# THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT ON CAMPUS: POPULAR PROTEST, RADICALISM, AND ACTIVISM, 1968-1980

By

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# A DISSERTATION

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### ABSTRACT

# THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT ON CAMPUS: POPULAR PROTEST, RADICALISM, AND ACTIVISM, 1968-1980

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Chicanalo Studies Movement on Campus focuses on four particular groups protagonists at the University of California at Berkeley (UCB), the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), the University of Washington, (UW) and California State University at Northridge (CSUN) and how they formulated organizational and political frameworks for each of their struggles. Chicana/o students, faculty, and community members participated in planning and protesting to compel the university administrations to recognize the Chicana/o Studies academic presence, programs and departments. Fundamentally, these movements attempted to convert Anglo-American universities into multicultural learning institutions.

I examine how Chicana/o activists and radicals created and engaged political coalitions at UCB, UCLA, UW and CSUN. I demonstrate how Chicanas/os formulated social and educational movements to implement Chicana/o Studies programs and departments. In this intellectual history, I adopt social movement theory and contextualize the political encounters involving Chicana/o radicals and activists with university administrations. Finally, I offer a critical and historical investigation on how the power behind the culture of the empire responded to and fought to undermine these social movements. Copyright by JOSEPH G. MORENO 2015 I dedicate this dissertation to my wife Julia Cardenas, my parents, Louie and Gloria Moreno, and my brother Dr. Luis H. Moreno III.

Also, I dedicate it to the late Ernesto Bustillos, the Tucson K-12 Ethnic Studies Teachers Political and Legal Struggle, and to all the working-class peoples that have been denied a relevant education.

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I remember at the end of the first grade, my parents informed me that for the second grade I would be attending special education classes at a different school. For the next two years, I faced discrimination from various students and I was labeled a special education kid. However, after many years of reflecting about my personal experiences during this period, I realized that my parents made the right decision. The outcome of this experience guided the ideological and academic direction of this dissertation and taught me the concepts of struggle, passion, and hard work. In addition, my political and grassroots organizational experience and activism were a major factor in the quest of attaining a doctoral degree from a major Tier 1 research university.

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### INTRODUCTION

The year 1968 was the critical year of the modern political era. Many historians and scholars argue that events in 1968 changed the direction of the nation and the world.<sup>1</sup> Social movements emerged to challenge the United States (U.S.) educational institutions, and made possible the foundation of the Chicana/o Studies Movement.<sup>2</sup> On March 5, 1968, a massive Chicana/o student movement conducted a walkout of five East Los Angeles high schools to protest the educational inequalities and the lack of ethnic studies curriculum and courses.<sup>3</sup> This gathering inspired nationwide student walkouts. A few month later, two critical social movements emerged at first the San Francisco State College (SFSC), and then at the University of California at Berkeley, to struggle for a Third World College and Ethnic Studies academic departments.<sup>4</sup>

The topic of my dissertation examines the new energy of activism and radicalism that marked an exceptional chapter in the Chicana/o Power Movement, which academic literature has not adequately recognized. Jorge Mariscal is among a handful of Chicana/o Studies scholars who linked internationalist and third world ideological frameworks to this movement.<sup>5</sup> According to Mariscal, "the term internationalism precisely because of its associations with a socialist project that during the Viet Nam war period posited an alternative and often-utopian model for society that transcended national boundaries and imagined a diverse working- class community."<sup>6</sup> His argument supports the notion that the Chicana/o Power and Studies Movements incorporated an internationalist and Third World vision.

In this dissertation I hope to contribute to the scholarship on the foundation of the Chicana/o Power Movement, along with other works that have presented new

perspectives and narratives. This will include *The Chicano Movement: Perspectives from the Twenty-First Century* (2014) edited by Mario Garcia, which offers comparative accounts of the movement.<sup>7</sup> I continue along this path in linking national, regional, and local historical narratives. I will examine the unfolding of the Chicana/o Power Movement on four major university campuses.

During the 1960s and 1970s, a new cohort of Chicana/o activists appeared directly confronting the culture of the empire. Following the lead of Gilbert Gonzalez, I use the concept the culture of the empire, to contextualize the cultural and political effects of United States imperialism and colonialism on the Chicana/o population.<sup>8</sup> Gonzalez argued that, "U.S domination of key sectors of the Mexican economy set the stage for the creation of a culture of empire by American writers."<sup>9</sup> In response, Chicana/o Power Movement activists and radicals created grassroots and social movement organizations to challenge the well-established nation's elite educational and social institution. Increased political involvement by young people made possible the appearance of Chicano Power and Studies Movements on campuses.<sup>10</sup> Chicana/o students formed collective organizations including the United Mexican American Student (UMAS), the Mexican American Student Association (MASA), the Mexican American Student Confederation (MASC) and the Mexican American Youth Organization (MAYO), to lead the struggle. Chapters of UMAS, MASA and MASC chapters emerged at the University of California at Berkeley (UB), University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), University of Washington, (UW) and California State University at Northridge (CSUN); these are the four campuses I will examine in detail.<sup>11</sup>

In 1969, these student organizations merged into the Movimiento Estudianti

Chicano de Aztlan (MEChA), which was critical to the growth and recruitment of future Chicana/o students and to the appearance of the Chicana/o Studies Movement nationwide.<sup>12</sup> Simultaneously, students formed cross-cultural coalitions to establish ethnic studies departments and colleges.<sup>13</sup> Due to the limited number of people-ofcolor students, these collectives engaged students to establish a political presence and to survive. Then, in late 1969, most Chicana/o student organizations made a critical decision to articulate an independent Chicana/o Studies movement separate from the ethnic studies struggle, while maintaining a third world radical ideological framework.<sup>14</sup> The students' demand for autonomy accompanied political conflict, compromise, false promises, and restructuring by opponents who defended traditional higher education process.<sup>15</sup> Chicanas/os demanded that universities and colleges serve working-class communities and develop new missions and learning outcomes.<sup>16</sup> They attempted to transform the academy, staging mass-based struggles against university administrations over the direction of education and the meaning of Chicana/o Studies.<sup>17</sup> Nevertheless, they framed it; I argue within a framework of antiimperialist resistance against the embedded culture of the empire in the universities.

I will focus on three particular group protagonists at UCB, UCLA, UW and CSUN, and how they formulated organizational and political frameworks for each of their struggles. Chicana/o students, faculty, and community members participated in planning and protesting to compel the university administrations to recognize the Chicana/o Studies academic presence, programs and departments.<sup>18</sup> Fundamentally, these movements attempted to convert Anglo-American universities into multicultural learning institutions.<sup>19</sup> They demanded the hiring of Chicana/o faculty and the

desegregation of the core curriculum and assessment processes, through recognition and respect for the Chicana/o Studies discipline.<sup>20</sup> I examine how Chicana/o activists and radicals created and engaged political coalitions at UCB, UCLA, UW and CSUN. I demonstrate how Chicanas/os formulated social and educational movements to implement Chicana/o Studies programs and departments. In this institutional and social history, I adopt social movement theory and contextualize the political encounters involving Chicana/o radicals and activists with university administrations. Finally, I offer a critical and historical investigation on how the power behind the culture of the empire responded to and fought to undermine these social movements.

## THE GEOGRAPHY OF CHICANA/O STUDIES AND THE CHICANO POWER MOVEMENT

In this dissertation, Marxist Geographer Edward W. Soja's ideas are incorporated to demonstrate a distinct geography of Chicana/o Studies in the four case studies I investigate.<sup>21</sup> Soja writes that, "Modern Geography has been so introverted and cocooned with respect to the construction of critical social theory and so confined in its definition of historical geography."<sup>22</sup> My decision to adopt Soja enables me to examine political and class borders between the imperialist establishment and working- class communities within greater precision. Also, I will delineate the historical geography of Mexican and Chicana/o labor migration to identify links between Mexican workers and institutions of higher education. The first mass generation of Chicana/o university students emerged from this labor migration, but regional patterns varied in the educational institutions of California and Washington State.<sup>23</sup>

Yet, the unfolding of the Chicana/o Studies struggle was highly selective and did not reflect the burgeoning Mexican population in the United States.<sup>24</sup> According to the 2010 census, 50.5 million of the 308.7 million of the nation's inhabitants are of Mexican and Latino origin.<sup>25</sup> Why is there not a Chicana/o Studies program and department in every U.S. university and college? Since the birth of the nation, the United States government promoted a popular campaign of westward expansion, based on domination and aggression of conquered peoples.<sup>26</sup> In its ideological supports, writers and newspaper reporters, including John L. O' Sullivan, have popularized the doctrine of American Manifest Destiny, in 1845.<sup>27</sup> It consistently portrayed Anglo-Americans as superior to Mexicans, and it justified the War of 1846-1848.<sup>28</sup> In order to fully understand this perspective, Dinoicio Valdes posits that a continental empire has been enhanced by the ongoing U.S. military and economic conquest of Mexico, and it has influenced the class and cultural experiences of the working class Mexican population.<sup>29</sup>

Mexicans continually crisscrossed the imposed U.S./Mexico Border for survival, but especially in response to the demands of capital.<sup>30</sup> Valdes believes that, "the U.S. military conquest and annexation of California predated the economic conquest and modern corporation."<sup>31</sup> It was accompanied by massive labor migration of Mexican workers to the Midwest, the East Coast, the Deep South, the Far West, and Pacific Northwest.<sup>32</sup> The mastering of the culture of the empire and the conditions of domination imposed living and working conditions, deportation, educational segregation, and cultural repression on the immigrant workers and their descendants.<sup>33</sup> In response and in self-defense, they formed mutual aid societies

and labor and civil rights organizations.<sup>34</sup> They also participated in labor strikes in locations as diverse as New Mexico, California, Texas, California, Michigan Washington State, Colorado, and Arizona.<sup>35</sup>

Their earlier grassroots organizations prepared the ground force for the unfolding of the Chicana/o Power and Chicana/o Studies Movements.<sup>36</sup> As Juan Gomez Quinones and Irene Vasquez have argued, "historical research amply documents that civil organizing continued with programmatic ideas and energetic leadership into the 1960s."<sup>37</sup> As a result, a new Chicana/o youth generation materialized to formulate new political organizations that focused on labor and civil rights, anti U.S. imperialism in Vietnam, electoral politics, and community development.<sup>38</sup> The youth also organized the Chicana/o Student and Studies Movements on university and college campuses, challenging academic industrial complex and institutional segregation.<sup>39</sup> In response, university and college leadership adopted repressive imperialist approaches, which set the stage for battles over the academic direction of the Chicana/o Studies.<sup>40</sup> This political climate limited the success of Chicana/o Studies efforts at every U.S. higher education institution.

## CHICANA/O MOVEMENT AND CHICANA/O STUDIES HISTORIGRAPHY

In the process of developing this historiography section, I handpicked scholarship that would be relevant to the scope of this dissertation. However, my decision will not take away from the published scholarly literature that is similar to this critical subject matter. Furthermore, I will examine the unfolding and making of Chicana/o Movement and Chicana/o Studies historiography. Between the 1890s and

1940, Frederick Jackson Turner's "The Significance of the Frontier in American History" (1893), Victor Clark's governmental report, *Mexican Labor in the United States* (1908), and Emory S. Bogardus in *Mexican In the United States* (1933), provided a framework for mainstream academic scholarship on Mexicans in the United States, and in effect a justification for nativist and segregation policies.<sup>41</sup> Their writings popularized the concept of modern American Exceptionalism and promoted a historical imagination and cultural imperialist judgments that disparaged Mexico as well as the Chicana/o inhabitants of the United States.<sup>42</sup>

Countering Turner, Clark, and Bogardus, Ernesto Galarza argued that the Mexican population of the Americas has a deep historical and cultural presence in the modern world.<sup>43</sup> Apart from Galarza, most pre-Chicana/o Studies scholars failed to challenge this American exceptionalism, and at most adopted reformist and assimilationist perspectives.<sup>44</sup> Why Chicana/o Studies? Galarza and a handful of his counterparts inspired Chicana/o Studies as an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approach to the Chicana/o historical and cultural experiences in North America.<sup>45</sup> Chicana/o scholars have established a discipline to formulate practical and ideological paradigms and approaches to challenge Anglo- American nativist, traditional and the culture of the empire perceptions.<sup>46</sup> Chicana/o Historiography historiography has unfolded over the last forty-five years and impacted the intellectual direction of the Chicana/o narrative.

