment to meet better the instructional needs of a group of from 80 to 90 young Mexican pupils comes from Burbank, Calif.[7]

The school authorities found that over a period of several years few Mexican pupils promoted from primary grades were able to do the work assigned them in the upper grades.

[7] Foster, Leona G. Teaching non-English children. The unit plan for non-English children of primary-grade ability. Sierra Educational News, 27: 30–31, December 1931.

To prevent the annual occurrence of this situation a unit plan for use in the first three grades has recently been developed, which will enable the pupils to fit into the school situation at about fourth-grade level. The execution of the plan is entrusted to an activity teacher and to two subject-matter teachers. The activity teacher has charge of a large workroom in which at all times of the day one half of the Mexican pupils are assembled. This teacher keeps her large group employed on projects and activities that seem to her best suited to teach them how to live and work in a group. All school entrants are assigned to the first-grade teacher, who by pictures, dramatics, and similar objective means supplements the activity work. This first-grade teacher "watches for the dawn of understanding, then little by little she initiates formal instruction in the three R's." As soon as individual children can take a primer and workbook and depend in part upon themselves they are sent on to the third teacher. She begins the process of evaluation and rounding out of subject-matter achievement, and building up of weaknesses, in preparation for the more formal situation of the regular grade work which is to follow.

No more than 25 children are assigned a subject-matter teacher at one time. These teachers individualize their instruction as much as possible. As means to this end they use commercial workbooks and home-made drill and practice materials which fit individual pupil needs. The results as reported to date affect beneficially the Mexican children, the other children, and the taxpayers. "The Mexican children keep their self-respect and find school a happy place." So do the other children "whose progress is no longer hampered by a group of helpless, and many times mischievous children who are so because they quite literally do not 'know what it is all about.'" The taxpayers are saved the expense of the customary number of failures, for children ready to go forward at the time they are promoted are not likely to be failures.

PROVISIONS FOR SPECIAL INTERESTS AND TALENTS

Rather widespread opinion and evidence of many authorities indicate that Mexican children excel in art expression, especially in drawing, painting, and music. Following a

brief statement as to the present status of art instruction among Spanish-speaking pupils, the testimony of social workers, travelers, historians, professional educators, and others along this line is cited.

Comparatively few Mexican pupils have the advantage of a school environment conducive to the discovery and development of their artistic tastes. To date in only a comparatively few of the many primary schoolrooms enrolling Mexican pupils are easels and an accompanying supply of large sheets of paper provided in order that pupils with the urge to express themselves through color, line, and form may quietly leave their seats, go to the artists' corner, and paint. The pictures which result on these easel canvases, in an exceptional city like San Antonio, for instance, suggest the widespread possession of at least some artistic talent and joy in its exercise. Few school systems provide so stimulating an opportunity, but the minimum essentials, paper and crayola, are almost universally provided for use by pupils at their seats and with happy results. Watching the distribution of drawing materials and the quick reaction of Mexican pupils to them in a certain primary schoolroom in Arizona, a recent observer noted a decided contrast between the readiness of these pupils to begin and the waiting attitude of many American children under similar circumstances. At the slightest hint from the teacher, 30 children, including a number with little school experience or knowledge of English, demonstrated that they felt at home with crayola and paper. They began without delay to give expression to their mental pictures. So rapidly did they work that, watching the panorama of this group of Mexican children absorbed in what was to them unmistakably a delightful occupation, their faces aglow with the light of achievement, the observer recalled involuntarily the words of Stevenson, "Whoso loves the labor of any art, apart from questions of gain or loss, the gods have called him."

Robert N. McLean stated at the National Conference of Social Work, 1929, "The Mexican worker has a sensitiveness for tone and color which would make of him a real asset if our racial superiority did not prevent us from seeing it. No Mexican can live without his music. In our public

schools many teachers declare that in handwork, in art, in music, the children of these Mexican laborers excel."

Charles A. Thomson, in an address at the National Conference of Social Work, 1928, in considering the Mexican's potential abilities as an artist, stated, "That his spirit has expressed itself in the beauty of his pottery and blankets and folk ways can be taken as an indication that there is something unconquerable about his hungry soul."

Hubert C. Herring, executive director of the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, states in Religious Education, February 1931:

> The Mexican immigrant may be something of an expert at pottery making, or textile weaving, but when he comes to the United States he must start over again as a common laborer. His skills are not marketable here. The provision of technical training for the newly arrived immigrants might prepare many of them for more remunerative and satisfying jobs.

Writers who are most insistent in their contention that Spanish-speaking children are gifted along art lines and should have ample opportunity to develop these gifts point to old Mexico. To quote a recent writer:[8]

> Except perhaps in isolated communities in Russia or some of the central European countries, there is no land left on earth where the artistic urge is so strong as it is in Mexico, where it compels a whole race to express its emotions in line, in form, and in color.
>
> Whether this national gift of artistic expression is hereditary in the Indian strain or in the Spanish, or whether it is born of the union of both would be hard to say. Mexican artists of pure and mixed blood alike seem all of the conviction that their art of today springs from the remote past of their land and is of Aztec, Toltec, and Maya origin.
>
> In Mexico artistic expression is no pleasant pastime, no mere embellishment to life. It is a holy mission, and as such it must be encouraged in old and young, particularly in the young who are to be the prophets of the future. So the officials whose duty it is to see that Mexican youth is taught what will best fit it for life have evolved a system of art training that other nations might profitably emulate.

It would seem too that the early history of New Mexico indicates the probability of an artistic endowment among

[8] Waxman, Frances Sheafer. How Mexican children learn to draw. The School Arts Magazine, June 1931.

present-day inhabitants of Spanish descent. Page 2 of the present publication contains a brief statement of the achievements of the early colonists of New Mexico in the arts and crafts. "Furniture making practically ceased with the influx of Americans. The early comers among them showed a vast intolerance and contempt of everything Spanish-colonial and imparted this attitude to the natives." [9] "The invading Americans led to the decay of the arts and crafts. * * * The year 1927 marks a revival of Spanish-colonial arts in New Mexico." [10] Since then the non-Spanish element has become interested in securing authentic reproductions of old pieces from native workmen. "It is pathetic to see the renewal of happiness and self-respect of the older workers in finding their handicrafts, so long despised, welcomed and appreciated." [11] A permanent collection of old pieces illustrating the best designs has been established by the Colonial Arts Society at Santa Fe. The State University of New Mexico has become actively identified with this renaissance and offers extension courses to teachers in the colonial arts. These teachers hold an annual exhibit at Albuquerque of the articles they have made. In a building adjacent to the one in which the exhibit is held splendid old examples of the colonial arts have been assembled and artistically arranged. Collections of the kind mentioned in Santa Fe and Albuquerque offer incentives "to sustain the native strain of invention and artistry."

Occasionally one meets with the expression of an entirely unfavorable point of view, as in the case of a school official in Los Angeles who states in a recent communication: "Mexicans may have abilities and appreciations which lead them to give a simple beauty to their homes and utensils in their home environment. Here in Los Angeles, however, such esthetic expression seems to have been lift behind."

The question is important enough to deserve careful study. A beginning has been made.

---

[9] Op. cit. Frank Applegate.

[10] Austin, Mary. Mexicans and New Mexico. Survey Graphic, 19: 141–145, May 1931. See also, by the same author, Spanish-colonial furnishings in New Mexico. Antiques, 23: 46–49, February 1933.

[11] Op. cit. Frank Applegate.

Alberta Stoltz and H. T. Manuel report an experiment [12] to submit to a test the hypothesis that Mexican children are more artistic than children of ordinary English-speaking stock. They administered the Meier-Seashore Art Judgment Test and the McAdory Art Achievement Test to 83 Mexican and 103 non-Mexican children enrolled in the same classes in a junior high school in San Antonio. The results of the experiment failed to demonstrate the truth of the hypothesis. Mexican and other white children attained to so nearly the same standard that the experimenters considered the results (which were below standards reached elsewhere) to be inconclusive. The Mexican children made their best relative showing on colors and textiles and clothing and their poorest on furniture and utensils.

A second experiment along somewhat similar lines, in the opinion of the experimenters, yielded more conclusive evidence as to the point at issue.

Manuel and Hughes [13] had drawings previously used by Mrs. Hughes in a study of intelligence examined from the standpoint of their quality as drawings. They were graded by a supervisor of drawing and a former teacher of drawing on the basis of the Thorndike scale. The report of the experiment presents data on (1) the correlation between intelligence and drawing, and (2) on a comparison of the relative abilities of Mexican and non-Mexican children. The investigators conclude that intelligence and drawing ability are closely related insofar as they are measured by the technic adopted. Average ability of Mexican children both in intelligence and drawing compares favorably, grade for grade, with that of other children. A comparison by ages is less favorable. * * * The belief * * * that Mexican children are gifted in drawing and hand work is not supported by a comparison of the scores at any age level. It may be that the apparent talent of Mexican children in drawing is largely a matter of training and interest or else that the test used in this study is not a suitable one to reveal their ability.

[12] Stoltz, Alberta, and Manuel, H. T. The art ability of Mexican children. School and Society, 34: 379–380, Sept. 12, 1931.

[13] Manuel, H. T., and Hughes, Lois S. The intelligence and drawing ability of young Mexican children. Journal of Applied Psychology, August 1932.

In conclusion: Evidence available strongly suggests that pupils so eager, as are practically all members of the group concerned in this study, to undertake pictorial representation should be given every opportunity to develop their potentialities, be they few or many. Here is a phase of education in which Spanish-speaking pupils are certainly not handicapped. Here they feel equal to others and quickly demonstrate their equality. As a means to arouse their enthusiasm for a more extended period of school attendance than that of which they at present avail themselves, emphasis on art instruction in the case of Spanish-speaking pupils would seem to be indicated. The question of any special endowment on their part along art lines remains an open one and may not be settled in the immediate future. Fortunately, hundreds of teachers with opportunities to observe Spanish-speaking pupils closely and sympathetically are interested in the matter and may be counted on to contribute to its settlement, including cooperation with research students in the conduct of carefully made studies to determine the extent of the possession of special talent.

TEACHER TRAINING AND SUPERVISION

The scope of this study does not permit of a survey of the qualifications and training of the teachers nor of courses offered in the teacher education institutions in the territory under consideration.

It is thought, however, that attention should be called (1) to the paramount importance of employing teachers specifically prepared to do the type of work demanded; (2) to the fact that to date not much effort on the part of teacher-preparing institutions to offer a specific type of preparation has been made so far as information is available; (3) to the additional fact that, in general, teachers of Spanish-speaking children receive little supervisory guidance; and (4) to a noteworthy experiment now in progress the findings of which may go a long way in furnishing guidance along the lines of appropriate teacher education and supervision of teachers of Spanish-speaking children.

(1) School administrators appreciating the many psychological and sociological factors entering into the situation, in addition to the educational factors always present, are inclined to think it would be wise to increase the number of Mexican teachers in schools predominantly Mexican, but to date Mexican candidates for teaching positions are rare, due chiefly to the fact that few Mexican pupils enter high school. Mexican young people end their education long before they have laid the foundation for taking a teacher-preparatory course.

An attempt was made through the use of a questionnaire to determine the number and proportion of Mexican teachers included in the teaching staff in 10 selected counties and cities in the 5 States studied. According to replies received from respondents, the total number of teachers in 7 counties is 2,320. This number includes 26 Mexicans. Replies from 9 cities gave the total number of teachers as 2,055, including 32 Mexicans. That teachers familiar and sympathetic with the cultural and social background of their pupils have an advantage over others without this background argues the wisdom of increasing the number of teachers of Mexican stock in schools attended by pupils of the same stock as early in the future as is consonant with the various other factors which must be considered.

The matter of specific preparation for teachers of Mexican pupils has received attention in reports of school surveys, as indicated below. In the Texas educational survey [14] we find:

> The survey staff believes that provision should be made for giving special consideration to the training of teachers for work with non-English-speaking groups of children. * * * The State should undertake the preservice training of teachers for this specialized field of service, not only for the benefit of the smaller places, but because it has no right to expect San Antonio, El Paso, and other places to conduct such training at local expense.

Dr. Emil Larson, of the University of Arizona, in reporting a survey of the schools of Pima County, Ariz., states: [15]

> Data * * * dealing with the teaching staff raise the question of the possibility of giving future teachers as a part of their pre-

[14] Op. cit.

[15] See footnote 28, p. 38.

service preparation work leading specifically to efficiency in teaching Mexicans. * * * This is especially applicable to Pima County, where approximately 70 percent of the rural school pupils are Mexican.

In connection with this survey 58 teachers reported the titles of their preservice professional courses. These titles indicated that a number of teachers employed to teach in the rural schools of the county received much of their preservice professional preparation in courses dealing with the history and philosophy of education, the principles of secondary education, methods of teaching high school subjects, and the like. Courses designed especially to fit young people to teach Spanish-speaking elementary grade pupils were not reported.

(2) Practically all officials interviewed concerning preservice preparation of teachers they employ for positions teaching Spanish-speaking children readily admitted the lack of definite pre-service preparation on the part of inexperienced teachers and expressed freely their regret at this lack. Conflicting opinions were given as to whether or not progress is shown in the attention teacher-preparing institutions give to this specific problem. In a few teacher-preparing institutions a number of prospective teachers have an opportunity to teach Mexican pupils in practice classes.

(3) The seriousness of the situation presented in the preceding paragraphs depends in considerable measure on the presence or absence of facilities for in-service teacher preparation. These facilities depend chiefly on the extent to which elementary grade supervisors are employed throughout the region considered. According to information available in this office, in 1929–30 in 52 cities of 25,000 or more and in 65 smaller cities elementary grade supervisors were employed. These supervisors, with only three exceptions, were employed in cities in which there is a considerable Spanish-speaking population. In these cities and in others not reporting supervisors doubtless principals of elementary schools render assistance to teachers in meeting the special needs of Spanish-speaking pupils.

The supervision of rural schools by professionally prepared supervisors employed to assist county superintendents

has made some progress. California provides for State-wide rural school supervision. Arizona and Colorado employ no rural school supervisors. New Mexico has provided for supervision in 1 and Texas in 9 counties in each of which there are 400 or more Mexicans. In these four States a total of 153 counties, excluding those in which cities of 25,000 and more are located, have 400 or more Mexicans in their population. It is evident, therefore, that supervisory assistance by professionally prepared supervisors is available in these four States in only 10 out of 153 counties, or in about 6 percent of those in special need of it so far as the education of Mexican pupils is concerned.

The foregoing information would seem to warrant the following conclusion: In a considerable number of cities distributed among all five States, teachers confronted with the many difficult instructional problems obtaining in schools enrolling a number of Spanish-speaking pupils have an opportunity to consult supervisory officers charged with responsibility for rendering them assistance. In rural areas in Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas little of this much-needed supervisory guidance and assistance is available.

No definite statement can be made as to the extent to which the meager specific pre-service preparation received by teachers of Spanish-speaking children, especially in the many school systems in which this preparation is not supplemented by supervisory assistance of the appropriate type, is responsible for the regrettable educational conditions which often exist. From the considerable body of testimony available in educational literature on the value of specific preparation for the field of teaching upon which young persons enter and of employing adequately prepared supervisors to assist teachers in the improvement of instruction it seems safe to assume that remedial activities planned to better the conditions obtaining at present in many places in regard to the education of Spanish-speaking pupils should provide for the improvement of the pre-service and in-service preparation of teachers.

(4) The noteworthy experiment [16] to which reference was made above is sponsored by the University of New Mexico. The school of education of this university has undertaken the experiment in the hope that it will shed light on the question of the type and amount of education most appropriate for Spanish-speaking pupils and will make a significant contribution along the lines of pre-service and in-service preparation of teachers of these pupils. For the purpose in mind the county school authorities gave the university permission to use the San Jose School, advantageously situated a few miles from the university. Thus did the San Jose School, in Bernalillo County, become in September 1930 the San Jose Training School, organized to facilitate experimentation.

There is a definite assurance that the experiment will continue for at least 5 years. During this period the director of the school, Dr. Lloyd Tireman, a professor of education in the university, the principal, Mr. Sininger, and the teachers, will bend their utmost efforts to ascertain at first hand the effectiveness of good teaching supplemented by adequate use of carefully selected educational materials and methods, such as (1) administration and interpretation of standardized tests at regular intervals; (2) a generous supply of appropriate books and magazines for the teaching of reading and for the acquisition of the reading habit; (3) the use of activities to teach longer curriculum units which will fit as integral parts into the requirements of the State course of study; (4) provision for many "glorious hours" in which music, art, and drama, including puppet shows and pageants based on real life, folklore, history, and literature, will call forth creative efforts of pupils; and (5) such adaptation of the teaching of fine and industrial arts as will furnish teachers an opportunity to discover and direct latent talent and

[16] The school is a cooperative enterprise which has enlisted the services of various officials and boards. The State and county boards of education have from the beginning cooperated in every way possible. The university leaders in the project were fortunate enough to obtain a grant from the General Education Board and one from Senator Bronson Cutting to supplement the contributions which the county under the law has continued to make. From funds made available by the legislature the State board of education has made an appropriation for the school under the terms of which a certain fixed amount will be available for each of 3 years beginning with the school year 1932–33.

guide the pupils as a whole to wise use of talents possessed in the circumstances under which they live in this country.

The work in the teaching of reading is especially noteworthy. During the 2 years of the existence of the school Dr. Tireman and Mr. Sininger have exerted themselves (and with marked success) to lead teachers in the training school to use effectively the results of modern research in reading instruction and to assist pupils to apply the information gained through reading to the mastery of the other studies in the curriculum; to make the training school a center in which liberal supplies of easy appropriate reading materials in keeping with pupils' interests will entice them to become wide and appreciative readers.

Work in progress reveals that teachers, principal, and director have preserved open minds while continuing to apply themselves to acquiring the special knowledge needed in order to intelligently guide the education of Spanish-speaking pupils.

The school maintains a lower and an upper kindergarten. Pupils enter the former at 4 years of age and the latter at 4 years and 9 months. As in every modern kindergarten, children move about freely, build, observe, play, listen, sing, and accompany these activities with much conversation under the direction of stimulating teachers. The San Jose kindergarten teachers have, however, an additional responsibility: In the majority of kindergartens entering children have already learned to speak a few hundred English words and to understand several hundred. The teacher has as her language objective more exact use of the vocabulary possessed and its extension through appropriate contexts. In the San Jose kindergarten the teachers must first teach children to understand and speak the language of their country. Progress has been made, but the faculty have not been able to realize all their visions. One unrealized vision relates to the teaching of English. The director of the school states "no one knows how best a child can acquire English." He would like to install a microphone which would catch the natural conversations of the children and record them. These records would make possible a comparison of progress at the end of certain time intervals and

would provide an excellent opportunity to note improvement; they might even prove helpful in suggesting effective ways of teaching English to children from non-English speaking homes. The microphone has not to date been installed. However, teachers keep lists of words taught, records of the time required to teach the words in each list and of the number of words known at the end of time intervals similar in length. The expectation is that at the close of the 5-year period the kindergarten teachers can state rather definitely how near children attending kindergarten for 2 years come to realizing their aim, namely, the acquisition of an English vocabulary sufficient for them to speak of objects in their immediate environment with some degree of freedom and to understand and enjoy the type of reading material to which they will be introduced in the first grade.

The in-service preparation offered rural teachers is of special interest. Twice a year a group of 12 rural teachers from various parts of the State come to Albuquerque for a stay of 3 months in which they devote themselves to learning how to become better teachers. They observe the regular teachers of the various grades in the training school, confer with them, give pupils individual help, and assist in teaching classes under close supervision. Meanwhile they study educational theory in classes conducted by the director of the school.

Beginning with the school year 1932–33, a field officer was employed to assist these experienced teachers upon returning to their own schools to apply what they have learned at San Jose. The expenses connected with this period of intensive service are met by the training school. Thus the visiting teachers, although they sacrifice 3 months of their annual salaries to pay the substitutes employed in the rural schools temporarily bereft of their own teachers, do not have to pay personally for the San Jose experience. In order to have as much assurance as possible that teachers availing themselves of the opportunity to come to San Jose are fitted to profit by it, the 24 teachers granted the privilege annually are carefully selected by the director.

In order better to fulfill its mission of offering in-service preparation to rural teachers, the board of directors of the

training school have authorized the establishment of a 1-room school for this purpose in a mountain district 20 miles distant from Albuquerque. The school is not a new one, but when it opens in the fall of 1932 plans call for such reorganization as will enable it to serve as a center for developing methods of instruction especially suitable for use throughout the State in small rural schools attended by Spanish-speaking pupils.