In 1969, Chicana/o students, scholars, professors, and community activists gathered at the University of California at Santa Barbara (UCSB), to create *El Plan de Santa Barbara,* and define the ideological and historical roots of the Chicana/o

Studies discipline.<sup>47</sup> Many Chicana/o historians and scholars have utilized this critical historical document to support radical perspectives in the making of Chicana/o Historiography.<sup>48</sup> Rodolfo Acuna's *Occupied America: The Chicano's Struggle Toward Liberation* (1972) became an influential monograph to challenge Turner's *Frontier Thesis* and Bogardus's Mexican Problem ideology.<sup>49</sup> Meanwhile, Juan Gomez Quinones published "Toward A Perspective on Chicano History," (1971), which contextualized the unfolding of the counter historical narrative.<sup>50</sup> As a result, Acuna and Gomez Quinones have influenced Chicana/o historiography for the last four decades.

In the heat of the social movements of the 1960s and 1970s, radical and leftist Chicana/o scholars and historians emerged and attempted to shape Chicana/o historiography and Chicana/ Studies scholarship.<sup>51</sup> However, they were accompanied by a greater wave of moderate and conservative politics and writing reducing the spaces for radicalism and maturation of Chicana/o Studies throughout academia.<sup>52</sup> Most knowledge pertaining to Mexico and to Mexicans in the United States appears in traditional and mainstream structures.<sup>53</sup> The traditional powers also forced political divisions among Chicana/o scholars and historians, encouraging a new type of Chicana/o scholar and historian with an agenda of gaining access without rocking the boat.<sup>54</sup> This academic mainstreaming of Chicana/o historiography permitted the appearance of many published texts and a small number of Chicana/o historians with successful academic careers, but in scholarship failed to change social and political conditions for the Chicana/o population.<sup>55</sup>

In the late 1970s, Chicana/o scholars and historians had initiated writings on

the Chicana/o Power Movement. In 1977, Juan Gomez Quinones published Mexican Students Par La Raza: The Chicano Student Movement In Southern California, 1967-1977, the first scholarly contextualization of the historical politics of the Chicana/o Student Movement.<sup>56</sup> In 1981, in the second edition of Occupied America: A History of Chicanos, Rodolfo Acuna added a new chapter entitled "Goodbye America." Various Chicana/o Studies scholars and historians have conducted academic conferences and symposiums on Chicana/o Studies and Chicana/o Movement Historiography.<sup>57</sup> By the early 1980s, The National Association of Chicano Studies (NACS) had become the leading space for critical debates scholarly publications. In particular, NACS published The Chicano Struggle: Analyses of Past and Present Efforts (1984), Chicana Voices: Intersections of Class, Race and Gender (1990), and Chicano Discourse (1992), whose ideological and political discourse changed the direction of Chicana/o Studies scholarship.<sup>58</sup> Meanwhile, Isidro Ortiz and others organized a symposium, Chicanos and the Social Sciences: A Decade of Research and Development (1970-1980), to contextualize the first generation of Chicana/o Studies scholarship and suggested directions for its future development in Chicano Studies: A Multidisciplinary Approach (1984).<sup>59</sup>

Another influential work appeared in 1984, "Chicano Studies: 1970-1984," in which Renato Rosaldo contextualized the first generation of Chicana/o Studies anthropological scholarship.<sup>60</sup> Rosaldo observed, "anthropological writings on Chicanos over the past 15 years must be understood in relation to the politics of the late 1960s and early 1970s."<sup>61</sup> Renato argued that the discipline of anthropology had to embrace the research politics of Chicana/o Studies scholarship and predicted the

coming generation of Chicana/o scholars would make this critical subject matter "more visible" to traditional anthropologists.<sup>62</sup> Renato concluded optimistically, that Chicana/o Studies challenge "ideological, political and economic forms of oppression," as set by the culture of the empire.<sup>63</sup>

During the 1980s, Carlos Munoz wrote two influential articles in advance of his text at the end of the decade. "The Quest for Paradigm: The Development of Chicano Studies and Intellectuals" (1983) and "The Development of Chicano Studies 1968-1981" (1984), which both contextualized the first generation of the Chicana/o Studies discipline.<sup>64</sup> Munoz argued that it never reached the original organizational outcomes and goals of the El Plan de Santa Barbara and that not establishing Chicana/o Studies Ph.D. programs during the 1970s prevented the preparation of organic intellectualism. Finally, in Youth, Identity, Power: The Chicano Movement (1989), Munoz wrote on the work that sentinels the direction of Chicana/o Power Movement Historiography.<sup>65</sup> Munoz argued that the Chicana/o student sector and participants in the broader Chicana/o Power Movement were searching for a new social and ideological identity and political control. Munoz emphasized that the historical legacy of the Chicana/o Power Movement would influence the future development of any counter-hegemonic social movement and was crucial in the debates on this critical subject matter. In a second edition, Munoz offered minor revisions to address major criticisms, including his failure to incorporate gender in the first edition. While Munoz toned down the male elitism of first generation Chicana/o Studies scholars and professors, his gender analysis remained feeble.

Another important book, United We Win (1989), enabled Ignacio Garcia to

contextualize the political foundation of the Chicana/o Third Political Party Movement of the 1970s, with a historical analysis on the La Raza Unida Party (LRUP).<sup>66</sup> Garcia argued that LRUP was influential, particularly by enhancing working-class Chicana/o involvement in the U.S. electoral process. The first major academic full-length work on LRUP, *United We Win* concentrated on the LRUP Texas experience but failed to examine party chapters at the national level. Garcia contributed to critical debate on the role of the La Raza Unida Party in the Chicana/o Power Movement; the party was its most influential, in Texas, on the electoral level.

Another important facet of the Chicana/o Power Movement appeared in the writing of Alma Garcia who published "The Development of Chicana Feminist Discourse, 1970-1980" in the *Journal of Gender and Society*.<sup>67</sup> Her examination of the historical foundation of Chicana feminist scholarship argued that the first generation of the Chicana Feminist Movement, from its inception, offered various Chicana perspectives both to the larger Chicano Power Movement and to the U.S. feminist movement. While Garcia utilized important primary material and publications to document the significance of the Chicana feminist movement, her work shied away from critical questions or an assessment of how it changed the political and ideological direction on the Chicana/o Power Movement. Like many of her counterparts she also argued, optimistically, that emerging Chicana feminist scholars would enhance the Chicana/o Studies Movement for the rest of the twentieth century.

In the 1990s, Armando Navarro emerged as an influential scholar for La Raza Unida Party and Chicana/o Power Movement Historiography. His first major text, *Mexican American Youth Organization: Avant-Garde of the Chicano Movement in* 

*Texas* (1995) contextualized the foundation of the Mexican American Youth Organization (MAYO) in the state of Texas.<sup>68</sup> He argued that MAYO played a major role in the development of the La Raza Unida Party. He also demonstrated its significant organizational presence in the 1970 Crystal City, Texas High School District walkouts, challenging many Chicana/o Studies historians and scholars through an explicit class-based and dialectical approach.

In 1998, Navarro followed up by publishing *The Cristal Experiment, A Chicano Struggle for Community Control* (1998), which focused on the struggle for Chicana/o political control and the LRUP in the Crystal City, Texas.<sup>69</sup> He argued that the 1964 city council election and the rise of LRUP in 1970 were two major local Chicano community control and political power struggles. Crystal City, Texas was the major hub for the La Raza Unida Party, and the hometown of Jose Angel Gutierrez, the most visible LRUP leader in that regional center. Both monographs could have included more testimonies from the LRUP rank and file membership and the Crystal City Chicana/o population. However, *The Cristal Experiment and Mexican American Youth Organization* is the most influential, published scholarship on this critical Chicano Power Movement to date.

In 2000, Navarro broadened his analysis into the national level in *La Raza Unida Party: A Chicano Challenge to the U.S. Two-Party Dictatorship* (2000).<sup>70</sup> He argued that LRUP attempted to challenge the century- and-a-half lock on electoral politics by Democrats and Republicans, thus two-party dictatorship. He also argued that LRUP failed because of non-realistic goals and objectives, ideological conflicts, and lack of resources. His text is marred by his personal portrayals and his own involvement; yet, it is strengthened by his ability to address political geography, including the LRUP in the

Midwest. Following up on this text, Navarro completed three additional monographs on the political history of the U.S. Chicana/o population, and the rise of the Mexican Immigration Rights Movement. While Navarro's published scholarship made an impact in the development of Chicana/o Power mainstream, Chicana/o academics have eschewed his work because of his radical ideologies and methodologies.

Influential work appeared as a result of two conferences. The first, organized by the Julian Samora Research Institute (JSRI) at Michigan State University, examined the current status of Chicana/o Historiography. Senior and junior Chicana/o historians gathered to critically debate and address the past, present, and future of the Chicana/o historical experience. *Voices of A New Chicanalo History* (2000), edited by Refugio Rochin and Dionicio Valdes emerged from this conference.<sup>71</sup> Another second conference occurred a decade later, at California State University, Northridge and was organized by Gabriel Gutierrez. It invited influential scholars and historians to reflect on the unfolding of Chicana/o Studies and the contributions that Rodolfo Acuna made to Chicana/o history. Both conferences offered important assessments and criticisms of the Chicana/o Historiography from the previous decades.

Still another venture for a critical publication appeared as a result of *Acuna v. The Regents of the University of California.* This lawsuit occurred because of Acuna's University of Santa Barbara Chicana/o Studies/History professorship offer had been subsequently denied by the university administration. Acuna used the court proceedings as a basis for *Sometimes There Is No Other Side: Chicanos and the Myth of Equality* (1998), which examined the cultural myth of equality and equal access in the U.S. educational industrial complex. Acuna investigated the Chicana/o

experience in higher education, and examined why truth and objectivity do not exist based on what Acuna refers to as, the American Paradigm process.<sup>72</sup> Acuna applied the Thomas Kuhn-based scientific revolution theoretical model to further contextualize how the culture of the empire controls access and the production of what is considered knowledge in higher education. Acuna argued that most traditional Chicana/o scholars are neither loyal nor have an ideological understanding of the Chicana/Studies discipline, but rather have accepted the tenets of the university imperial structure and its system of reward and punishment. *Sometimes There Is No Other Side* is critical understanding to discourse on the political and practical direction of Chicana/o Studies scholarship and historiography. Subsequently, Acuna published *The Making of Chicana/o Studies: In the Trenches of Academe* (2011), which contextualized the historical and political creation of the Chicana/o Studies over the previous four decades.<sup>73</sup> In both texts, Acuna adopted a personal narrative style to demonstrate how the Chicana/o Studies discipline lacks a counter hegemonic voice and analysis.

During the 1970s, Chicana and feminist scholars and activists were asserting their voice within the Chicana/o Studies discipline, and creating a social identity and scholarly space by challenging sexism and male centrism. They developed organic publications to incorporate feminist perspectives, and to write critical Chicana feminist scholarship and historiography within larger U.S. feminist movements. In a 1996 assessment, Gilberto Garcia published "Beyond the Adelita Image Women Scholars in the National Association For Chicana/o Studies (NACS) 1972-1992," on the historical and political evolution of Chicana scholarship in Chicana/o Studies and NACS.<sup>74</sup> He was the first Chicana/o Studies male scholar to offer a critical examination on the role

of women. Garcia argued that Chicana/o scholars and intellectuals were overlooked in the historical creation of NACS, and made a major significance in the development of the Chicana historiography. His bibliographical database demonstrated that Chicana scholars challenged first generation male dominated Chicana/o Studies research and perspectives from the earliest years of the discipline.

Meanwhile, Teresa Cordova published "Anti-Colonial Chicana Feminism" in the *Journal of New Political Science* (1998), which contextualized Chicana feminist scholarship during the 1980s and 1990s, utilizing anti-colonial and oppositional consciousness methodologies and approaches.<sup>75</sup> She argued that most recent Chicana feminist literature had no connection to anticolonial struggles, and that traditional feminist theory had failed to challenge the culture of the empire. Cordova offered critical perspectives on how first generation Chicana feminist scholars influenced the current body of Chicana/o Studies scholarship, and why feminists must continue to develop theoretical and practical methodologies and approaches to define their scholarly role for the twenty-first century.