A member of the present training-school staff and her husband have been employed to serve respectively in the capacities of teacher in the school and manager of the project and of community organizer. The experienced teachers who will spend 2 weeks or more of their intensive period of in-service training in this rural district will live at the school.

The board of directors of the school has approved of an experiment in which it is proposed to teach beginning children in Spanish for one period each day. This action is contrary to the prevailing viewpoint that foreign-language-speaking children should be placed as early as may be into school, and insofar as it is possible, speak English only during the entire school day. It will approach the viewpoint advocated in certain sections in Europe and Africa: "Let the child from the bilingual home speak his mother tongue and learn to read it during his first 2 or 3 years in school. Then make the change to the official language of the country." [17]

So far as information is available, the proposed experiment at the San Jose Training School is the first instance of an expression of interest in an experiment with a foreign language in teaching pupils of foreign speech in a public school in the United States.

The San Jose educators state that they are not ready to publish conclusions but that results so far are encouraging. They express confidence that in time the experiment will indicate quite definitely the type and amount of education best adapted to render the greatest educational service to Spanish-speaking pupils.

[17] Loram, C. T. The education of the South African native. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1917. p. 238.

CONDITIONS TO BE MET

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL STATUS

Information follows indicating the economic and social status frequently obtaining among Mexican people and its general effect upon their standard of living and the attitude of other people toward them. As the speaking of a foreign language in the home and lack of education on the part of parents are significant factors in the situation, references to these elements which obviously limit social contacts are included in the discussion. The report of the fact-finding committee of California [18] states:

> Mexicans will undertake work that white labor will not or cannot perform. They toil under excessive heat, dust, isolation, and on temporary jobs, and can be used in gangs. • • • The housing facilities available to most of the Mexicans are often poor and do not conform to proper sanitation standards. Sales agreements frequently prohibit these aliens from buying property in any but Mexican districts. • • • A house-to-house investigation of 769 Mexican families in southern California disclosed • • • the average number of children per family canvassed was 4.3.

Charles A. Thompson [19] states:

> The problem of Mexican dependency • • • is an industrial problem. • • • The unskilled laborer is poorly paid, often irregularly paid; he is ignorant; he suffers from wretched housing; he is ill fed. These conditions mold the Mexican, just as they do any other unskilled group. Their presence guarantees their consequences.

Max Handman [20] makes an appeal for better understanding of the effects of poverty upon Mexicans:

> Mexicans show a decided interest in the schooling of their offspring, in some instances amounting to a passion. Voluntary truancy is quite unknown. The cause which makes for truancy is usually the poverty of the parents who cannot afford to supply the children with the necessary clothing for a decent appearance or with money to buy school supplies. Yet this interest in schooling gives way as soon as the child is able to add to the family income. The Mexicans do not exploit their children, but they cannot see any use for more than a little education when the making of a living is so hard.

---

[18] California. Department of industrial relations. Mexicans in California. Report of Gov. C. C. Young's Mexican fact-finding committee. San Francisco, Calif., department of industrial relations, October 1930.

[19] Op. cit.

[20] Handman, Max Sylvanus. The Mexican immigrant in Texas. Conference of social work. Proceedings, 1926. pp. 382–389.

Manuel and Wright [21] discuss the effect upon Mexican children of a homelife in which a foreign language is spoken:

> The first handicap is that of having more to learn. In addition to this, he has for a considerable time much less ability to respond to the language of the school as an instrument of instruction. We still have a long way to go before we shall know the rate at which this handicap diminishes, the point at which it becomes practically negligible, and the best methods of adjusting to it. It is not so easy to estimate the amount of the difficulty after 3, 4, 5, or more years in the public schools. Opinion seems to be divided.

The connection between economic and social conditions and migration is noted by Robert N. McLean: [22]

> The Mexican's habits are not migratory, but the habits of the industries which furnish him a livelihood most certainly are. Perhaps no group of people have ever been more fixed in their residence than the Mexican workers before they came to this country. * * * They have learned that they must either move with the crops or starve. * * * No social studies have been made which will enable us to count the cost in indigency and crime which this type of life breeds, but it is safe to guess that it is enormous.

Five studies made in Colorado furnish evidence concerning the low economic and social status of Spanish-speaking people. The first four of these studies were made in 1924 and the fifth in 1926,[23] in certain rural sections of Colorado. The five studies are given numbers to correspond with the order of their enumeration in the footnote. The Colorado College study is no. 1, the Colorado Agricultural College study is no. 2, the National Child Labor Committee study by

---

[21] Manuel, H. T., and Wright, Carrie E. The language difficulty of Mexican children. Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, 36: 458–468, September 1929.

[22] Op. cit.

[23] Mautner, Bertram M., and Abbott, W. Lewis. Child labor in agriculture and farm life in the Arkansas Valley of Colorado. Colorado college publication general series, no. 164, 1929. Colorado Springs, Colo.

Coon, B. F., Skinner, Wilbur E., and Leach, Dorothy. Children working on farms in certain sections of Colorado. Fort Collins, Colo., Agricultural college, 1926.

Gibbons, Charles E., and Bell, Howard M. Children working on farms in certain sections of the western slope of Colorado. National child labor committee, New York, N.Y., 1925.

Brown, Sara A., Sargent, Robie O., and Armentrout, Clara B. Children working in the sugar-beet fields of certain districts of the South Platte Valley, Colo. National child labor committee, New York, N.Y., 1925.

Taylor, Paul S. Mexican labor in the United States: Valley of South Platte, Colo., 1929. University of California press, Berkeley, Calif.

Gibbons and Bell is no. 3, and that by Brown, Sargent, and Armentrout is no. 4. The later study by Dr. Taylor is no. 5.

The counties in the rural sections included have for many years raised a large percentage of the sugar beets grown in the United States. The industry, in proportion to amount of crops resulting, demands more workers over a greater period of time than any other directly connected with fields and crops. Moreover, much of this work can be done by children.

The general plan followed was similar in the first four studies: Two field investigations were made, one during the summer vacation called the family study, and a second made in November or later and referred to as the school study. In the family study the field workers visited homes, interviewed parents and children, employers, and school officers.

In the family study information was collected in regard to the number and ages of children at work, the kind and amount of work they did, the length of time they worked daily and yearly, and certain environmental factors conditioning their work. The latter related to the educational, the economic groups to which the families of the children studied belonged (called tenure in some instances), and to the quality of family life the parents were able to sustain. Families were classified upon the basis of the relation they bore to the land on which they worked—that is, on tenures, as owners, renters, contract laborers, or wage workers.

The report of study no. 3 states the attitude of the local community toward the Spanish-speaking transients, thus:

> A barrier exists between the contract families, most of whom are of Mexican descent, and the others in the community. There are two reasons for this. The first is the Mexican himself—a transient, poorly educated, often not able to speak English, and still more often unable to read or write in any language; a low standard of living due to previous and present conditions of poverty, with tastes, customs, and practices different from those of the people among whom he is now living. * * * The root of the trouble lies much deeper than the Mexican's shortcomings; it is the fact that he is a Mexican. He is in the community upon the sufferance of the local people. He is wanted because of his work, and that only. The local people feel practically no responsibility toward him; they see only his ability to work and his weaknesses. Contract children are not expected either by their own parents, or the resident people of the community, to go to school until after the

beets are cut. The attitude which the local people take toward those of Mexican descent is the most serious finding of this study. It is one that is fraught with the greatest dangers.

In the four studies practically all of the Spanish-speaking parents interviewed were in the contract and wage groups. The amount of schooling which adult members of these groups had received is indicated below:

In study no. 1 in the contract and wage groups 42.7 percent of the fathers and 70.7 percent of the mothers were unable to speak English. This deficiency cannot in all cases be laid to the fact that they were recent immigrants to the United States, as 12 American-born fathers, or 8.4 percent, and 27 American-born mothers, or 19.3 percent, in this group were unable to speak English. A large number were unable to write English. Among them we find 23 American-born fathers and 36 American-born mothers. The facts concerning the numbers unable to read English are similar. Moreover, 44.7 percent of the fathers and 40 percent of the mothers had received no schooling whatever; 26.5 percent of the former and 35.7 percent of the latter had received an education limited to grades 1 to 3. Thus we may see that nearly three fourths of these groups of parents (71.2 percent of the fathers and 75.7 percent of the mothers) had no school education beyond the third grade.

Among the findings of study no. 3 are these: The inability to speak the English language on the part of parents was confined almost wholly to those of Mexican descent. Of the 27 parents of Mexican descent born in Colorado 15 could neither read nor write English; of the 38 parents of Mexican descent born elsewhere in the United States, chiefly in New Mexico, 34 could neither read nor write in English, while none of the 34 born in Mexico could read or write English; parents of Mexican descent furnished 74 percent of the illiterates, i.e., they could neither read nor write in any language.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS AND ATTENDANCE

The school enrollments and attendance of Spanish-speaking children as shown by data compiled by the United States Bureau of the Census, by responses to a question-

naire, and by reports of school officials or research students in the five States, are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Information was obtained from the United States Bureau of the Census, comparing attendance of Mexican children to whites (age groups 6–15)[24] in 10 selected cities distributed among the five States, two from each State. The percentage of Mexican children of school age in these cities varies from 10 to 266 percent. The percentage of Mexican pupils attending school as compared with the number of Mexican children (age groups 6–15) is quite similar to, or compares quite favorably with, similar percentages for whites in 4 cities but is considerably lower in 6 cities. The figures yield no information as to the total or average number of days per year pupils in each group attended school. In general the problem of enrolling Mexican children in school long enough annually to be counted as "in attendance" is not nearly so serious as that of securing regular attendance for an extended period of time.

A study was made also of the census figures for 10 counties in the same States which yields rather different results from those noted in the case of the 10 cities. Only predominantly rural counties were selected in order to rule out the effect of large urban centers with better facilities for enforcing attendance. The proportion of Mexican children to other whites, age groups 6–15, in the counties selected varies from less than 20 to 886 percent, with the median between 63.2 and 70 percent. In each of the counties the percentage of Mexican children attending school is lower than the percentage of other white children in attendance. The percentage for the Mexicans varies from 39 percent in the county with the lowest number to 89 percent in the county with the highest; for other whites, from 71 percent in the lowest to 96 in the highest. The percentage of educables attending school is lower in the counties than in the cities for both race groups. The differences are in favor of the other whites, varying from 1 to 36 percent in 9 of the 10 counties.

[24] Information is based on unpublished material furnished by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Figures used are limited to those reported for persons within the age groups indicated in order to obtain an idea of the extent to which Mexican pupils of the ages in which they are most likely to attend school do so attend.

That employment of Mexican children in the fields and at other types of labor has a serious effect on school attendance is shown in the Colorado reports and others. The following summary is typical of attendance conditions as noted in each of the four studies made in Colorado:

In study no. 3, in a comparison of school absences for work on the part of all children and of Mexican children considered separately, the figures stand: 622 out of a total of 1,714 children, or 36.2 percent; 166 out of 197 Mexican children, or 84.3 percent, stayed out to work; all children lost for work an average of 18.6 days, or 14.1 percent of all the time schools had been in session; and the Mexican children lost for work an average of 37.2 days, or 64.8 percent of the time.

In the report of study no. 5 Dr. Taylor states: "It is easy to discover that in northeastern Colorado during the seasons of beet work in spring and fall, Mexican children of school age are generally in the beet fields, and not in school. * * * The fact remains that the Mexicans receive only interrupted schooling in the beet areas, or even none if they are migratory."

At this point in our discussion let us turn to two recent reports of conditions in Colorado.[25] Data based on the 1931 report of the Denver public schools are to the effect that the attendance of Spanish-speaking children in that city is relatively poor. In a comparison of attendance figures in the 5 out of 61 elementary schools in the city attended only or chiefly by Mexican and Spanish-American pupils with similar figures in 5 elementary schools in the city selected at random from the remaining 56 schools, poor relative showing in attendance made by Mexicans and Spanish-American children is evident. The average daily attendance in the first group of schools varies from 47.7 percent to 73.8 percent of the enrollment, with an average attendance for the 5 schools of 63.3 percent of the enrollment; in the

[25] Denver public schools. Educational statistics for the school year 1930–31 and financial statistics for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1931. Twenty-eighth annual report of the superintendent of schools, school district no. 1 in the city and county of Denver and State of Colorado. Denver, Colo., Denver public schools, November 1931.

Report of the Colorado White House Conference on Child Health and Protection called by Hon. William H. Adams, Governor of Colorado, Jan. 14, 15, 16, 1932.

second group the variation is from 64.1 percent to 89 percent, with an average attendance of 76.7 percent. Evidently pupils in the first group of schools are absent many more days during the school year than are pupils in the second group.

In the city of San Bernardino, Calif., with Mexican pupils numbering 1,500 out of 5,251 in the first six elementary grades, an aggressive effort has been put forth for 10 years to better conditions. Attendance constitutes one of the chief problems. The seriousness of the situation may be grasped from the following data relating to conditions in a large Mexican school in the city:

The enrollment the first weeks of the fall term and the average daily attendance of the first months are comparatively low, but increase to a marked degree as the school year progresses. In 1930-31 there were 395 children enrolled the first day of school. By the second Monday the enrollment had reached 658, by the third Monday 720. In 1930-31 the average daily attendance for the first month was 578, for the second month 715, for the third month 818, for the sixth month 940, and for the tenth month 885.

Spanish-speaking pupils in Denver attend school with commendable regularity during the time they are considered members of the school in which they are enrolled. The relatively low percentage which the average daily attendance is of enrollment is due to the fact that a number of the children leave school some weeks before the close of the spring term and enter late in the fall. During this interim they are out of the city having accompanied their migratory parents to the farms on which the adult members of the family and the children old enough for this purpose work in connection with beets and other crops.

The report of the Colorado White House Conference on Child Health and Protection is to the effect that school attendance on the part of children of contract laborers was still poor at a recent date.

> The family system of contract labor * * * is the old sweatshop system of family contract labor adapted to industrialized agriculture. * * * Under this system the sugar industry is able to escape responsibility and blame for the wholesale evasion of our

Colorado compulsory school laws and child-labor laws by claiming that the children are employed by their parents who need the help of the child to support the family.

The evidence cited above indicates that Mexican pupils are not attending school to anything like the extent to which English-speaking pupils living in the same sections attend. As to causes for their irregular attendance, let us turn to the reports of investigators. According to the report of study no. 2:

One of the reasons that many of these contract children were not in school was the lack of interest on the part of the school officials in enforcing the school laws. The teachers may have preferred to be saved the trouble of reporting the child's absence to the truant officer or school board. In other cases the teachers and officials were tireless in their efforts to keep these children in school. Such teachers and officials are to be highly commended, as they are the recipients of much criticism by those who profit by the work of these children.

In a report of a study of the situation in Imperial Valley, Calif., Dr. Taylor,[26] after commenting favorably on the efforts of school and State labor authorities to compel school attendance until the age of 16, observes that the factors in nonattendance of Mexicans at school are the Mexicans' consciousness of social ostracism, the feeling of inferiority induced by retardation, and poverty.

The complex problem of the interrelationships between school attendance of Mexican children and the social status of Mexican families is discussed in the reports of studies no. 4 and no. 5 in Colorado.

No. 4: Contract-labor children bring dismay to school authorities wherever they are—in the city or town when they leave in the spring and when they come in after harvest, and in the rural district where they live for weeks before school closes in the spring and after school opens in the fall. In the main, contract-labor families moved to the open country in April or May. The school census was taken before they arrived, as of February 2. As a rule the children were not included in the rural-district census. * * * Practically all the contract-labor children of the districts studied are "foreigners" or "Mexicans." * * * Their home life, family customs, and training are different from those of other children. They come from all kinds of schools or no schools at all. They have used different

[26] Taylor, Paul S. Mexican labor in the United States: Imperial Valley, 1928. Berkeley, Calif., University of California press.

textbooks, if any. They do not expect to remain in the neighborhood and become a part of it. * * * For many mothers it is a difficult task to get children ready to enter school, for they, too, work beets. * * * The rural school is equipped only to take care of permanent residents of the district, in size of the building, number of desks, classes, and supplies. Temporary attendance of beet children disorganizes and disturbs.

No. 5. The Mexicans themselves are largely apathetic. They do not generally appreciate schooling, and feel that the need for earning comes first. But there are numerous exceptions. * * * The school authorities are generally desirous and even eager to deal with the problem. The basic difficulty which all of them face * * * is the attitude of the growers. * * * The growers feel the need of the children's labor to get the work done. The Mexican parents feel the need of the children's earnings. The school authorities feel paralyzed by the attitude of their constituents, the weakness of the law, and the inadequacy of administrative machinery.

Conclusion.—It is apparent from the reports cited that although economic and social conditions are not the sole cause of irregular attendance among Spanish-speaking pupils, they probably contribute to a greater extent than do any other elements in the situation.

INTELLIGENCE, EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT, AND SCHOOL PROGRESS

Questions concerned with the intelligence, educational achievement, and school progress of Spanish-speaking pupils are of major interest to those responsible for their education. Summaries of or citations from selected studies of these factors which present the general situation follow.

A report of a study made in Arizona [27] states: "In general, the type of Mexican child taken into the Arizona schools tends to be backward in rate of mental development, lags a year or two behind other pupils, shows a heavy failure percentage, and an early elimination from school."

A report of a more recent local study [28] confirms the foregoing statement. Among the points made are these: (1)

[27] Arisona, State board of education. A survey of the Arisona public-school system, a study of the elementary and secondary public schools of the State. Conducted by C. Ralph Tupper. Phoenix, Aris., the State board of education, 1925.

[28] A survey made during the school year 1930–31 at the request and with the cooperation of the county superintendent of schools of Pima County by the College of Education of the University of Arizona, under the general direction of Dr. Emil L. Larson.

Among the Mexican children, who constitute 70 percent of the rural school pupils, about 38 percent are normal age for grade, 59 percent are overage, and 4 percent are underage. For the non-Mexican children (excluding Indians) 67 percent are normal age for grade, 16 percent are overage, and 17 percent are underage. Evidently overageness is much greater among the Mexican pupils than among others. (2) An analysis of the situation in the eighth grade indicates that in the non-Mexican group, out of a total of 59 pupils there were 9 pupils 12 years old. These pupils were underage for that grade. There were 43 pupils of normal age, i.e., 13 or 14. There were 7 pupils overage. In the Mexican group there were 19 pupils, all overage. (3) In the study of grade progress of Mexican and non-Mexican children, respectively, it was found that the school progress of 2 percent of the Mexican children is accelerated, of 43 percent normal, and of 55 percent retarded; the school progress of 12 percent of the non-Mexican children is accelerated, of 72 percent normal, and of 15 percent retarded. (4) The study of the relative rate of elimination of Mexican and non-Mexican pupils revealed the fact that for 100 Mexican children in grade 1 there are 7 in grade 8, while for 100 non-Mexican children in grade 1 there are 52 in grade 8.

In a report of a second study by Dr. Larson in which he investigated conditions in the Roosevelt school in Maricopa County, Ariz., he states:

The amount of overageness in the first four grades indicates that 26 out of the 138 Mexicans and 34 out of 438 other white children are 3 or more years overage. The seriousness of the overageness of Mexican children may be seen from the fact that a group comprising about 24 percent of the enrollment in the first four grades includes 43⅓ percent of the number three or more years retarded. No Mexican pupils had made rapid progress, 26 percent of them had made normal progress, and 74 percent slow progress. As to the other white children 6 percent had made rapid progress, 71.4 percent normal progress, and 22.5 percent slow progress.

In a report of a survey made during the school year 1928–29 of two elementary schools in the same school dis-

trict in Los Angeles County [29] statistics on the grade progress of Mexican pupils are similar to those indicated above. The first school enrolled 513 pupils in the kindergarten and first four grades, all American; 550 in the four upper grades, 93 of whom were Mexicans. The second school offered work in the first four grades and enrolled 373 pupils—293 Mexicans and 80 Japanese. The Mexican group, forming about 30 percent of the population of the school district, contributed 39.5 percent of the enrollment in the first four grades, omitting that of the kindergarten, and 17 percent of the enrollment in grades 5 to 8. This small representation of Mexicans in the upper grades is no new phenomenon. During each of several years the great majority of the Mexican pupils, having reached the compulsory age limit of 16 before they were ready for the fifth grade, have dropped out of school on or soon after their sixteenth birthday. A further analysis of the survey data indicates that of the Mexicans in the four upper grades on March 1, 1930, 22 percent were in the fifth, 29 percent in the sixth, 17 percent in the seventh, and 7 percent in the eighth grade. Moreover, from June 1926 to June 1932, 516 pupils finished the elementary grades. Of this number 38, or 7.7 percent, were Mexicans.