In the early twenty-first century, additional scholarship and historiography has emerged on Chicana/o Power Movement. Guadalupe San Miguel's *Brown, Not White: School Integration and the Chicano Movement in Houston* (2001), offered an historical account of the Chicano Power Movement in the city of Houston, Texas.<sup>76</sup> He argued that the rise of the Chicano Power Movement led to school integration in the Houston Independent School District, and that the movement was not a quest for political and social identity, but a struggle against racial discrimination. San Miguel challenged other Chicana/o Studies scholars and historians about the notion of student and community collaboration in the Chicana/o Power Movement. In another influential

work, "*Mi Raza Primero*" Nationalism, Identity, and Insurgency in the Chicano Movement in Los Angeles 1966-1978 (2002), Ernesto Chavez examined the rise and decline of the Chicano Power Movement in the city of Los Angeles from 1966 to 1978.<sup>77</sup> Chavez argued that Chicano Power Movement had long-term political and social effects for the Chicana/o community within the areas of electoral politics, immigration rights, civil rights, and economic development.

In Raza Si! Guerra No! Chicano Protest and Patriotism During the Viet Nam War Era (2004), Lorena Oropeza contextualized the political and historical role of the Chicana/o Anti-Vietnam War Movement.<sup>78</sup> Oropeza argued that the social movement had an internationalist ideology and that its leaders made third world alliances with other people of color movements. She challenged Chicana/o Studies scholarship by focusing on the importance of a broader, not Chicana/o specific, struggle to demonstrate an autonomous Chicana/o Movement with the broader Anti-War Movement, as well as the much wider dimensions of the Chicano Power Movement. In another broadly focused work, Jorge Mariscal published Brown-Eyed Children of the Sun: Lessons from the Chicano Movement 1965-1975 (2005), which contextualized the Chicana/o Power Movement at the national level, based on literary criticism.<sup>79</sup> Mariscal demonstrated how the Chicano Power Movement had an internationalist and third world political and ideological framework in its organizational and practical structure. He provided critical symbolic representations using artwork and propaganda materials that were created during that historical era. Mariscal challenged mainstream Chicana/o Studies scholars and historians, despite a weak definition of concepts of Chicana/o internationalism and third world radicalism. Brown-Eyed Children of the Sun

has set the stage for future inventive scholarship on the Chicana/o Power Movement.

In "Empirics and Chicano Studies: The Formation of Empirical Chicano Studies, 1970-1975" Michael Soldatenko proclaimed that the early years of the Chicana/o Studies discipline were marked by the concept of empiricism, which stems from postmodern theory and scholarship.<sup>80</sup> Unfortunately Soldatenko failed to fully define the concept of empiricism or how it enhanced our understanding of the intellectual origins of the Chicana/o Studies discipline. He argued that the historical foundation of the *El Plan de Santa Barbara* limited the mainstreaming of Chicana/o Studies into the university and its core curriculum and instead forced many Chicana/o scholars to adopt outside methodologies and theories. He was unsuccessful in demonstrating how outside ideological frameworks were incorporated in the scholarship of first generation Chicana/o Studies academics. The article foreshadowed Soldatenko's monograph on the historical evolution of the Chicana/o Studies intellectualism a decade later.<sup>81</sup>

In *Chicano Studies: The Genesis of A Discipline* (2009), Soldatenko investigated the first fifteen years of Chicana/o Studies scholarship, perspectivist ideological frameworks and empiricism.<sup>82</sup> He argued that a perspectivist struggles for an alternative perspective, and an empiricist aspires to mainstream into the mindset of a traditional academy. He argued by the late 1970s, the empiricists were able to fully dominate the political and intellectual direction of the Chicana/o Studies discipline, and that first generation Chicana/o Studies faculty and scholars were clueless of their ideological understanding, both positions disputed by many Chicana/o scholars due to political climate of the time. Soldatenko did not provide convincing evidence on how empiricists destroyed radical and progressive viewpoints, and he failed to offer a substantial and

compelling historical analysis. In the past five years, recent works on the Chicana/o Power Movement historiography has incorporated new narratives and perspectives, by examining Chicana Power, multiethnic population coalitions, and local social movements.<sup>83</sup> However, none of this new scholarship has contextualized the historical and educational foundation of the Chicana/o Studies Movement on the national stage.

### **RESEARCH METHODLOGY**

Marxist geographer David Harvey observed, "crises are essential to the reproduction of capitalism."<sup>84</sup> His observation undergirds my decision to adopt antiimperialist and anti-colonialist ideological frameworks for this dissertation. We can consider the Chicana/o Power Movement as a series of major challenges to another crisis in the reproduction of capitalism and its order as articulated in the university. It provides a framework in which I account for the ability of the Chicana/o Studies Movement on campus to challenge the culture of the empire. I will incorporate concepts of dialectical materialism, hegemony, internal colonialism, classicism, and empire building, as examined by Antonio Gramsci, Karl Marx, Frantz Fanon, Robert Blauner, Louis Althusser, V.I Lenin, Albert Memmi, and others.<sup>85</sup> Furthermore, I will set the historical narrative process for the intellectual direction and main argument of this dissertation.

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, social and political theorists Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels advanced Socrates's and Hegel's notions of dialectics and historical materialism.<sup>86</sup> Engels wrote that, "dialectics, comprehends things their representations, ideas," which produced a one-world argument to dispute the mode of capital and class production.<sup>87</sup>

The concept of the dialectics led to the development of historical materialism that incorporated the impression of utopianism and radicalism, in order to challenge the culture of the empire. In the 1960s and 1970s, French Marxist Louis Althusser developed the concept of the ideological state apparatuses (ISA), which analyzed the concept of modern mainstream institution expansion and the mode of social capital production.<sup>88</sup> I argue that the Chicana/o Studies Movement was challenging the ideological state apparatuses by encouraging political expression on campus.

According to Mao Tsu-Tung, "there is no reason for the existence of imperialism," which he considered the maximum level of capital production in a contemporary civilization.<sup>89</sup> As a result, understanding the meaning of anti-imperialism shaped the class struggle for national liberation and self-determination. V. I. Lenin confirms Tse-Tung's argument in *Imperialism: The Highest Stage of Capitalism* (1917).<sup>90</sup> Together Tse-Tung and Lenin created a practical anti-imperialist framework that informed many radical actors of the Chicana/o Studies Movement their rhetoric and organizational application. The interaction of anti-imperialist writings and practices shaped the development of the third world paradigm, which became popular during the 1960s and 1970s.

Organic intellectual and Italian socialist Antonio Gramsci similarly adhered to anti-imperialist perspectives adopted by Tse-Tung and Lenin, in creating the concept of hegemony.<sup>91</sup> Hegemony means "the domination of one group over another with the partial consent of the dominated group."<sup>92</sup> Defending the culture of the empire adopted it to control the modes of higher education institutionalism, while the social movement for Chicana/o Studies became a counter-hegemonic political struggle that attempted to

build an organic educational process for the Chicana/o population. Therefore, this educational struggle formulated within Third World and anti-imperialist ideological frameworks and organizational concentrations.

I will implement Frantz Fanon's The Wretched of the Earth (1963) and Black Skin, White Masks (1952), and Albert Memmi's The Colonizer and Colonized (1965) to examine how the leadership of various higher education institutions attempted to co-opt the academic and political direction of the Chicana/o Studies movement on campus, and the degree to which they succeeded.<sup>93</sup> According to Fanon, "history teaches us clearly that the battle against colonialism does not straight away along the lines of nationalism."94 The concept of nationalism causes splits between movement actors and between idealists seeking to create imagined communities on campus. Benedict Anderson's Imagined Communities: Reflections on the Origin and Spread of Nationalism (2006), and C. Wright Mills's The Sociological Imagination (1959), reinforced Fanon's arguments about how nationalism has created false community environments and imaginary borders and political representations.<sup>95</sup> They attempted to create a discourse, in order to construct a methodology to contextualize the cultural and language symbolic production of the dominant culture. Stuart Hall elaborated this concept in Representation Cultural Representations and Signifying Practices (1997).<sup>96</sup> He wrote that, "we must not confuse the material world, where things and people exist, and the symbolic practices and processes through which representation, meaning and language operate."<sup>97</sup> Higher educational administration utilized cultural and class domination to incorporate its political position to restrict the development of Chicana/o Studies in the academy.

In reaffirming the imperial process within the United States culture of the empire, I will adopt ideas from Pablo Gonzalez Casanova's "Internal Colonialism and National Development" (1965), Robert Blauner's "Internal Colonialism and the Ghetto Revolt" (1969), and Racial Oppression in America (1972).98 While several Chicana/o Studies Movement scholars incorporated the ideological framework of internal colonialism, many of the actors understood Gonzalez Casanova more profoundly. According to Blauner, internal colonialism involved "establishment of domination over a geographically external political unit, most often inhabited by people of a different race and culture."<sup>99</sup> The concept of internal colonialism is a product of foreign and hegemonic domination over a native population in the geographic setting. In this case, the Mexican/American War of 1846-1848 created the Chicana/o population as a United States colonial subject. In enhancing my arguments, I will utilize E.P. Thompson's The Making of the English Working Class (1966) to further guide my writing in this critical dissertation.<sup>100</sup> Thompson argued that class-consciousness is "embodied in traditions, value systems, ideas, and institutional forms."<sup>101</sup> University administration embodied the vision of the culture of empire and held the ideas of the power directors in the United States.

I also incorporate the American Paradigm argument of Rodolfo Acuna in contextualizing how the culture of the empire dominates and applies the modes of advanced educational knowledge and social production.<sup>102</sup> Acuna wrote, "Fundamental to the paradigm are loyalty to government and Western Civilization."<sup>103</sup> His challenge to this ideological framework addressed the harm and cultural genocide committed against oppressed populations and at times, with their consent. Simultaneously, the

ethnocentrism embedded in the culture of the empire reinforced assumptions by university administrators and the dominant culture of their superiority and practices that subordinated the colonized. It permitted institutional racism and classism and it justified segregation, and as Antonia Darder argued made it easier for "most Anglo-Americans to move from an individual context to an institutional context," which is not possible for the internal colonized as a people.<sup>104</sup>

I also incorporate Edward Said's *Culture and Imperialism* (1993), in addressing the hegemonic process within the United States industrial educational complex.<sup>105</sup> According to Said, "in our time, direct colonialism has largely ended; imperialism, as we shall see, lingers where it has always been, in a kind of general cultural sphere as well as in specific political, ideological, economic, and social practices."<sup>106</sup> The U.S. culture of the empire engaged in the imperial process in order to control modern institutional development, and the modes of educational and cultural production has become a product of class hegemony and political domination. Ernesto Laclau and Chantal Mouffe in *Hegemony and Socialist Strategy: Toward A Radical Democratic Politics* (1985) reinforced Said's ideas, by writing "class hegemony is not a wholly practical result of struggle, but has an ultimate victory of the working class, since this depends upon its capacity for hegemonic leadership."<sup>107</sup> Therefore, I will adopt the concept of class hegemony in contextualizing the conflicts between the leaders in Chicana/o Studies Movement and the university administration.

I am influenced also by ideas expressed by George Lukacs and C. Wright Mills on the concept of world system and class-consciousness, which influenced Third World and Chicana/o Studies campus movements.<sup>108</sup> According to Lukacs, "This internal

consciousness of the bourgeois is further aggravated by the fact that the objective limits of capitalism do not remain purely negative."<sup>109</sup> The university leadership has utilized this bourgeoisie understanding to block radical and leftist academic and student methodologies and pedagogies to fully materialize on the campus environment. Mills elaborated on "the very difficult problems of 'class consciousness' and of 'false consciousness' of conceptions of status, as against class."<sup>110</sup> He meant that people adopted a counterfeit class-consciousness often against their collective best interests, which weakened the political environment and direction of Chicana/o Studies programs and departments. Lukacs and Mills further enhanced this historical dissertation by addressing the illusion of changing and challenging the U.S culture of the empire without conducting an insurgent revolutionary transformation.

Contemporary with the social movement period, Immanuel Wallerstein and Andre Gunder Frank elaborated on the concepts of the World System and of dependency theory.<sup>111</sup> I will adopt a World System analysis to demonstrate the functioning of the culture of the empire in a traditional university institution. Wallerstein argued, "A world system is not the system of the world, but a system that is a world and which can be, most often has been, located in an area less than the entire global."<sup>112</sup> In the United States the government and the capitalist elite class created a global market structure to restrain the modes of capital and cultural production, and together they manipulated the Chicana/o Studies Movement. Ellen Meksin Wood, in *Empire of Capital* (2003) supported this argument, by writing, "capitalism is a system in which all economic actors – producers and appropriators – depend upon the market for their most basic needs."<sup>113</sup>

academic acolytes who seem incapable of making any radical break."<sup>114</sup> The World System theory allows me to contextualize the historical discourse and the institutional manipulation of the Third World and Chicana/o Studies Movements.