In the city school system of Los Angeles a study has just been completed of differences in the response of Mexican and native white children of the same mental age on the Binet intelligence test. The Mexicans fell down in the vocabulary and rhymes tests but surpassed in such tests as the ball and field, arranging weights, and drawing designs from memory.

From among studies reported by the research division of the city school system a summary of a recent one [30] devoted to a comparison of test results with a group of Mexican children with those obtained from a control group of American white children is of interest. The Mexican group numbered 1,240 and the control group 1,074. Table 3 presents an analysis of the intelligence quotients of the Mexican children.

[29] Wright, Frank M. Survey of the El Monte school district. Master's thesis, School of education, University of Southern California, 1930.

[30] McAnulty, Ellen Alice, statistician. Achievement and intelligence test results for Mexican children attending Los Angeles city schools. Los Angeles educational research bulletin, March 1932.

TABLE 8.—*Percentage distributions of intelligence quotients of a group of Mexican children (by grades)*

I.Q.	Grades						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	1-6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Less than 70	2.6	2.2	0.9	0.5	5.1	1.7	2.2
70-79	15.1	15.6	17.0	15.1	20.0	7.8	15.5
80-89	29.1	22.6	32.3	28.1	29.7	26.7	30.2
90-99	21.9	25.4	20.1	25.7	28.9	30.2	27.5
100-109	22.6	20.3	13.5	11.9	10.9	18.1	16.8
110-119	7.2	3.3	5.6	7.0	4.6	9.5	5.9
120-129	1.5	.7	1.3	1.1	2.9	5.2	1.8
130 and more				.5		.9	.2
Total number of children	265	276	223	185	175	116	1,240
Mean I.Q.	92.1	90.5	90.3	91.6	88.8	96.0	91.2

The table should be read: 2.6 percent of the first-grade pupils have an I.Q. of less than 70; 15.1 percent, an I.Q. of from 70 to 79, and so on. As the table indicates in its lower extension, the mean intelligence quotient of the Mexican children is 91.2. Miss McAnulty names language handicap and selection as two factors contributing to the comparatively low intelligence quotients of the Mexican pupils.

Although the report does not include a comparable table for the control group, it includes this statement: "The average intelligence quotient of the control group was 105, which may be several points above that of American white children throughout the city. It should be added, however, that several samplings were made and in each of them the average intelligence quotient of American white children was 105."

Figures given in Miss McAnulty's report show that Mexican pupils are older chronologically than the pupils in the control group. This overageness approximates a year in grades 2 to 5, but is reduced to 8 months in grade 6.

The report closes with a tabular summary of a comparison of the achievement of American white children and of Mexican children in reading comprehension, reading vocabulary, and arithmetic fundamentals. This summary indicates that the average achievement of Mexican children, grade for grade, is somewhat below the average achievement of white American children in read-

ing comprehension. A similar statement may be made as to the average achievement in reading vocabulary in regard to all grades except the third. In this grade the average achievement of Mexican pupils is higher. The maximum difference in both reading comprehension and reading vocabulary obtains in the fifth grade. In arithmetic fundamentals the average achievement of the Mexican pupils is higher grade for grade in three of the four grades included, and lower in the fifth grade. Other findings show that in both reading vocabulary and reading comprehension the average achievement of the children in the Mexican group is in accordance with the intelligence test results and that in arithmetic fundamentals the average achievement of the group is above expectations.

A report of a study made in San Bernardino County, Calif.,[21] states:

> In 1927, of the total county school enrollment of 11,219 white children, there were 3,735, or 33.28 percent, overaged pupils; of 4,802 foreign-language-speaking children, of whom practically all were Mexicans, there were 3,850, or 78.5 percent, who were overage. * * * The data were analyzed further to determine the overageness by grades of American and foreign-language-speaking pupils. Out of 3,735 overaged American pupils, 1,890, or 50.6 percent, were in grades above the fourth; 323, or 8.4 percent, in the first grade; 1,268, or 33.9 percent, in the first three grades. Out of 3,850 overaged pupils of foreign stock, practically all Mexican, 834, or 21.6 percent, were in grades above the fourth; 1,348, or 35 percent, in the first grade; 2,496, or 64.9 percent, in the first three grades. * * * Mexican pupils make 42.4 percent as good progress through the schools as do the American children.

The studies made in Colorado[22] include pertinent information. The report of study no. 1 as to the grade progress of 301 Spanish-American and Mexican children as compared with that of 859 children not belonging to the Spanish-speaking group may be thus summarized: No accelerated children were found among the Spanish-American and Mexican group, whereas 42 children, or 4.9 percent, of the whole number among the non-Spanish-speaking group are accelerated; 71, or 23.6 percent, of the Spanish-speaking chil-

[21] Hill, Merton E. The development of an Americanization program. Ontario, Calif., the board of trustees of the Chaffee union high school and the Chaffee junior college, 1928.

[22] See pp. 31–32.

dren and 506, or 58.9 percent, of the non-Spanish-speaking children are at age; and 230, or 76.4 percent, of the Spanish-speaking children and 311, or 36.2 percent, of the non-Spanish-speaking group are retarded. The percent of retardation is very high among the Spanish-speaking children; even more serious is the fact that the percentage of children in this group retarded 2 or more years is higher than the percentage retarded 1 year. Sixty and one tenth percent of the group is retarded 2 or more years and 16.3 percent, 1 year. In the non-Spanish-speaking group, similar percentages are considerably lower; 17.8 percent are retarded 2 or more years and 18.4 percent, 1 year.

Study no. 2 states: "Retardation is especially serious among children of the contract group—the retardation of the Spanish beet workers is 84.8 percent, as compared to 56.5 percent retardation among the Russian-German beet workers and 35 percent among all other beet workers."

Study no. 3 reports certain facts as to age and grade distribution of all children and of Mexican children considered separately. No Mexican children are accelerated, about one fourth are at age, and almost three fourths are retarded. A much better showing is made by all the children; 4.5 percent are accelerated, more than three fifths are at age, and only one third are retarded.

Study no. 4 reports that among 519 Spanish-speaking children 1.1 percent were accelerated, 19.9 percent at age, 79 percent retarded. The retarded children numbered 410; of this number 27.3 percent were retarded 1 year and 72.7 percent were retarded 2 or more years.

A report of two studies of conditions found in the San Jose Training School when it was taken over by the University of New Mexico was published as a bulletin of the University of New Mexico in 1931.[33] It included:

(1) An age-grade study and (2) results of group testing. The first study was undertaken in order to provide age-grade data from a group thought to be typical Spanish-speaking pupils in New Mexico. The San Jose Training School and its two control schools with a total enroll-

[33] University of New Mexico Bulletin, San Jose Training School, Training School Series No. 2.

ment of 1,009 pupils provided the data for the study. Inadequate records in the schools made impossible an age progress study, so that the report does not include any statement as to the extent to which overageness found is due to failure to be promoted. Of the 524 pupils in the training school at the time, it was found that 1.5 percent were under age for their grade, 34.9 percent of normal age for their grade, and 63.6 percent were over age.

The testing program reported included a survey of the school by means of a group test of general achievement, of reading ability, and of intelligence. In no case, according to the report of the intelligence test scores, did 25 percent of the pupils in a grade attain a mental age equal to the grade norm. As in previous similar surveys among foreign-speaking children, this study found that the lower grades are in general nearer to their norms than are the higher grades.

As concerns the relationship of school achievement to native ability, the following comments from the report are significant:

> In general, except in the Gates Reading Tests for the upper grades, the scores on tests of abilities acquired in school were equal to or above the scores on the intelligence tests. This meant that if the intelligence tests measured to a greater degree the innate capacities of these children than their school achievement, the average pupil at San Jose was accomplishing as much as the average school child of the same mental ability in other parts of the country.

Mr. George I. Sanchez reports a testing program undertaken in New Mexico to determine the intelligence and achievement of Spanish-speaking pupils.[84] In December 1928 and in April 1929, and again in November 1929 and April 1930, Mr. Sanchez tested 45 Spanish-speaking children of grades 3 to 8 of the public schools of Bernalillo County, N.Mex., using the Stanford Achievement test, Forms A, B, V, and VI (given on dates in order named) and the Haggerty Intelligence Test (Delta 1 and Delta 2).

Mr. Sanchez is of the opinion that the scores made by Spanish-speaking pupils in these tests point to the fact that language and environment are factors in their intelligence quotients. He found that as a general rule the mean quo-

[84] Sanchez, George I. Scores of Spanish-speaking children on repeated tests. Pedagogical Seminary and Journal of Genetic Psychology, 40: 223–231, March 1932.

tients in the various abilities tested were increasingly greater at successive applications of the tests; the upper grades showed higher quotients on the first testing but made smaller gains on the retests than did the lower grades; and the increases in mental ability were the largest, with the increases in reading ability next in order.

Conclusions based on these findings include the following: (1) It is probable that some test beyond the first, given much later, will yield a truer measure for these children than can be obtained from the first test; (2) these children are more susceptible to the influence of school experiences during their early years of contact with them than they are after several years of school attendance; and (3) the close relationship found to exist between reading ability and mental ability indicates that an increasing facility in the use of the English language tends to raise pupils' scores.

The progress of Mexican pupils in the public-school system of San Antonio is indicated below. In the elementary grades of San Antonio, first to fifth, inclusive, more than 50 percent of the pupils are Mexican. The city maintains no kindergartens. Mexican pupils generally complete the fifth grade. As 50 percent of the Mexican pupils drop out of school at the end of the fifth grade, of the total entering 7 of the 8 junior high schools for white pupils only 25 percent are Mexican.

A report on the school progress of Mexican pupils in El Paso, Tex.,[28] is thus itemized:

(1) In the spring of 1931 in El Paso, 29 Mexican and 182 American pupils received high-school diplomas.

(2) In the fall of 1923, 1,275 Mexican and 375 American children entered the low first grade in El Paso. In the fall of 1930, 7 years later, 174 Mexican and 506 American pupils entered an El Paso high school.

(3) The increase in population due to immigration of both Americans and Mexicans during the 7-year period 1923–30 was approximately 85 percent. If we assume that it was 85 percent for each of these two elements in the population, approximately 100 percent of the American children and 10 percent of the Mexican children entering the

[28] Stigler, W. A. The Lost Legion. El Paso Schools Standard, 11: 3–5, September 1931.

first grade in 1923 entered high school in 1930. This assumption is supported by the following: In the fall of 1930, 1,700 Mexicans, or 135 percent of 1,275, the corresponding number in 1923, and 500 American children, or 135 percent of 375, the number in 1923, entered the first grade.

(4) Of the American pupils entering the high schools 36 percent, and of the Mexican pupils 16 percent, remain until they receive diplomas. As only 10 percent of the Mexican pupils entering the first grade reach the high school, and only 16 percent of these are graduated, it is evident that less than 2 percent of Mexican children entering the public schools remain to graduate from high school.

(5) Between the fourth and fifth grades and between the fifth and sixth, respectively, there is a drop of 15 percent in number of Mexican pupils attending school. More than 20 percent of those finishing the low sixth grade do not enter the high sixth grade.

Results of testing programs administered to Spanish-speaking pupils have impressed a certain number of school administrators as so unreliable that they have lost faith in the use of tests for the members of this group.

The following citation shows the attitude of one investigator:

> No attempt was made to give tests to the pupils in the Lexington School, who are all foreign, as it has been quite conclusively shown on various occasions that valid results cannot be obtained with the ordinary tests. A specially designed test must be used for testing the intelligence of non-English-speaking children and, as no such test was available, it was deemed unwise to attempt to use the standardized tests, prepared and standardized for American children.

Conclusion.—The data relating to intelligence, educational achievement, and school progress included in this section should be interpreted in the light of the information included on economic and social status and school attendance in the preceding sections. Formerly persons writing on the subject showed considerable agreement in assigning a relatively low place to Spanish-speaking pupils along intelligence, achievement, and school progress lines. This is not true at the present time. The trend of thought, as expressed by research students and school people generally, is in favor of postponing judgment as to the relative status of members of this group until much more informa-

tion is available, based on far greater equalization of economic, social, and educational opportunities than at present obtains.

WAYS OF MEETING THESE CONDITIONS

Various ways of meeting conditions of the type discussed above have been devised. Some are in successful operation. Others adopted with enthusiasm have failed to work out satisfactorily. Still others have been recommended by persons well acquainted with local situations but have not to date been put into operation, due to circumstances beyond the control of the school or welfare workers making the recommendations. The presentation below first summarizes information on the State-wide provision in California designed to cope with the ill effects of transiency. Following this account it briefly reviews plans which make use of or advocate such means as special schools, special curricula, extracurriculum activities, home and school cooperation, and enactment of needed legislation.

Public-school administrators, supervisors, and teachers, in the Southwestern States have given much thought to ways of meeting a situation confronting many of them. This situation may be summed up thus: Many Spanish-speaking families are migrants. These families in many cases do not send their children to school. In spite of the interest generally prevalent among the school personnel in the States of our group, so far as information is available, little progress in devising ways of improving the situation along this line has been made to date except in California. In this State progress has been made due to the fact that the State has enacted and made a systematic effort to enforce compulsory education laws making obligatory the provision of educational facilities for all children living in the State, whether as permanent or as transient residents,[36] and full-time attendance on the part of all pupils enrolled in schools.

[36] In considering the education offered children of migratory workers the designation "migratory children" (or pupils) is used in this publication. Because the parents must migrate in order to earn a living the children are also migratory. The term "migratory children" in California up to the beginning of the current school year has referred solely to Mexican children. During the present year a large influx of non-Mexican migrants from Oklahoma, Texas, Mississippi, and other States has made it necessary to extend the connotation of the term. In this publication it refers to Mexican children.

There are three ways of handling the education of migratory children in California all of which may be in use in one county at the same time.

1. Where the local school districts have sufficient funds and adequate facilities such as buildings, playgrounds, and equipment, they are encouraged to take care of their own problem and meet the additional expense involved themselves. These districts receive from the State and county the usual apportionment of money on the twofold bases of (1) per teacher unit and (2) of per pupil in average daily attendance.

2. The county superintendent of schools, with the aid of the State department of education, may establish special schools or classes for the migratory children. Such classes are established on the basis of $75 per month from the State and $75 per month from the unapportioned county fund per teacher. Buildings, equipment, etc., may be provided by the local school district or by the county superintendent.

3. The county superintendent of schools may, out of his emergency fund, without expense to the local school district, provide for an extra teacher or teachers, to take care of the migratory children. However, in cases of this kind, the average daily attendance of the migratory children is credited to the local school district in the distribution of the State apportionment.

In the State as a whole 20 of the 58 counties have heavy responsibilities relating to the education of migratory pupils.[87] In addition, in at least 22 other counties, there are a certain number of migratory child workers for whom education must be provided. In three of these counties (San Bernardino, Orange, and Los Angeles) the problem of the education of migratory children is of short duration, lasting at the most not more than 6 weeks, the time necessary for the harvesting of walnuts. Sixteen of the counties with heavy responsibilities along this line during the school year 1931–32 drew money from the migratory school fund. Some of the other counties have drawn from this fund in the

[87] Mangold, George B., *and* Hill, Lillian B. Migratory child workers. San Francisco, Calif. Twenty-fifth annual conference of the national child labor committee, 1929.

past and, no doubt, will draw again in the future. In some counties the schools are in use throughout the entire school year, due to the great diversity of seasonal crops. The pupil population may be the same or it may have many changes in its personnel, depending upon the relative permanency or transiency of the adult workers.

It is the policy of the California State Department of Education to encourage local school districts everywhere to assume responsibility for the education of migratory pupils, provided they are able to give them a fair deal. Generally speaking, local boards act in good faith. Not all do, however. Occasionally they are so eager to increase the average daily attendance and thereby receive additional State and county money (which the districts continue to draw after the short-term schools for migratory children are over) that they are guilty of deplorable neglect of duty. For example, in certain instances, in order to receive this financial aid, districts have undertaken to educate migratory children without employing the additional teachers necessary. Cases have occurred in which they have crowded 125 or more migratory pupils into one schoolroom. In other cases the schools for migratory pupils are open from 7 a.m. to 12 noon. In the afternoon the children may be found working in the fields with their parents. This policy is contrary to the State program of education for migratory children, which recommends that in these schools a school day shall begin and end at the same hour as elsewhere in the district.[28]

Since these schools in certain sections are maintained for only a brief period each year to accommodate the large influx of migrants who may remain for a few weeks only, the teachers employed are chiefly married women not otherwise employed outside of their homes but with prior teaching experience. Where the schools are maintained for extended periods the general custom is to employ regular teachers holding State credentials.

Migratory child workers and their employers each obtain permits made out in duplicate and a copy sent to the State

[28] A member of the California State Department of Education writes "That such conditions exist we know, but so far we have not devised a way to prevent these abuses."

department of education. Factors in the securing of better attendance have been the imposition of fines or suspended sentences; the use of a series of pre-primers adapted to the ability of Mexican school entrants; and the employment of supervisors of attendance meeting high educational and social welfare standards. These supervisors, with the cooperation of parent-teacher associations and the Daughters of the American Revolution, have supplied clothing and food to migrant children, thus enabling many of them who could not otherwise do so to remain in school.

The report of the Roosevelt school survey in Arizona [39] closes by calling attention to certain factors in the situation which need more attention than has to date been given them: (1) The great amounts of overageness and slow progress among the Mexican population suggest the responsibility of the school community to adapt both curriculum and methods to the especial needs of this particular group. (2) Age-grade studies should be continued and use made of the results. It would be well to make age-grade studies of these four groups: Transient non-Mexican pupils; non-transient non-Mexican pupils; transient Mexican pupils; non-transient Mexican pupils. Only by making these distinctive studies can the work of this school be definitely evaluated. These studies should serve as a basis for the better adjustment of each pupil in school. (3) Definite efforts should be made to reduce the deleterious effects of transiency. Cooperation with other administrators in the line of exchange of records and notification of prospective students should be practiced. New entrants should enroll in school immediately on moving into the district.

The city of Los Angeles has a well-organized psychology and educational research division in connection with which a number of counselors (33 in 1929) are employed to assist in carrying on activities designed to give every child in the system as equable an educational opportunity as possible. The counselors administer mental tests, classify schools, report educational misfits for special rooms and classes, and aid in the placement and follow-up of such cases.

The various types of special rooms provided facilitate the placing of Mexican pupils in an environment especially

[39] See page 89.

adapted to their needs. A few Mexican children have had sufficient mental ability to be placed in opportunity A rooms, in which classes for superior children, usually above 125 I.Q., are taught. Many others are cared for in adjustment and opportunity B rooms, where remedial education is carried on. A number of Mexican children are in development rooms which handle children who are for the most part below 65 I.Q. In the words of a member of the research division staff, "The proportion of Mexican pupils in development rooms is probably somewhat higher than is their relative number in the general [pupil] population."

In the regular schools an attempt is made to recognize the peculiar needs of Mexican children and to keep activities in familiar territory. In classes made up of young Mexicans, activities used may be based on such topics as life on a Mexican ranch, preparation of Mexican food, historical events in California under Mexico, etc.

The Los Nietos School, a 12-teacher rural school in Los Angeles County, with an enrollment of 270 pupils, 87 percent of whom are Mexican, has had considerable success in coping with adverse conditions of a type generally surrounding pupils of this group. The principal, with 20 years' experience in the school, states:

> We find our greatest difficulty in developing responsibility and leadership among Mexican children. We have tried to overcome this by stressing athletics and appointing squad leaders with responsibilities for the conduct of members of the squad. * * * We find Mexican children love music. We foster this by teaching them good music, giving them a great deal of appreciation through use of the Victrola.

The services of the school along health and community lines are significant. Shower baths are available and used. Many Mexican children are found to be undernourished and with a tendency to chest diseases. Milk is provided free for all in this group, also 30- to 45-minute daily rest periods on cots in a bungalow which is a part of the school plant.

The home economics department in addition to its regular work functions as an extra curricular agency. The girls in the home economics classes under the lead of their instructor assume the main burden of the work necessitated by the running of the school cafeteria. A soup kitchen made

possible through help received from the P.T.A. provides free food for the poor children. Pupils served by the soup kitchen are called on to assist in various housekeeping tasks in connection with its upkeep and management. The older boys are responsible for the school gardens from which vegetables used in the cafeteria and soup kitchen are obtained.

Principal and teachers know home conditions and parents through personal visitation and through teaching the fathers of their pupils in adult Americanization classes. To quote the principal again:

> We have noticed a great improvement in living conditions in the home; a carry-over from the night school and from the older pupils. * * * We have tried to make parents feel that we are their friends and have made the school a clearing house for their troubles, of which they seem to have many, especially during the present economic situation.