Lastly, to guide my writing, I am influenced by Linda Smith's *Decolonizing Methodologies Research and Indigenous Peoples* (1999) and Paul Blackledge's *Reflections on the Marxist Theory of History* (2006).<sup>115</sup> According to Smith, "themes such as cultural survival, self-determination healing, restoration and social justice are engaging indigenous researchers and communities in a diverse array of projects."<sup>116</sup> Smith created a twenty-five step research process on how to incorporate radical and indigenous perceptions and voices into the historiography development process. Blackledge demonstrated ways to develop a radical and class analysis in the production of historiography, and wrote, "the recent emergence of global anti-capitalist and anti war movements created a space within which Marxism can flourish as it has not been able to for a generation."<sup>117</sup> Furthermore, adopting these theorists and concepts enhanced the contexts and arguments of the dissertation process.

### **OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS**

I will now turn to the content of my dissertation. I offer an institutional and political history of the critical local struggles on behalf of Chicana/o Studies, by examining personal perspectives, program building, and curriculum development. I offer an innovative series of research and critical questions as a methodology specific to the topic. What caused the local Chicana/o Studies Movements on the campuses of UCB, UCLA, UW, and CSUN? What were their political concerns? What were their internal

and external struggles? Lastly, to what degree were they successful in creating academic programs and/or departments? Consistent with the ideals of the Chicana/o Studies Movement, I hope in this dissertation to impact the future development of Chicana/o Studies programs and departments in the nation.

In Chapter One, *Third World Radicalism: The Chicana/o Studies Movement At The University Of California At Berkeley,* I explore the influences, personalities, and the strengths and weaknesses of Chicana/o Studies at this important university. I examine how radical politics and Third-World radicalism in turn, profoundly influenced the creation of UCB's Chicana/o Studies Movement. In 1968, the Third World Liberation Front appeared at Berkeley, which galvanized people-of-color, as protests, scholarship, and hard work eventually lead to the formation of the Ethnic Studies Department. When the university refused to provide a separate department, scholars, students, and community representatives struggled to develop a strong Chicana/o Studies program presence. I conclude by arguing that the university administration co-opted the leadership and planted non-organic administrative representatives into this local Chicana/o Studies Movement.

In Chapter Two, Ethnic Student Radicalism: The Chicana/o Studies Movement At The University Of California At Los Angeles, I examine the intensification of radicalism and Chicana/o Studies in Los Angeles. I argue that the Chicana/o Studies Research Center (CSRC) and Aztlan Journal owe much to the third-world radicalism and community activism of the 1960s generation. The last section examines the early stages of the Aztlan Journal and its academic influence on the advancement of first generation Chicana/o Studies scholarship. Finally, I highlight the establishment of the CSRC and

how the early political struggles failed to make a Chicana/o Studies Department a reality.

In Chapter Three, *Student Radicalism And Activism: The Chicana/o Studies Movement At The University Of Washington*, I first examine the politics of student activism and radicalism on the university campus. I then discuss how student campaigns laid the groundwork and foundation for UW Chicana/o Student Movement. Student organizations, and participants in the Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlán (MEChA), played critical roles in the struggle. As activism declined on campus and in the community by the early 1980s, the UW administration combined all the school's people-of-color academic disciplines into the Department of American Ethnic Studies, and weakened the impact of each of the groups involved.

Chapter Four, *Political Activism: The Chicana/o Studies Movement At* California State University, Northridge, begins with a discussion of the transformation of San Fernando Valley State College (SFVSC) into the California State University, Northridge (CSUN), and contextualizes how it became the largest Chicana/o Studies Department in the nation. Massive campus political unrest in the late 1960s resulted in the foundation of this academic department. I then examine the development of the departmental organizational model, which became the primary task in the department's formative years. I conclude that the actors who struggled on behalf of Chicana/o Studies maintained unity more successfully, which permitted the department to venture into a national leader.

In the concluding chapter, Survival And The Lost Hope: What Happened To The Chicana/o Studies Movement, I argue that by the late 1970s, oppositional and

reactionary scholars and professors marginalized their leftist and radical counterparts. Also, it offers a historical examination and argument for how traditionalists shifted the political direction of Chicana/o Studies and it identifies ideological conflicts that occurred in dismantling and professionalizing Chicana/o Studies. Finally, I conclude that the CSM, in its challenge of the U.S. Empire and the culture of the academy, was largely exhausted by 1980.

I use the terms *Mexican* and *Chicana/o* to identify protagonists in the movements examined in this dissertation. I utilize the term *Latino* to reference a broader group of people who merit inclusion in the discipline. I adopt the concept of U.S. Empire and the culture of the empire to identify the power structure within the society and university. Finally, I use the term *political activism* to distinguish social and political movements that led to the founding of the discipline of Chicana/o Studies. I hope this dissertation fills in blanks about this magnificent academic field that are long overdue. My personal connection provides a distinct perspective to the research and scholarship due to the numerous discussions with various Chicana/o Studies scholars and activists over the decades. Moreover, I conducted this dissertation to fully advance the understanding of Chicana/o Studies and the actors who made these social movements a political and cultural reality.

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#### CHAPTER ONE

# THIRD WORLD RADICALISM: THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, 1968-1975

## INTRODUCTION

In 1964, the Free Speech Movement (FSM) emerged at the University of California, Berkeley (UCB) over the lack of academic freedom and campus political expression.<sup>1</sup> By 1968, FSM inspired the emergence of radical and third world politics, including the Third World Liberation Front (TWLF), which challenged the university administration, established an ethnic studies college and academic departments, and helped inspire the appearance of the Chicana/o Studies Movement (CSM) at UCB. Radical student Manuel Delgado stated, "we had raised the question of a Third World college last fall and [Chancellor] Heyns insisted that we would have to go through the traditional channel."<sup>2</sup> For a five-year period, CSM participants struggled with the university leadership, and Chicana/o Studies was forced to become a program unit within an Ethnic Studies department.

Chapter One examines the UCB Chicana/o Studies Movement between 1968 and 1975. In its first section I contextualize how the Free Speech Movement (1964) and the Third World Liberation Front (1968-1969) set the stage for the advancement of Ethnic and Chicana/o Studies. The second section offers a historical examination of the Chicana/o Studies Movement and explains political conflicts between the university administration and their internal struggles. The final section examines the role of the *El Grito* publication and how it impacted the development of the Chicana/o Studies

discipline. Finally, I examine how the culture of empire utilized neo-colonialists to destroy the radical student voice, and prevent the creation of an autonomous Chicana/o Studies Department.

### UCB LEFTIST POLITICS AND THIRD WORLD RADICALISM

Activists and students of various ethnic backgrounds around the United States have formulated movements to challenge the academic-industrial complex and culture of the empire.<sup>3</sup> In 1962, Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) emerged at the University of Michigan and articulated the Port Huron Statement to proclaim a brand new radical and leftist ideology, which led to the birth of the 1960s New Left generation. Adherents included students and community radical social movement activists who developed anti-imperialist and third-world political perspectives.<sup>4</sup> By 1964, the Free Speech Movement (FSM) had materialized to confront the anti-political expression and civil rights policy established by the administration on the UCB campus in 1934.<sup>5</sup> Bv September of 1964, FSM leaders had organized a series of unsuccessful meetings and discussions with the university administration to seek a change in prohibitions on social engagement and student demonstrations on campus grounds.<sup>6</sup> Administration hostility led to a massive campus uprising and Mario Savio became an iconic figure of this movement.<sup>7</sup> In an attempt to halt student political assembly, Governor Edmund "Pat" Brown ordered the arrest of 800 demonstrators, but the repression failed to destroy the FSM momentum, and instead sparked a new wave of campus activism.<sup>8</sup>

Between 1965 and 1968, the FSM shifted from struggles over academic freedom to an anti-Vietnam War and counter hegemonic movement.<sup>9</sup> New anti-imperialist collectives arose and UCB became a major center of political activity, thus, inspiring the appearance of local social movements across the nation.<sup>10</sup> This political struggle was significant in challenging the culture of empire, but failed to address the concerns of various politically subordinated ethnic groups and the establishment of Ethnic Studies academic programs.<sup>11</sup> Why did the Free Speech Movement fail to address racial and ethnicity issues? Most FSM members came from privileged and middle class families and failed to understand radical viewpoints of the working class ethnic population.<sup>12</sup> This exclusion meant that distinct independent organizations and political coalitions were required which, by 1968, materialized into third-world student and radical movements.<sup>13</sup>

On the UCB campus, and throughout the world, 1968 was a critical year in political struggles against global capitalism.<sup>14</sup> Most of the world was experiencing social unrest and people were establishing organizations to change contemporary societies.<sup>15</sup> This included the appearance of massive student movements in Mexico and France, as well as revolutions around the world.<sup>16</sup> In California, the Third World Liberation Front (TWLF) appeared on the campuses of San Francisco State University and UC Berkeley.<sup>17</sup> The appearance of third world politics in the U.S. stemmed from the historical exclusion of ethnic populations from the experiences of a quality education, compared to their Anglo- American counterparts.<sup>18</sup> Sociologist, Fabio Rojas contended, "The Third World Strike of 1968-1969 stands out as one of the most memorable in American educational history," because of the radical presence and consciousness between Chicana/o, African American, Native American, and Asian American activists.<sup>19</sup>

By late 1968, TWLF established multiethnic student alliances to challenge the academic-industrial complex and address the non-existence of Ethnic Studies programs.<sup>20</sup>

The Third World Liberation Front incorporated the radical ideologies of the Anticolonial and imperial struggles in Asia, Africa, and Latin America, which caused a paradigm shift among leftist and radical academics and intellectuals.<sup>21</sup> The TWLF broadly accepted a world view based on the existence of three major blocs of nations conveniently depicted as the First World (the imperialist nation of the "West," including Western Europe and several former British colonies including the United States, Canada, and Australia), the Second World (the Soviet bloc), and the Third World (formerly colonized nations of Asia, Africa, and the Americas, people of ethnically diverse backgrounds).<sup>22</sup> Third World ideologies and radicalism changed the political directions of the Afro-American Student Union (AASU), the Mexican American Student Confederation (MASC), and the Asian American Political Alliance (AMPA).<sup>23</sup> On January 21, 1969, The Third World Liberation Front organized a general educational strike to showcase the lack of respect by the university administration toward political movements and made five critical demands.<sup>24</sup> These included the implementation of a Third World College, four independent Ethnic Studies departments, and the hiring of core faculty of similar ethnic backgrounds.<sup>25</sup> Furthermore, the TWLF demanded that no person or student organization should be punished for participation in the strike.<sup>26</sup>

In response, the university administration increased the magnitude of police repression to disperse the TWLF strike.<sup>27</sup> On January 29, 1969, eight days after the start of the strike, campus and local police forces attempted to end the political

demonstrations, which occurred on Bancroft Avenue, Telegraph Avenue, and Sather Gate.<sup>28</sup> However, the police failed to disband the strike and in response the TWLF orchestrated a campus wide mega-march. In the days that followed, the university administration decided to lobby rightwing California Governor and UC Regents Board Member Ronald Reagan to assist in formulating solutions to neutralize the Third World campus movement.<sup>29</sup> Historically, Reagan consistently opposed radical and leftist movements and the legal right to protest. On February 27, Reagan, with the support of the university administration, declared a state of emergency by sending the National Guard to administer tear gas and to attack strikers at Sproul Plaza.<sup>30</sup> The police repression included 150 arrests and 38 student suspensions, and forced the TWLF to halt the strike for the rest of the spring semester.

The strike failed to achieve most of the five critical demands, but it did pressure the Academic Senate to vote 550 to 4 in support of establishing of an Ethnic Studies Department, in the hope of preventing future protests.<sup>31</sup> However, the TWLF strikers opposed the clustering of Native American Studies, Asian American Studies, Black Studies, and Chicana/o Studies into an academic department.<sup>32</sup> Most TWLF members realized this proposal would co-opt the autonomy of Ethnic Studies and the groups involved.<sup>33</sup> However the movement was significant in bringing in third-world leftist politics and developing an Ethnic Studies discourse into more widespread understanding across the nation.<sup>34</sup> By late 1969, internal differences and unclear organizational strategies led TWLF to split into four individual ethnic studies collectives. In the future, these new social movements would unite on the principle of developing an Ethnic Studies College to house their academic departments and research units. The

Free Speech Movement and The Third World Liberation Movement were an influential political training ground and structural base in the construction of the UCB Chicana/o Studies Movement.

### THE UCB CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT

In the midst of the 50-day strike and Regan's crusade of political repression, the Chicana/o Studies Movement emerged to demand that the university administration establish an academic department and research division. Chicana/o Studies scholar Jorge Mariscal argued, "the late 1960s and early 1970s were marked by a series of radical projects that challenged the traditional educational system in California," and inspired the appearance of Chicana/o youth and student organizations.<sup>35</sup> During the mid-1960s, the Mexican American Student Confederation (MASC) formed a chapter at UC Berkeley and became the leading Chicana/o campus organization.<sup>36</sup> Between 1966 and 1968, MASC organized a series of meetings with the goal of formulating a special committee to design a Chicana/o Studies department and a Third-World curriculum proposal.<sup>37</sup> This effort led to a sequence of unsuccessful meetings with Charles J. Hitch and his cabinet members. By early 1968, MASC had become politically frustrated with Hitch and joined TWLF as major actors in the strike.<sup>38</sup>

Before joining TWLF, MASC created three organizational committees to enhance its political struggle against the university administration. The first committee focused on developing a general strike with TWLF and attaining support within the student body. MASC also assembled a committee that designed a curriculum and a governance

structure, thus upgrading its academic proposal. The third committee aimed to consider and incorporate various perspectives from students, faculty, and community members within the decision making process. The ad-hoc committee structure was an attempt to create a united front between MASC members and supporters. In May of 1969, MASC terminated its association with TWLF due to its increased involvement in the Chicana/o Power Movement and the rise of cultural nationalism. Furthermore, the national Chicana/o Student Movement consolidated the participating groups into the Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlan (MEChA).

June of 1969 marked the MASC merger into MEChA and the incorporation of a cultural nationalist ideology and governance. The new MEChA Berkeley chapter decided to spend most of the summer months refocusing its political and organizational framework for the next phase of direct action. By the fall of 1969, it had prepared to once again engage the university administration, in granting a Chicana/o Studies Department within an Ethnic Studies College.<sup>39</sup> This political shift marked the foundation of the UCB Chicana/o Studies Movement (CSM), which included student, faculty, staff, and community participants.<sup>40</sup> However, the UCB administration had a distinct perspective by agreeing to establish an Ethnic Studies Department under the leadership of Andrew Billingsley. CSM's focus was to attain an academic department, but Chancellor Heyes approved a Chicana/o Studies program under the university's organizational control. This action divided Chicana/o faculty and staff members into two political camps, and the university administration appointed Oswaldo Asturias as the first Chicana/o Studies program chair.<sup>41</sup> CSM activists countered with a demand for an advisory board and the appointment of Professor Octavio I. Romano as chairperson.<sup>42</sup>

Heyes conceded to the creation of an advisory board, with the stipulation that Asturias was to control the academic program. However, many Chicana/o student radicals and leftists continued to demand an independent Chicana/o Studies department. Claiming that their proposal was a compromise and an effective balance of interests in the campus general body, Heyes and Billingsley suggested the formation of an academic program, within an Ethnic Studies Department, in a traditional college.

In December of 1969, the university administration appointed a group of Chicana/o faculty and staff amenable to its interests, to a new advisory board.<sup>43</sup> Chicana/o Studies Movement adherents responded by creating a counter executive committee and their own curriculum proposal. After two more months of political protest Asturias was forced to resign, and the CSM preferred executive committee replaced the earlier advisory board. On March 12, 1970, the new executive committee selected Eduardo Hernandez Chavez to serve as interim program coordinator until a permanent director could be selected by the university administration and the CSM.<sup>44</sup> During the search process, well known Chicana/o scholars and professors Rodolfo Acuna, Ernesto Galarza, Ralph Guzman, and Julian Samora were contacted, but all declined to accept the CSM short-list invitation.<sup>45</sup> This pursuit of a permanent program chair failed to meet Chancellor Heyes deadline, and forced the re-appointment of Hernandez Chavez for the 1970-1971 academic year.<sup>46</sup>

During the fall of 1970, the CSM and the executive committee continued to work on creating a program curriculum and structure.<sup>47</sup> However, internal differences led to the appearance of two program committees.<sup>48</sup> Committee one, composed of the radical members who demanded a Third World curriculum and college, and an enhanced

Chicana/o Studies Department with a multicultural student service center.<sup>49</sup> This Third World curriculum would offer lower and upper division courses that incorporated interdisciplinary and global paradigms, with sequences examining social institutions, as well as historical cultural expression, technological symbols and concepts.<sup>50</sup> Meanwhile, the second curriculum committee, in opposition to the Third World and radical proposed, designed a counter-insurgency oriented proposal.<sup>51</sup> This second curriculum would offer an interdisciplinary Bachelor of Arts Degree (BA) in Chicana/o Studies, an academic program within an Ethnic Studies department and student resource center.<sup>52</sup> Chancellor Heyes secretly supported the second curriculum committee and worked to undermine the CSM and the Third World proposal. John Waterhouse and Hernandez Chavez were its architects, aimed at mainstreaming the Chicana/o Studies discipline to make it acceptable to the culture of the academy.

By the spring of 1971, the two curriculum committees held a series of political and debates and negotiations with the new Advisory Board.<sup>53</sup> Unfortunately for the Third World interests, the majority of the Advisory Board membership accepted the oppositional committee's perspective.<sup>54</sup> On February 18, 1971, the Council for Special Curricula of the Academic Senate approved the BA in Chicana/o Studies academic program proposal.<sup>55</sup> This ignited another cultural and class internal conflict between CSM and various Advisory Board members, and ultimately forced the resignation of Hernandez Chavez.<sup>56</sup> The Chancellor's office marginalized radicals and the student decision-making body and pressured the Advisory Board to select Jorge Acevedo as the new program coordinator.<sup>57</sup> But the debates between various oppositional faculty

and staff participants continued, leading to the disbandment of the Advisory Board, and forcing the administration to appoint Luz Hernandez as interim program coordinator.<sup>58</sup>

On June 5, 1972, the faculty leadership had an informal sit down with Vice Chancellor John Henry Raleigh, to discuss the future of the Chicana/o Studies academic program.<sup>59</sup> After the meeting, pro-administration faculty and staff members established new policies to ensure the non-existence of student and leftist voices. But radical and student CSM members would continue their opposition to the university administration and its sympathetic faculty who fronted the Chicana/o Studies program. By 1975, the Chicana/o Studies Movement at Berkeley had largely collapsed into a memory of history and a forgotten voice of radical campus politics. A victorious, university administration clustered the four Ethnic Studies programs into a single academic department, and the dream of an autonomous Chicana/o Studies Department seemed improbable. Meanwhile, the interest at UCB in establishing a venue for Chicana/o Studies research had a distinct trajectory.

## EL GRITO AND CHICANA/O STUDIES RESEARCH

Prior to the 1960s, Spanish language publications *El Clamor Publico* and *Regeneracion* emerged to challenge the culture of the empire.<sup>60</sup> Continuing with their influential legacy, Chicana/o Power Movement organizations had created newspapers and tabloid magazines to highlight their political work and struggles.<sup>61</sup> To encourage Chicana/o Studies research and scholarship at UC Berkeley, Octavio I. Romano created *El Grito: A Journal of Contemporary Mexican American Thought*. According to

Chicana/o Studies scholar Michael Soldatenko, "Chicano (a) intellectuals have to wage war against the "intellectual mercenaries," to offer new scholarly perspectives on the Chicana/o population and their experiences.<sup>62</sup> *El Grito* emerged in the midst of local campus activism and published the work of radical and leftist Chicana/o activists and intellectuals. In the fall of 1967, Romano and Nick Vaca edited the inaugural issue of *El Grito*, to formulate debates and challenge the traditionalist and nativist Social Science and Humanities paradigms.<sup>63</sup> Romano and Vaca utilized the opening issue to promote self-consciousness, highlighted by "Minorities, History, and the Cultural Mystique." The article would set the intellectual and ideological discourse for subsequent *El Grito*'s publications.

From 1967 to 1975, Romano wrote some of *El Grito's* most significant scholarly articles. He presented an academic and political dialogue on how Chicana/o Studies scholars should conduct their research and present their scholarly writing.<sup>64</sup> In the Winter 1968-1969 issue, his article "The Historical and Intellectual Presence of Mexican Americans" investigated the importance of Chicana/o contributions in the development of American cultural and political production.<sup>65</sup> He followed up with, "Social Science, Objectivity, and Chicanos," and "The Anthropology and Sociology of the Mexican Americans: The Distortion of Mexican-American History," to argue that confrontationist philosophies and new rhetorical structures would encourage positive symbolic representations of the Chicana/o Studies literature, the culture of the empire and capitalist production could be challenged and discredited.

Co-editor Nick Vaca also proved to be a major contributor to the creation of *El Grito*. In 1970, Vaca wrote an extended article entitled "The Mexican-American in the Social Sciences," which contextualized the Chicana/o political and cultural experience within traditional Social Science disciplines.<sup>67</sup> He offered an ideological analysis on the meaning of the "The Mexican Problem," and Anglo-American nativists' scholarly and journalistic perceptions.<sup>68</sup> Vaca presented a new oppositional methodology and approach to demonstrate how Chicana/o Studies scholars should develop future research and academic scholarship. These articles answered the general question of why a Chicana/o Studies Movement and discipline had to emerge in the academy. During the lifetime of *El Grito*, Chicana/o scholars, professors, students, and community members had the opportunity to showcase their research and offered perspectives that created and broadened Chicana/o Studies scholarship. The creation of *El Grito*, led to the establishment of Quito Sol Publications, which published the early literary works by Chicana/o authors including Tomas Rivera and Rodolfo Anaya.<sup>69</sup>

A major weakness of *El Grito* was that its editors published only a handful of articles by Chicana scholars and failed to address gender issues. Its foremost strengths included the publishing of articles that debated the culture of the empire and contemporary imperial politics. *El Grito* also inspired the origins of *Aztlan Journal, The Journal of Mexican American History*, and other Chicana/o Studies publications. The development of *El Grito* influenced the research scholarship of the UCB Chicana/o Studies Movement. By 1975, internal conflicts had hurt the production of *El Grito*, and led its disbandment, consistent with the decline of the curricular element of the struggle at Berkeley. Along with the clustering of all Ethnic Studies into a single academic

department, *El Grito* had become a historical memory of the first generation of the Chicana/o Studies Movement.

### CONCLUSION

The UCB Chicana/o Studies Movement motivated a culture of activism and political unrest between 1969 and 1975. Internal differences contributed to the downfall of the struggles for academic departments and Third World Colleges nationwide. University administration capacities to create and exploit movements' internal conflicts provided them with the opportunity to control intellectual and political discourses. By clustering all ethnic studies programs, it could prevent third-world radical ideologies from gaining a more solid footing in a Third World College. The unfulfilled promises of a new college and individual Ethnic Studies academic departments influenced the growth and structure of this discipline and profoundly contributed to the decline of the participation by radical Chicana/o Studies Movement actors. Furthermore, *El Grito*'s collapse became the second of the CSM'S defeats. Rodolfo Acuña emphasized, "Academe is a microcosm of society. It creates illusions of self-governance."<sup>70</sup> The case of Berkeley provided further historical evidence on how the culture of the empire challenged and changed the paradigms of the Chicana/o Studies discipline.

Meanwhile a distinct local Chicana/o Studies Movement appeared at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA), under the banner of grassroots ethnic population radicalism.