Mr. Frank M. Wright,[40] a district superintendent in charge of two elementary schools, the Columbia and the Lexington, in the El Monte school district in Los Angeles County, changed his promotional policy in September 1928 to better meet the needs of the Mexican pupils. Prior to this date the Columbia, an 8-grade school, enrolled no Mexicans below the sixth grade. Mexican pupils in the first five grades of the city school system were obliged to attend the Lexington, a school which enrolled no American pupils. The new promotional policy provided for the admission of pupils to the Columbia School as soon as they reached the fifth grade. The plan has worked well. To quote Mr. Wright, "It has been found by experience that pupils coming from the Lexington School have a much better spirit and attitude if they are placed with the white children in the fifth grade, rather than in the sixth grade." Under the policy in use formerly they seemed to have an attitude of suspicion that they were kept separate from the white children for some other reason than the lack of understanding of English. Now that they are taken into the Columbia School in the fifth grade, this type of reaction seems to be lacking almost entirely, and much better habits and attitudes are developed.

[40] Op. cit.

It should be noted, however, that not all Mexican pupils enrolled in the higher grades at the present time have been promoted because of satisfactory completion of the lower grade work. Recently a number of overage Mexican pupils, some 13 years of age and older, have been taken out of the second and third grades in the Lexington School and promoted to the seventh in the Columbia.

The two procedures indicated above represent the best ways to meet existing conditions available under the circumstances. However, in the superintendent's opinion he has not succeeded in the establishment of the right standard for the promotion of the foreign-language-speaking children. The overage situation in the Lexington School, with a spread in practically every grade with the exception of the first of approximately 6 years, distresses him. He would like to go much further than finances at present permit in providing special curricula and a promotional policy which will better meet the needs of pupils from non-English-speaking homes.

All children, regardless of grade, who are 13 years of age and over, should be placed together, and a specially prepared curriculum provided. This should include woodwork, domestic science, and other subjects properly arranged to help these children take their place in society. In this way the more serious problem of overageness in the Lexington School would be cared for. A careful check shows, with very few exceptions, these extremely overage pupils present the major problems in each class in which they are now placed.

In 1926, school officials in San Bernardino, Calif., erected a new school building, the Ramona, in the midst of a large Mexican colony. The building was designed to facilitate the emphasis officials planned to place on vocational education. It was thought that this type of education would lead to habits of thrift and industry, and to the ability to make necessary contacts with the industrial world. Since Mexican children remained in school for only a few years, this work had to be offered early in their school life, in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. From the beginning these grades were organized under the platoon plan, but with boys and girls enrolled in separate platoon groups. This organi-

zation, which was discontinued at the end of the school year 1931–32, has been frankly considered an educational experiment. It seemed reasonable at the time of its initiation that many pupils becoming retarded in academic subjects might through the vocational opportunities open to them become interested in remaining in school in order to learn to make furniture or to cook and sew. At the same time these intermediate-grade pupils could receive instruction in reading, language, and the other subjects of the elementary curriculum commonly taught. At the end of 6 years' trial the authorities have concluded that with the Mexican children it is better so to organize a school that one teacher is in charge of a group throughout the day. In spite of the best efforts of all, many children reach the intermediate grades in the Ramona School without enough ability in reading and the use of the English language to reach even minimum standards in the content subjects. As the time devoted to these subjects was necessarily cut down on account of the emphasis on hand work, the pupils have not been in the least ambitious to enter junior high school, nor have they done so. Moreover, it has been found necessary to devote an undue proportion of the school budget to the teaching of the vocational subjects. The balance left after making provision for this teaching was too small to provide an adequate number of teachers or sufficient equipment for the regular grade work. Another difficulty experienced related to that of finding teachers equipped to offer vocational work to younger children. Teachers employed for these special lines were prepared to carry on the work with junior and senior high school pupils, but they proved unable to adapt the subjects taught to the needs of pupils in the lower grades. Finally, the supervisory staff became convinced that such adaptation was too much to expect of the teachers. Pupils of so low an educational age and of so mediocre an educational achievement as these Mexican pupils, even if they had reached an appropriate chronological age, were not ready to respond to the work offered. It represented an attempt to force the mentally immature into activities for the successful performance of which they were not ready. Accordingly, the attempt is to be abandoned.

The new plan which goes into effect at the beginning of the school year 1932–33 appears promising: Pupils completing the fifth-grade work in June 1932 will, on entering school in the fall be sent to one of the three junior high schools in the city. As these schools do not stress vocational work but include enough of it in the curriculum so that at certain hours of the day pupils interested in taking it are allowed to do so, it is thought that any Mexican pupils especially interested in continuing the vocational work will be satisfied with the arrangements and that it will be possible to offer better instruction along academic lines to all of them. At the same time, their mingling with other white pupils ambitious to continue their schooling will have a tendency to stimulate Mexican pupils educationally. If this plan continues in operation over a period of years it will, it is hoped, have a beneficial effect upon fourth and fifth grade pupils and teachers in the Ramona School; it should stimulate pupils to attain more proficiency in the academic subjects than has been customary in the past, and should challenge the teachers to diagnose pupils' difficulties and meet them effectively.

In Mr. Hill's report of his study of the Chaffee Union High School district in San Bernardino County, Calif.,[41] he states:

> The information obtained in the course of this study showing where Mexican pupils are weakest and where strongest should help in developing a course of study suited to their needs. * * * Mexican pupils can be expected to do work of an academic type only 58 percent as well as American pupils can; in loyalty, conduct, and honesty, Mexican pupils rank higher than in dependability, initiative, and energy, although in none of these qualities do they rank as high as American pupils. * * * Problems related to the education of Mexican pupils can be solved through scientific study, through dual programs, and through adapting procedure to meet the needs that arise.

In the Denver city school system ways of meeting the conditions affecting the education of Spanish-speaking pupils[42] are of three types:

(1) Additional schoolrooms in several school buildings are opened to take care of the numerous Spanish-speaking

[41] Op. cit. [42] Op. cit.

pupils entering school late in the fall upon their return from the beet fields. Teachers for these rooms are selected from the staff of more than 100 permanent supply teachers regularly employed by the city.

(2) In its establishment of special classes the city makes use of a plan somewhat similar to that indicated as in use in Los Angeles. Out of a total daily membership of 1,951 in 5 schools attended almost wholly or chiefly by Spanish-speaking pupils, 199, or 10.2 percent, are in special classes; for the city as a whole only 2 percent of the total elementary school membership is in special classes. As special classes in school systems generally are maintained for the purpose of providing appropriate curriculum offerings for pupils in need of them, it is evident that a relatively greater number of Spanish-speaking pupils are in need of this provision than of pupils in the city as a whole. This fact suggests the query, What about the large number of school systems in which many Spanish-speaking pupils are enrolled and no provision is made along this line?

(3) A recent report [48] of the census and attendance department indicates that no effort is spared to attain a school attendance record as nearly perfect as possible on the part of each child of compulsory school age in the school district.

The department includes a director and 10 field workers prepared along both teaching and social service lines. The present staff has two members able to talk Spanish. The department is authorized to enforce the provisions of the school census law, the compulsory school attendance law, and the child labor law. Its thorough child accounting system, organized home visitation, the cooperation received from various social agencies, and enforcement of the child labor law are factors in the situation leading one to expect that here, if ever, an attendance department should be able to secure excellent results. Encouraging results are in general attained, but on account of economic and other factors entering into the situation which the city cannot control, these results are not so apparent in the case of the great majority of Spanish-speaking pupils. The annual migra-

[48] Organization and work of the department of census and attendance, 1920. Denver public schools, Monograph No. 8, Denver, Colo.

tion of their parents operates against their enjoying the educational opportunity the city attempts to insure for them.

The report of the Colorado White House Conference [44] closes with four recommendations designed especially to benefit Mexican and Spanish speaking children:

1. Make an honest effort to enforce such compulsory school attendance and child labor laws as we now have.
2. Provide for the appointment of county truant or probation officers to work under the direction of the county superintendent of schools and the State bureau of child and animal protection.
3. Stop the issuance of child labor permits by local or county officials, and put this authority in the hands of one of the existing State departments.
4. Abolish the family system of contract labor, by legislative enactment if possible; if not, then it should be outlawed by the decent public opinion in Colorado and other States.

The city of San Antonio has long been in a leading position in the education of Mexican pupils. The school people a few years ago took definite steps to increase, if possible, the enrollment of Mexican pupils in the junior high schools. The city had established six of these schools but none was in or adjacent to a Mexican district. It was decided to locate the seventh junior high school in such a district. The event has proved the merit of the plan. Mexican pupils attend the school in large numbers. The enrollment is naturally nearly 100 percent Mexican. The school has two departments. The upper functions as a senior high school. In April 1932 the junior department of this school enrolled 698 Mexican pupils, constituting 10.2 percent of the total and 40.8 percent of the Mexican junior high school enrollment of the city, and the senior department, 156 Mexican pupils, constituting 3.3 percent of the total and 36.7 percent of the Mexican senior high school enrollment.

From Houston, Tex., comes a report of a plan designed to help bring Mexican children up to standard achievement. Under this plan eight schools providing for the study of specific problems on the results of which reorganization of the curriculum may be based were organized in Houston in 1930. These are known as curriculum schools. One of them is a language adjustment school established to

[44] Op. cit.

study certain problems involved in the education of foreign-language-speaking (chiefly Spanish-speaking) pupils. The plan, as expressed in a recent publication issued by the board of education,[48] is two fold: to attempt to prevent the mental retardation probably caused by the removal of the tool of thought (native language); to study continuously with a control group ways of individual teaching that will preserve the individual's power of expression without making him a detriment to society. The organization of this school has been such a recent occurrence that no report as to progress is available. However, its potentialities for good in relation to the education of Mexican pupils are so apparent that its establishment constitutes a decided step in educational progress.

Certain specific information follows as to means used to assist the Bowie School in El Paso, Tex., to meet the needs of its students. In this 100 percent Mexican school, which includes the sixth and seventh grades in addition to the four high-school grades the total enrollment of 925 includes 550 high-school pupils. The principal and the 52 teachers comprising the instructional staff have met with considerable success in arousing an ambition for education among the student body. Much attention is paid to personnel problems. Principal and teachers pay particular attention to absences from school on the part of pupils, realizing that any case of absence may need careful investigation. They know the customary excuse, "Something has happened at home", may be given to cover a very unhappy condition. An attendance clerk recently sought for 3 days for an absent boy without success. On the fourth day Alphonso returned. To the teacher's inquiry, he responded, "I didn't want to come." The principal awaited the psychological moment and was able to elicit the acknowledgment, "My mother is not at work. I looked for a job 3 days, but couldn't get one, so came back."