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#### CHAPTER TWO

# ETHNIC STUDENT RADICALISM: THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, LOS ANGELES, 1965-1980

### INTRODUCTION

Prior to the late 1960s, the miniscule student population of Chicanas/os at major universities was highly marginalized by the culture of the empire.<sup>1</sup> This was the case at the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA), whose intent was not to increase the population of Chicana/o students on their campus or to advance knowledge pertaining to Chicanas/os, but to advocate for the advancement of their highly ranked football and basketball programs. Therefore, UCLA administration invested their efforts in acquiring the most skilled African American and Chicana/o athletes. In support of this argument, Juan Gomez Quinones observed, "At UCLA in the spring of 1967 there were perhaps sixty Mexican American students."<sup>2</sup> Similarly, Rodolfo Acuña emphasized, in The Making of Chicana/o Studies: In the Trenches of Academe, that the University of California (UC) system had historically excluded Chicanas/os from its student admission process.<sup>3</sup> But enrollments did increase, and along with them a proliferation of ethnic student movements on university campuses in California. By 1968, the UCLA campus experienced the emergence of the Chicana/o Studies Movement (CSM). The aftermath of the 1965 Watts Riots in Los Angeles further influenced the formation of the local Chicana/o and Black Power Movements.<sup>4</sup> The formation of the Black Panther Party for Self Defense, Los Angeles Chapter (BBP), increased Black Power politics and ethnic student radicalism on the UCLA campus.<sup>5</sup> Additionally, the 1968 East Los Angeles Walkouts were significant in the bursting forth of the Chicana/o Student Movement at several Southern California universities and community colleges.<sup>6</sup> There was also a cross-fertilization with the Third World radical student's general strike at San Francisco State University (SFSU) and the University of California, Berkeley (UCB).<sup>7</sup> In Southern California, among the most prominent were the Third World student movements on the campuses of University of California, San Diego (UCSD), California State University Northridge, (CSUN), and California State University, Los Angeles (CSULA), all of which challenged the culture of empire.<sup>8</sup>

Chapter two contextualizes the UCLA Chicana/o Studies Movement between 1968 and 1980. It argues that third world and leftist ideologies made possible the establishment of the Chicano Studies Research Center (CSRC). Section one examines the growth of ethnic student radicalism on the UCLA campus during the late 1960s. It focuses on how student activism compelled the university administration to establish the Institute of American Cultures (IAC) in response to massive political unrest. The second section explores how CSM activists participated in community grassroots organizing within the local Chicana/o Power Movements. Section three examines the foundation of CSRC, by demonstrating how the increase of Chicana/o student radicalism and activism enhanced the political orientation of this research center. The last section contextualizes the formation of the Aztlan Journal and its academic influence on the advancement of first generation Chicana/o Studies scholarship. It concludes that internal political conflicts and administrative neglect provided an excuse for the UCLA administration to dismantle the Chicana/o Studies academic program during the late 1980s and early 1990s.

## ETHNIC STUDENT RADICALISM ON THE UCLA CAMPUS

During the 1960s, a major ideological paradigm shift occurred to challenge the culture of the empire and shift the U.S. popular political climate.<sup>9</sup> Radicalism filled the air and activists in working class communities began organizing around burning social problems.<sup>10</sup> Major contributing factors in this political shift included the U.S. imperialist military involvement in Vietnam and the intensification of right wing Cold War politics.<sup>11</sup> Furthermore, the growth of leftist radicalism compelled Civil Rights Movement participants to incorporate new organizational methodologies and ideologies.<sup>12</sup> This shift influenced the 1967-1968 Poor People's Campaign and March Against Poverty on the nation's capital.<sup>13</sup> However, the assassination of Civil Rights leader Martin Luther King Jr., contributed to the decline of this social movement and the rise of cultural nationalism.<sup>14</sup> By mid-1968, ethnic working class population communities had further radicalized their political strategies and established social organizations and collectives. Chicana/o, African American, Asian American, and Native American movements, became the social norm in promoting urban and community uprisings and political activism.15

The increase of ethnic radicalism impacted the subsequent organizational stage of the Chicana/o Student Movement.<sup>16</sup> On March 5, 1968 more than ten thousand Chicana/o students from East Los Angeles, California, conducted a school walkout from five local high schools.<sup>17</sup> This unprecedented activism became known as the 1968 East Los Angeles School Blowout and motivated similar actions cross the nation. In response, purveyors of the culture of empire adopted a counter-insurgency strategy targeting thirteen (13) Blowout organizers in retaliation.<sup>18</sup>

The Black Panther Party for Self Defense (BPP) and the United Slaves Organization (US) also influenced these social and educational movements.<sup>19</sup> In addition, the Black Panther Party Los Angeles Chapter and US had a critical role in formulating the UCLA African American Studies campaign.<sup>20</sup> By late 1968, a small percentage of the ethnic student population had established the UCLA Third World Alliance Movement (TWAM) to demand an Ethnic Studies College, academic departments, and funding for Ethnic Studies research.<sup>21</sup>

In 1969, the UC Board of Regents promoted Dr. Charles Young from Vice Chancellor of Administration to UCLA Chancellor.<sup>22</sup> In theory Chancellor Young supported the concept of diversity and had liberal perspectives than most of his administrative colleagues.<sup>23</sup> Following his inauguration, TWAM conducted a series of discussion gatherings with Chancellor Young, which led to the implementation of the Institute of American Culture (IAC). IAC created the Chicano Studies Research Center (CSRC), the Asian American Studies Research Center (AASRC), the Center for Afro-American Studies (CAAS), and the American Indian Studies Research Center.<sup>24</sup> However, the creation of Ethnic Studies research centers and IAC were not sufficient to prevent further student and political activism in the coming decade.<sup>25</sup>

Meanwhile, internal ideological conflicts arose between student members from US and the BPP over the future direction of the African American Studies department and research center.<sup>26</sup> BPP student activists advocated a Black revolutionary and class ideology, whereas the US fraction demanded cultural nationalist and Pan Africanist focus.<sup>27</sup> On January 17, 1969, their political conflict became violent as a shootout occurred during an African American Studies planning meeting at Campbell Hall.<sup>28</sup> This

was highlighted by the death of two BPP members, John Huggins and Bunchy Carter, and intensified the internal struggle between both political collectives.<sup>29</sup> It also compelled Black Student Union (BSU) actors to recommend the appointment of Acting Assistant Professor Robert Singleton as the first director of the Center for African American Studies (CAAS).<sup>30</sup> However, Singleton decided to hold separate conversations with the student leaders from the BPP and US before accepting this academic position.<sup>31</sup>

During the fall of 1969, the Department of Philosophy hired Angela Davis as an Assistant Professor of Philosophy expecting she would also assist in the development of CAAS and the African American Studies program.<sup>32</sup> However, Governor Ronald Reagan rejected the hiring of Davis because of her membership in the Communist Party USA and the Black Panther Party, and pressured the University of California Board of Regents to block her professorship appointment.<sup>33</sup> Davis successfully appealed the decision and was allowed to teach her courses for the rest of the academic year.<sup>34</sup> The CAAS founding Advisory Board created a Defense Committee to save Davis's appointment.<sup>35</sup> Singleton and Hank McGee conducted a meeting with the UC Board of Regents in San Francisco, California to dispute Davis' dismissal.<sup>36</sup> However, Davis was unable to remain at UCLA. She was forced into hiding after being falsely charged with conspiracy for her affiliation with Black Panther Party members involved in the Marin County Courthouse incident. Eventually she was brought to trial and exonerated.<sup>37</sup> But the attack on the left had accomplished its purpose, and Ethnic Studies as well as mainstream departments were pressured not to hire radical and leftist professors, especially activists and the outspoken.

For most of the 1970s, the four UCLA Ethnic Studies Research Centers confronted lack of institution funding, misleading administration promises and internal political differences.<sup>38</sup> Conflicts between student activists, organizers, faculty and administrators delayed formulating academic programs and departments.<sup>39</sup> Despite his rhetorical support for the illusive concept of diversity, Chancellor Young had failed to provide institutional development funding, or leadership, on a bridge between the Third World Alliance Movement and the university administration.<sup>40</sup> Advocates for Chicana/o Studies, Asian American Studies, Native American Studies, and African American Studies struggled to establish stable academic programs.<sup>41</sup> However, through the four research centers, they allowed Young and promising ethnic population researchers to publish their scholarly work that never had interested traditional academic journals.<sup>42</sup> Furthermore, The Third World Alliance Movement because it permitted increased Chicana/o student participation.

# **GRASSROOT ACTIVISM AND UCLA CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT**

Grassroots activism at UCLA had both campus and local community roots. During the early 1960s, United Mexican American Students (UMAS) and Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlan (MEChA) emerged on to the UCLA campus as the leading Chicana/o student organizations.<sup>43</sup> More significantly, the Los Angeles and Southern California Chicana/o working class communities have had a long history of student and political activism.<sup>44</sup>

Many Chicana/o Studies Movement actors were involved in the Brown Berets, La Raza Unida Party (LRUP), National Chicano Moratorium Committee (NCMC), and the Centro de Accion Social Autonoma-Hermandad de General de Trabajadores (CASA).<sup>45</sup> Even earlier, in the 1930s and 1940s, the Mexican American Movement (MAM) organized local Chicana/o youth and students.<sup>46</sup> Several local Chicana/o Power and Student Movement actors were former members of MAM. The formation of UMAS and MEChA influenced the UCLA Chicana/o Studies Movement, but the larger Chicana/o Power Movements beyond the ivory tower guided the political ideological framework and organizational direction.<sup>47</sup> As a result, CSM participants became involved in the Brown Berets, La Raza Unida Party (LRUP), the National Chicano Moratorium Committee (NCMC), and the Centro de Accion Social Autonoma-Hermandad de General de Trabajadores (CASA).<sup>48</sup>

In 1967, the Brown Berets established their first chapter in East Los Angeles, with the general objective of serving as a community peace group to combat police brutality and create local community survival programs.<sup>49</sup> The Brown Berets were critical in supporting Chicana/o students because they provided leadership and organizational guidance.<sup>50</sup> In 1969 UCLA students Rosalio Munoz and Ramses Noriega, along with others, founded the National Chicano Moratorium Committee (NCMC) to protest the Vietnam War.<sup>51</sup> The NCMC organized two major national antiwar community moratoriums, on February 28, 1970, and August 29, 1970.<sup>52</sup> The August 29 gathering, became the largest and bloodiest Chicana/o Power Movement activity, as police attacked a peaceful crowd and murdered Los Angeles Times reporters, Ruben Salazar, Angel Diaz, and Brown Beret Lyn Ward.<sup>53</sup> Nevertheless, the community organizations

inspired the CSM to engage in a struggle with the university administration at UCLA, to attain an academic department.

In 1970, La Raza Unida Party (LRUP) was established as an independent political third party, to challenge the two-party system and to attain working class control in Chicana/o communities.<sup>54</sup> La Raza Unida Party established chapters in East Los Angeles, West Los Angeles, the City of Terrence, San Fernando, La Puente, and other Southern California locations.<sup>55</sup> Their efforts later made possible the running of candidates for elected public office.<sup>56</sup> LRUP also provided grassroots organizational training for UCLA Chicana/o students and activists.<sup>57</sup> The relationship at the local community level between LRUP and the CSM helped the struggle for a Chicana/o Studies department at UCLA. In 1968, Centro de Accion Social Autonoma-Hermandad (CASA HGT) de General de Trabajadores formed, addressing the important Mexican migration and immigration issues. It was the first organization of the Chicana/o Power Movement to link itself directly to political struggles on both sides of the U.S./Mexico border.<sup>58</sup> Most importantly, CASA created the symbolic slogans "Somos un Pueblo Sin Fronteras" ("We Are A People Without Borders and We Do Not Crossed the Border, the Border Crosses Us"), which became a cultural icon for the immigration rights movement.<sup>59</sup> In the early 1970s, CASA faced a major split among membership, based on organizational and ideological differences.<sup>60</sup> Some of the members preferred to focus exclusively on migrant advocacy work, while others sought to pursue a more radical Marxist collective.<sup>61</sup> As a result, a number of UCLA Chicana/o Studies Movement actors took over the political framework of CASA.<sup>62</sup> Furthermore, action by CASA leaders in pursuit of power, domination, and grassroots leadership had created irreparable

fractions within the CSM.<sup>63</sup> But, CASA politically influenced the struggle at UCLA for an academic department throughout the 1970s.

Participation by Chicana/o students in community grassroots activist movements, greatly contributed to their own organizational skills and outlook, and furthered the evolution of the Chicana/o Power Movement.<sup>64</sup> However, internal conflicts and unrealistic objectives within the community leadership weakened CSM campus organizing.<sup>65</sup> The CSM framework of combining community and campus, to balance the university and community demands, caused a high burnout rate among active participants.<sup>66</sup> Thus the different demands of CASA and the student collectives became a major factor in the decline of this social movement.<sup>67</sup> Yet, community engagement and activism were critical in the political and ideological advancement of the UCLA Chicana/o Studies Movement.

#### THE ORIGINS OF THE CHICANO STUDIES RESEARCH CENTER

In 1968, the United Mexican American Students and the Black Student Union formed a political alliance, to engage with the university administration in the creation and implementation of Ethnic Studies academic departments.<sup>68</sup> Three steering committees were formed to focus on politics, curriculum design, and research and publication.<sup>69</sup> On June 29, 1968, an all-day conference was held to further create a political ideology and practical strategies, to serve as a vehicle for the UCLA Ethnic Studies Movement.<sup>70</sup> Shortly, after this conference, Asian American and Native American radical students joined the alliance.<sup>71</sup> In 1969, under Chancellor Young's

diversity initiatives, the Chicano Studies Research Center was established as an academic unit to promote and develop new research and publications of the Chicana/o population and their experiences.<sup>72</sup> The newly formed CSRC recruited Chicana/o faculty and students to assist in the structuring of the Center's mission statement.<sup>73</sup> By the summer of 1970, CSRC founding members had adopted general objectives and learning outcomes to guide future projects and position papers.<sup>74</sup> In 1971, a major change to enhance the CSRC mission for the historical and cultural preservation of the Chicana/o working class community, led to the incorporation of interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary methodologies and approaches.<sup>75</sup> It also created a venue for publications and public policy briefs in order to achieve this new research objective.<sup>76</sup>

In its first five years, the Chicano Studies Research Center successfully established a scholarly journal, a research library, and organized conferences and panel discussions.<sup>77</sup> Chicana/o Power Movement activists and organizers including Rodolfo "Corky" Gonzales, Jose Angel Gutierrez, Ernesto Galarza, Cesar Chavez, and Bert Corona, appeared and presented their viewpoints.<sup>78</sup> Between 1969 and 1974, the CSRC had a three-faculty member committee, and acting directors who administered the research center.<sup>79</sup> The leadership and decision making body was composed of faculty, plus undergraduate and graduate students.<sup>80</sup> Each group held a political and organizational perspective on the academic director, and with the CSRC leadership, he created a Chicana/o Studies academic program and department proposal supporting the CSM struggle with the university administration.<sup>82</sup> In 1975, CSRC produced a five-year governance report on its growth and accomplishments, and the new objectives

focused on creating research publications and materials, curriculum development at the graduate and undergraduate levels, and support for Chicana/o Studies beyond of the UCLA campus.<sup>83</sup>

In 1978, CSRC wrote a second annual report that highlighted a new set of objective and learning outcomes.<sup>84</sup> The changes made to the vision statement ultimately misrepresented the purpose and research agenda of the Chicana/o Studies Research Center.<sup>85</sup> This modification greatly affected the realization of a Chicana/o Studies Department and contributed to the decline of Chicana/o radicalism and leftist politics on the UCLA campus for the greater part of the twentieth century.<sup>86</sup> Consequently, the university administration would utilize this opportunity to modify the four Ethnic Studies research centers leadership by appointing oppositional and reactionary faculty and students in various positions.<sup>87</sup> Even though CSRC was able to make scholarly contributions to the first generation of Chicana/o Studies scholarship, CSM would regrettably fail to reach its full potential.<sup>88</sup>

### AZTLAN JOURNAL AND CSRC PUBLICATIONS

In 1969, CSRC and various CSM members established *Aztlan* Publications, which led to the birth of *Aztlan: Chicano Journal of Social Sciences and Arts.*<sup>89</sup> This publication became a beacon of Chicana/o Studies scholarship and non-scholarly articles. The editorship and leadership of Juan Gomez Quinones, Roberto Sifuentes, Reynaldo Macias, and others, influenced the first stage of production through the creation of core principles.<sup>90</sup> According to *Aztlan Journal* Mission Statement:

"AZTLAN introduces a vital self-sustaining analytical and philosophical dialogue on issues involving Chicanos. It stated objectives are (1) to encourage and support research in all areas of knowledge relevant to the Chicano community (2) to assist in developing programs and research focusing the unique resources of the University on problems of the Chicano community (3) to assist in developing new curriculum and bibliographical materials dealing with the culture, history and problems of the Chicanos (4) to actively engage in furthering the involvement of the University of California with the Chicano community".<sup>91</sup>

This editorial declaration argued that *Aztlan Journal* would provide philosophical and analytical perspectives of the Chicana/o population and their experiences. These general outcomes and objectives would allow first generational Chicana/o Studies scholars and activists to publish in a non-traditional environment. This mission statement would become the founding document and motivational drive for the majority of issues published in the early 1970s.<sup>92</sup>

In the spring of 1970, the first issue of *Aztlan Journal* became a reality and impacted the growth of Chicana/o Studies scholarly literature. Fernando Penalosa's "Toward an Operational Definition of the Mexican American" (1970), opened a new series in which various labels and stereotypes of the Chicana/o population and their experiences were defined and examined.<sup>93</sup> Meanwhile, Ronald W. Lopez in "The El Monte Berry Strike of 1933" (1970), argued that Chicanos/o had an organizational impact on the 1933 agricultural labor strikes. Both articles highlighted the new scholarship created by *Aztlan Journal* throughout the early developmental years. The next issues published three critical articles that showcased its mission. Carlos E. Cortes's "CHICOP: A Response to the Challenge of Local Chicano History" (1970) examined the evolution of local and regional Chicana/o Studies historical literature.<sup>94</sup> The article became a primary example on how *Aztlan Journal* would publish future articles throughout the early 1970s. Carlos Munoz's "Toward A Chicano Perspective of

Political Analysis," was a second essential article in the fall 1970 issue.<sup>95</sup> He argued for a political and ideological voice as necessary for the Chicana/o Studies discipline within the academy. Lastly, Raymond A. Rocco's "The Chicano In Concepts, Myths, and Images" (1970) impacted the general outcomes of this critical issue.<sup>96</sup> He developed a new ideology on cultural production and the concept of symbolic representations, and he would impact future *Aztlan Journal* articles. The Munoz and Rocco articles provided excellent contemporary anticolonialist and imperialist analysis on the Chicana/o experience. Ultimately, these initial publications set the foundational framework that would enhance and promote Chicana/o Studies scholarly and popular literature.

In the spring 1971 issue, another article provided an anti-imperialist and counter hegemonic perspective. Tomas Almaguer's "Toward the Study of Chicano Colonialism" (1971), argued that the internal colonial model was the most appropriate framework to contextualize the Chicana/o political and cultural experience.<sup>97</sup> Almaguer asserted that Robert Blauner's work on the concept of internal colonialism influenced first-generation Chicana/o Studies scholars, and the intellectual and ideological development of early Chicana/o Studies internal-colony model. In the next issue published, Juan Gomez Quinones's article, "Toward A Perspective on Chicano History" (1971), contextualized Chicana/o Studies historiography, and argued that conceptualizing the Chicana/o experience challenged the hegemonic perspectives of the culture of the empire.<sup>98</sup> This was the first historiographical essay published in *Aztlan Journal*.

The spring and fall 1974 issues exclusively focused on Chicana/o political and organizational engagement. Armando Navarro's, "The Evolution of Chicano Politics" (1974), examined the historical development of Chicana/o politics in the culture of

empire from 1846 to 1972.<sup>99</sup> Navarro argued that the Chicana/o population experienced a political evolution of social change through four historical stages of civil engagement and radical resistance since 1848. Despite its length and lack of elaboration on the future of the Chicana/o participation in mainstream electoral politics, it was one of the first on politics, and motivated other first-generation Chicana/o Studies scholars to investigate the topic. Another pioneer article in this issue was Adalijiza Soza Riddel's, "Chicanas and El Movimiento" (1974), which contextualized the political and cultural responsibility of Chicana women in a social movement.<sup>100</sup> She suggested a solution to political divisions between males and females in the Chicana/o Power Movement. Critics focused on its lack of in-depth political analysis on Chicana women and gender issues.

My focus on these articles is not meant to dismiss other early scholarship in the two academic journals. However, my concern is the importance that these articles offered the superb counter hegemonic perspectives published in *Aztlan Journal*. By 1975, the termination of *El Grito Journal* allowed *Aztlan Journal* to become the premier Chicana/o Studies scholarly publication. Chicana/o Studies academic journals were limited in number due to the decline of activism and political radicalism. Despite the appearance of a handful of short-lived publications in the early 1970s, such as the *Journal of Mexican American History, Aztlan Journal* held a special place in early Chicana/o Studies scholarship.

### CONCLUSION

In the late 1960s, ethnic people's community radicalism inspired the UCLA Chicana/o Studies and Ethnic Studies movements. Internal differences promoted by the university administration and struggles, thwarted the implementation of a Chicana/o Studies Department and restricted the autonomy of the governing structure and the intellectual and political discourse of the CSRC. Chancellor Young then utilized the establishment of Ethnic Studies research centers so as to prevent the CSM from establishing a Chicana/o Studies Department, which limited the autonomy and scope of Chicana/o Studies as an academic discipline. The CSM declined significantly within Chicana/o faculty, students, and community members in the coming decade. Additionally, the ideological and political shift of Aztlán Journal and the CSRC during the late 1970s further hindered the realization of a Chicana/o Studies Department. Yet, the development of Chicana/o Studies research model at UCLA would find more success than UC Berkeley's attempt to establish an independent research center. Specifically, UCLA's administration would attempt to cluster all of the Ethnic Studies academic programs and units into one single department, but in the end they would fail to gain the upper hand. The details of this struggle provided further evidence for how the bearers of the culture of the empire attacked the Chicana/o Studies Movement. Furthermore, throughout the late 1980s and early 1990s, the state of California would face a recession and an economic budget crisis, which would allow Chancellor Young to impose a political disbandment on all of UCLA's Ethnic Studies academic programs and research units. Meanwhile, Chicana/o students, faculty, and community members would regroup and unite to stop this political crusade, and once again call for the creation of a

Chicana/o Studies Department. In 2005, after thirty-five years of political struggle, they forced the university administration to establish an academic department. The UCLA research model would further assist the advancement of Chicana/o Studies research and scholarly publications in the subsequent four decades.

As in Los Angeles, early community and student radicalism inspired struggles elsewhere, as will be seen with the Chicana/o Studies Movement in the Pacific Northwest that would take root at the University of Washington.

**ENDNOTES** 

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#### CHAPTER THREE

# STUDENT RADICALISM AND ACTIVISM: THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON, 1968-1980

#### INTRODUCTION

During the last two decades of the nineteenth century, Washington State became a major agricultural belt due to the advancement of technology as well as a new modern commercial and industrial farming structure.<sup>1</sup> In 1902, the construction of the irrigation system occurred in the areas of Yakima, Wenatchee, and Okanogan Valleys.<sup>2</sup> This new farming system required the use of European, Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, and Mexican immigrant and working-class laborers.<sup>3</sup> This inexpensive workforce was subject to repressed and harsh conditions by the growers.<sup>4</sup> In response, farm workers union organizing emerged unsuccessfully in Washington State for most of the early twentieth century.<sup>5</sup> In an attempt to prevent agricultural labor strikes and organizing, the United States government and the Washington State growers utilized the Bi-National Agreement of 1941 (Bracero Program) to recruit Mexican guest workers from Mexico.<sup>6</sup> This guest worker program increased the Mexican population to the Pacific Northwest in record numbers, and created new working-class community settlements in Seattle, the Yakima Valley, Quincy, the Othello Region, and other locations in Washington State.<sup>7</sup>

With the increase in Mexican migration and immigration settlements, racism and class segregation simultaneously occurred by the hegemonic process.<sup>8</sup> For instance, the Mexican population was labeled as a problem and threat to American popular cultural production and practices.<sup>9</sup> In response to this nativism and subjectivism,

Mexicans established mutual aid societies and civil rights organizations.<sup>10</sup> These social organizations combated the racism, and developed support networks to increase community activism and engagement within the Mexican population.<sup>11</sup> The Spanish American Club, the Latin American Association, Mexican American Federation, The Yakima Valley Council for Community Action, and other organizations were created to help highlight the social and economic problems and issues within communities.<sup>12</sup> The growth of Washington State Mexican American generation politics influenced the future development of social and community activism and radicalism in the late 1960s and 1970s.<sup>13</sup>

Throughout the late 1960s, the University of Washington (UW) was a major geographical center for the Chicana/o Studies Movement (CSM), influenced by the long presence of working-class radicalism throughout the Pacific Northwest.<sup>14</sup> Several local Chicano Power Movements had emerged in the state of Washington, primarily in the Seattle metropolitan area and the Yakima Valley. In 1966, Yakima Valley students Tomas Villanueva and Guadalupe Gamboa conducted a series of meetings with the United Farm Workers of America (UFW) and labor organizer Cesar Chavez, to organize the farm workers movement locally. This led to the establishment of chapters of the Brown Berets in the Yakima Valley, Seattle, and other locations in the Pacific Northwest. By the early 1970s, Brown Berets Seattle chapter had reached 200 active members, who assisted in establishing the community and cultural center of El Centro de La Raza and the SeaMar Community Clinics. In the Yakima Valley, the Brown Berets collaborated with the United Farm Workers Union in developing La Raza Unida Party (LRUP) and the Yakima Farm Worker Clinic.<sup>15</sup> In 1971, Chicana/o students and

community youth participated in the UFW Yakima Valley Hop Worker Strike and voluntarily ran electoral candidates for local and state public office under the La Raza Unida Party banner. The increase of local Chicana/o community radicalism and activism inspired the birth of the UW Chicana/o Studies Movement because of their involvement in both social movements.