A member of the staff, a woman partly of Spanish ancestry, able to speak Spanish and with a daughter of her own, gives 4 hours a day to helping the girls meet their personal prob-

[48] Board of education, Houston independent school district. Curriculum revision and development, Houston, Tex. (1924–30). Houston, Tex., Board of education of the Houston independent school district.

lems to advantage. The first-year students, sectioned into seven groups, meet her, a group at a time, for conference on behavior and home problems, considerations looming large among students beset by poverty and deprived of much opportunity to receive counsel from their own mothers, who with an extremely limited school background are often quite out of sympathy with their daughters' ambitions to extend their schooling. The adviser visits homes where necessary and puts forth every effort to assist the girls to remain at school and to gratify satisfactorily their longing for wholesome recreation. It is an uphill fight.

Bowie includes vocational agriculture and manual training in an attempt to prepare Mexican boys for employment, a matter of much interest to them. It became apparent a few years ago that ranchmen looking for help would give greater consideration to boys applying for jobs if they had some experience along farm lines. To meet this need a course in vocational agriculture was installed. It serves a second valuable purpose. It qualifies boys completing the work for entrance to the State Agricultural and Mechanical College, only 40 miles distant. In the past a number of graduates of this college have been employed to further agricultural progress in Mexico. Bowie boys discover in high school whether or not they have enough talent and interest along agricultural lines to make an effort to attend the agricultural college.

The agricultural students use 8 acres of ground owned by the school and an additional 26 acres privately owned. They plow and help irrigate the soil, raise and sell spinach, turnips, and other vegetables, and develop much interest in gardening.

Conclusion.—The most hopeful elements in the educational situation relating to the Spanish-speaking pupils in the Southwestern States are (1) the progress already made in devising ways of improving unsatisfactory conditions, and (2) the increasing interest on the part of school people along the following lines: Informing themselves concerning the economic and social status of the families represented and the interrelations between family status and the educational opportunities available to and taken advantage of

by the children; ascertaining and analyzing separate school attendance, intelligence, educational achievement, and school progress statistics for members of this group; and meeting adverse conditions discovered. We may assume that interest along the three lines indicated will continue and will eventuate in educational and welfare programs commensurate with the great need which exists for them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

In addition to the publications to which references have been made on the preceding pages a number of theses and other studies relating to various aspects of the education of Spanish-speaking pupils have been reported in recent years. The list of such reports selected for the brief bibliography submitted here is not intended to be inclusive. It was compiled subsequent to an examination of a large amount of material dealing with similar topics.

CLEMENTS, FORREST. Notes on the construction of mental tests for American Indians. Journal of social psychology, November 1930.

"The question of innate racial differences in general intelligence continues to perplex psychologists and anthropologists. Tests have been applied to different national and racial groups, but the evidence so accumulated is conflicting and the difficulty of controlling variables other than innate differences is so great that the question seems almost as far from an answer as ever."

FLORES, ZELLA K. JORDAN. The relation of language difficulty to intelligence and school retardation in a group of Spanish-speaking children. Master's thesis, 1926. University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Compares a group of Spanish-speaking children with a group of English-speaking children in Brighton, Colo., in order to determine the relation of language difficulty to intelligence and retardation. Finds that language difficulty tends to be a somewhat more important factor in the intelligence of young Spanish-speaking children than in the intelligence of older Spanish-speaking children, but that there are significant individual differences in degree to which language speaking difficulty is experienced among Spanish-speaking children.

GARRETSON, O. K. Study of cause of retardation among Mexican children in a small public-school system in Arizona. Journal of educational psychology, 19: 31–40, January 1928.

A report of a testing program in the elementary grades of Clemenceau, Ariz., which included 197 white children chiefly of northeastern European ancestry and 117 Mexican children. The data showed that although the Mexican child does work more nearly in accordance with his mental capacity than does the American, the median achievement of Mexican pupils was lower in all subjects except handwriting and that the language handicap of the Mexican is practically nonexistent above the third grade and not present in the first and second grades to the extent usually supposed.

GARTH, THOMAS R. A review of racial psychology. The psychological bulletin, 22: 343–364, June 1925.

A review of 73 studies relating to racial psychology including 4 devoted to Mexicans. "The reports include those of four studies made by persons who devoted attention to Mexicans. * * * These studies taken altogether seem to indicate the mental superiority of the white race."

HUGHES, LOIS SPEARS. A comparative study of the intelligence of Mexican and non-Mexican children. Master's thesis, 1928. State university of Texas, Austin.

This study attempted to determine the comparative intelligence of Mexican and non-Mexican children through the use of the Goodenough scale, Measurement of Intelligence by Drawings. Findings: "The higher scores are in favor of the Mexican group in every grade except the low first grade * * * but the fact that the Mexicans are older than are the non-Mexicans, grade for grade, must be taken into account. The higher scores may be due to a finer degree of motor ability. * * * The increase in the percentage of high scores among the Mexicans with increase in age would seem to indicate a ready response of the group to school experience."

LINTHICUM, JOHN BUREN. The classification of Spanish-American beginners in an Albuquerque public school. Master's thesis, 1929. University of Southern California, Los Angeles.

An account of the building of a composite test out of such portions of seven group and individual intelligence tests in general use as proved satisfactory in giving mental ages that correlated with first semester grades. The use of pictures well known to the children and the acceptance from them of any kind of a mark helped in the attainment of a test adequate for "a rough job of classification."

LOFTIN, JAMES OTIS. Mexican secondary education as developed in the Sidney Lanier Junior School of San Antonio, Tex. Master's thesis, 1927. Colorado State teachers college, Greeley.

An account of a "a curriculum developed for the particular purpose of prolonging the school life of Mexican pupils." * * * The curriculum described emphasizes vocational courses and a "combination language course." In the Sidney Lanier School students study English and Spanish for a total of 8 hours a week in each grade. The school authorities are persuaded that the Mexican will continue to speak and write Spanish all his life, so skill and accuracy in the use of Spanish are considered desirable.

MANUEL, HERSCHEL T. The education of Mexican- and Spanish-speaking children in Texas. Austin, Tex. The fund for research in the social sciences, the University of Texas, 1930.

Report of a State-wide investigation; summaries of pertinent information collected by others and statistical and other data are assembled and interpreted for this report. The writer made use of a number of studies of achievement and intelligence and of social and economic conditions among Mexicans; also of reports on methods of teaching Mexican pupils. He found this material in city, State, Federal, and other professional publications generally available; in 15 psychological and sociological sources of a highly technical character not generally available; and in 8 unpublished theses of university students.

MITCHELL, Q. B. Comparative achievements of white, Mexican, and colored children in elementary public schools. Master's thesis, 1926. University of Kansas, Lawrence.

Among the findings reported as a result of administering a battery of intelligence and educational tests to 100 white and 100 Mexican children in attendance upon separate schools in San Antonio, Tex., are these: The 100 white children exceeded the 100 Mexican children by 29 months in median mental age. The white children as a group were doing work more nearly commensurate with their ability. White children were 12 months above the grade norm, Mexican children 4 months below.

PARR, EUNICE ELVIRA. A comparative study of Mexican and American children in the schools of San Antonio, Tex. Master's thesis, September 1926. University of Chicago, School of education. 70 p.

Reports a comparative study of Mexican and American children with respect to chronological, mental, and educational ages; the achievement in certain school subjects; progress in the first grade; home environment; and other conditioning factors. Mexican children average 2 years older than American children in chronological age, but American children average 4.2 months older in mental age and 4 months older in educational age. American children average 7 months higher than Mexican children in reading ability, and 2.8 years higher in spelling and arithmetic. Mexican children show a much higher percentage of retardation in the first grade. "The study indicates that American and Mexican children should be in separate schools for the good of both and should be taught by different methods, the direct method being preferable for non-English-speaking children."

REAM, GLEN O. A study of Spanish-speaking pupils in Albuquerque high school. Master's thesis, 1930. Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

An investigation by the principal of the Albuquerque (N.Mex.) high school of the records of all students in all classes for a period of several years with reference to acquiring information on scholastic records, enrollment, and graduation data of the two elements, Spanish and non-Spanish, in the student body. Findings: The Spanish group were found to stand but little below their classmates in percentage of number passed. The comparative enrollment of Spanish students increased from 12½ percent of the total enrollment in 1920–21 to 21 percent in 1928–29. * * * In 1920, 3.6 percent of the graduates were Spanish; in 1930 19.3 percent were Spanish.

REED, MARY DEETE. A study of the effect of a balanced reading program on third-grade Mexican children. Master's thesis, 1929, University of Iowa, Iowa City.

The program described, carried on with two groups of Mexican children in Los Angeles, included much attention to types of reading material used and to the selection of appropriate reading technic. The most important conclusion: "Average third-grade Mexican children, when taught reading by teachers who use scientific methods and materials which are within the range, interests, and experiences of the children, may be stimulated to make normal progress."

SININGER, HARLAN. New Mexico's reading survey. Master's thesis, 1930. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque.

An account of a State survey of reading instruction in the elementary schools of New Mexico, grades 3 to 8, inclusive. Of the 9,899 pupils participating in the survey, 3,336, or 34 percent, were Spanish speaking. In most of the grades the English-speaking pupils were practically up to the normal in comprehension but considerably below the normal in rate. The Spanish-speaking pupils were considerably below the standard in both comprehension and rate.

TAYLOR, M. C. Retardation of Mexican children in Albuquerque schools. Master's thesis, 1927. Leland Stanford, Jr., University, Palo Alto, Calif.

According to testimony of teachers in the Albuquerque schools, "lack of speaking knowledge of English on entering school" is the most important factor causing retardation of Mexican children, and "failure to read English with comprehension" ranks second as a factor in retardation.

WITTY, PAUL A, *and* LEHMAN, HARVEY C. Racial differences: The dogma of superiority. The journal of social psychology, 1: 394–418, August 1930. (From the psychological laboratories of the University of Kansas and Ohio University.)

The investigators sum up the matter thus: "For the present it may be said, therefore, that (*a*) individual differences among the members of a given race are always much larger than the so-called 'race differences', and that, therefore, (*b*) any sweeping statement of the intellectual status of the so-called inferior races would be premature. Until qualitatively and quantitatively different types of data are assembled these two propositions will stand. In all probability they will stand for some time to come."

○