Chapter Three examines the rise and decline of the University of Washington Chicana/o Studies Movement between the years of 1968 and 1980. It argues that the CSM emerged in part due to the growth of local Chicana/o community radicalism and activism throughout the Pacific Northwest. Section one investigates student activism and radicalism on the UW campus. The second section critically analyzes the political struggle and academic landscape of the CSM on the Seattle campus. Finally, I examine struggles that forced UW's Chicana/o Studies and other Ethnic Studies disciplines to merge into a single American Ethnic Studies Department.

#### STUDENT ACTIVISM AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

In the 1960s, radical student movements had emerged on the University of Washington campus, which soon formed a local chapter of Students for a Democratic Society (SDS). This chapter organized middle-class Anglo American students to combat the Cold War Era politics of the UW administration and Board of Regents.<sup>16</sup> Marches, sit-ins, educational forums, and other political activities marked a new culture of activism and leftist politics.<sup>17</sup> It increased SDS membership, which established a working relationship with the Draft Resistance of Seattle to coordinate an Anti-Vietnam War educational campaign.<sup>18</sup> The local radical social movements and Third World

movements had spread student activism, as well as resistance, popular throughout the state of Washington.<sup>19</sup> The Black Power Movement organized on the UW campus to gain an academic space for the local African American working-class community.<sup>20</sup> This student radicalism expanded the ethnic student population and changed the campus climate.<sup>21</sup>

By 1968, the Afro-American Student Society (AASS), the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee, Seattle chapter (SNCC), and the Black Panther Party, Seattle chapter (BBP) combined efforts to develop a Black Student Union (BSU) chapter.<sup>22</sup> On May 6, 1968, the new BSU chapter sent a letter to University President Dr. Charles Odegaared, addressing their educational concerns, including the need to increase recruitment of ethnic population students, the development of an African American Studies curriculum, and the establishment of an Ethnic Studies Planning Committee.<sup>23</sup> Four days later, representatives from BSU met with President Odegaared, seeking to create and promote a peaceful solution.<sup>24</sup> However, they only reached a preliminary agreement, while Odegaared failed to address the future hiring of African American Studies and Ethnic Studies faculty, thus causing a need to hold future meetings to resolve this issue.<sup>25</sup>

In subsequent sessions, Black Student Union members Nathan Ware and James Garrett met with university representatives from the Anthropology, Art, English, History, Music, Psychology, and Sociology Departments to discuss curriculum for the foundation of the African American Studies program.<sup>26</sup> On May 20, 1968, the BSU wrote another letter to President Odegaared demanding the allocation of fifty thousand dollars to implement the program, but their request was ignored.<sup>27</sup> In response, the following day,

BSU members took over President Odegaared's office suite, and more than one hundred fifty students occupied his administrative headquarters.<sup>28</sup> Sit-in organizers sought to pressure UW leadership to uphold the promises made and agreed upon during the May 6 meeting, and their efforts forced Odegaared to sign a new agreement with BSU.<sup>29</sup> However, the university administration used mainstream media to deny that the deciding factor for the change in UW's position was the direct result of the political action taken against the culture of the empire.<sup>30</sup> This event made President Odegaared address racial and class inequalities that had been ingrained on campus throughout the early twentieth century.<sup>31</sup> As a result, political activism had increased the growth of the ethnic student population and the ideological development of Ethnic Studies academic programs at UW.<sup>32</sup> BSU and radical activism also contributed to the unfolding of the University of Washington Chicana/o Studies Movement.

## THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT

In the summer of 1968, BSU members traveled to the Yakima Valley to assist in the recruitment of twenty-five (25) Chicana/o students for the fall of 1968.<sup>33</sup> Most students arrived at UW with political and community organizational experience.<sup>34</sup> The Yakima Valley became the recruiting hub for most of the first wave of Chicana/o students who attended the University of Washington. On October 1, 1968, United Mexican American Students (UMAS) appeared on the University of Washington campus to challenge the traditional hegemonic academic complex and engage in a struggle for educational rights.<sup>35</sup> UMAS had successfully increased Chicana/o radical student activism and made UW's Chicana/o Studies Movement a political reality.<sup>36</sup> The spread

of the Chicana/o Power Movement throughout the state of Washington added to the expansion and experience of this student campus organization.<sup>37</sup> The organizing of the UFW grape boycott and the local farm workers union, further motivated the appearance of UMAS, many of whose members participated in the agricultural labor struggle.<sup>38</sup> By the end of 1968, UMAS made political alliances with several radical and ethnic student organizations, and together they established a united front between the Black Student Union and the Students for a Democratic Society, and the Young Socialist Alliance (YSA).<sup>39</sup> This new political alliance helped UMAS to organize a political and activist cultural environment.<sup>40</sup> The local Brown Berets chapter also assisted in developing a radical student grassroots organizational strategy for UMAS to utilize to engage the university administration.<sup>41</sup>

According to Gilberto Garcia, "Chicana/o students played an important role in leading the grape boycott through the work of UMAS." <sup>42</sup> In fact, UMAS formed a local United Farm Workers of America Grape Boycott and Committee on the UW campus and it utilized new radical and student alliances to publicize this grassroots crusade.<sup>43</sup> The boycott was initiated as part of a nationwide organizational effort by UFW to attain a labor contract for grape workers in Delano, California.<sup>44</sup> Most of the first wave of UW's Chicana/o students had come from migrant families and had worked in the agricultural fields.<sup>45</sup> UMAS' purpose for this political movement was to support the farm workers' demands and encourage a growth in student and community activism.<sup>46</sup> For the remainder of that fall quarter, the boycott remained their major campus political activity.<sup>47</sup> On November 14, 1968, various campus members and students organized a four-day fast as an organizational strategy to promote the farm workers struggle.<sup>48</sup> This

hunger strike would lead to the grape boycott becoming a primary issue and a campus direct action for the coming year.<sup>49</sup>

During the winter quarter of 1969, the UW Young Republicans (YR) politically attacked the grape boycott by hosting a series of campus events.<sup>50</sup> On January 10, 1969, the YR organized a political event in which three major Delano grape growers were invited onto campus to present their hegemonic viewpoints.<sup>51</sup> In response, the boycott supporters organized a counter protest to challenge the Young Republicans ideology and perspective.<sup>52</sup> Consequently, this became a new political struggle between YR and the local Grape Boycott Planning Committee (GBPC).<sup>53</sup> Twelve days later, the two groups went head-to-head at a special Husky Union Building (HUB) Advisory Board meeting to present their individualized views on the distribution of table grapes across UW.<sup>54</sup> This forced the Grape Boycott Planning Committee to organize a political campaign against the HUB and the university administration.<sup>55</sup> A few days later, GBPC conducted a hundred person picket line outside the HUB with the objective of introducing a campaign to boycott all of UW campus food services.<sup>56</sup> A HUB boycott coalition was then established among various radical student organizations to pressure the university leadership into resolving this critical issue.<sup>57</sup>

The newly formed coalition prearranged daily political activities to increase the support of the student body.<sup>58</sup> On February 5, 1969, the Graduate and Professional Student Senate and Residence Hall Council officially joined the HUB boycott as major organizational members.<sup>59</sup> In the following days, the university administration conducted special meetings to offer a compromise to end the boycott.<sup>60</sup> On February 17, after a series of diplomatic talks, UW administration made a public announcement that

California's table grapes would not be sold in the HUB for the remainder of the growing season.<sup>61</sup> The local UFW grape boycott campaign had influenced the ideological foundation of UMAS and had provided a radical testing ground for future campus political activities.<sup>62</sup>

UMAS' first major direct action promoted a new organizational framework in the following years.<sup>63</sup> To begin, the UFW grape boycott campaign would politically empower Chicana/o student radicalism to force the University of Washington to become the first major university to discontinue the sale of all types of table grapes.<sup>64</sup> This political struggle catapulted UMAS into a leading radical organization on campus.<sup>65</sup> In the spring of 1969, the local Grape Boycott Planning Committee and UMAS decided to focus their efforts in the working-class communities of the Seattle metropolitan area, by organizing political protests outside local Safeway grocery stores and hosting community informational events.<sup>66</sup> The general purpose of shifting the grape boycott to the community-at-large was to pressure local and national businesses to stop the sale of table grapes and to support the California agricultural grape workers.<sup>67</sup> This shift also allowed UMAS to build a grassroots working-class political base beyond the university.<sup>68</sup>

Meanwhile, UMAS continued to conduct a series of general membership meetings to implement a new political and practical structure, through a merger with Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlán (MEChA).<sup>69</sup> For the remainder of the spring quarter, MEChA de UW organized and participated in various events throughout the Yakima Valley, and La Escuelita project in Granger, Washington.<sup>70</sup> Also, this MEChA chapter sponsored a High School Student Conference in Toppenish, Washington, which focused on the recruitment of future Chicana/o students for the upcoming academic

year.<sup>71</sup> Meanwhile on campus, MEChA de UW had organized a political educational action for the Crusade For Justice, chairman Rodolfo "Corky" Gonzales, and helped Eloy Apodaca become the first Chicana/o student elected to the Associated Students of University of Washington (ASUW) Board of Control.<sup>72</sup> This new political identity shaped the UW Chicana/o Studies Movement.<sup>73</sup>

MEChA de UW organizational development and work in the spring quarter of 1969 was essential in the ensuing political battle to attain a Chicana/o Studies Department.<sup>74</sup> By the summer of 1969, a Chicana/o Studies proposal was created and submitted to the Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences.<sup>75</sup> The proposal led to the establishment of a Chicana/o Studies Curriculum and Advisory Committee. This committee, along with CSM, created a ten-point platform that became the key arguing points for the increase in admissions of Chicana/o students as well as the full financial support of the Chicana/o Studies academic and student service program.<sup>76</sup> CSM and the Chicana/o Studies Curriculum and Advisory Committee spent most of the summer months developing organizational and practical steps in preparation of the anticipated Chicana/o Studies political struggle with the university administration.<sup>77</sup>

In the fall of 1969, the UW Chicana/o Studies Movement entered a second stage of political and ideological transformation.<sup>78</sup> CSM developed a mission statement that stated:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Chicano Studies cannot be meaningful if it is confined to the time and space of a university campus. Chicano Studies must address itself to the problems of the community (high rates of infant mortality, low levels of education, high drop-out rates in school, chronic unemployment and psychical violence). A general goal of Chicano studies is to produce community leaders and workers who are aware of and familiar with, community problems."<sup>79</sup>

This critical mission statement would become a major political factor in shifting the organizational focus from the grape boycott to the Chicana/o Studies Movement.<sup>80</sup> As a result, CSM spent the next two quarters struggling with the university administration in the quest to get an academic department proposal accepted and to attain faculty tenure-track lines.<sup>81</sup>

In order to build support, the CSM networked with various ethnic populations and radical student organizations outside their usual grassroots political base.<sup>82</sup> This effort gained support from the BSU, SDS, and various student groups, to strengthen the struggle for the establishment of a Chicana/o Studies Department.<sup>83</sup> Equally, regional and national Chicana/o Power Movement organizations and networks were called upon as reinforcement in the political battle with the UW administration.<sup>84</sup> The extended outreach paid off in gathering letters and organizational solidarity beyond UW and Seattle.<sup>85</sup> With all of the campus, regional, and national pressure, the university leadership agreed to implement a Chicana/o Studies academic program and planning curriculum committee for the 1970-1971 academic year.<sup>86</sup> During the fall guarter of 1970, the Chicana/o Studies Curriculum and Advisory Committee faced new political challenges with the university administration.<sup>87</sup> On November 30, 1970, Antonio G. Cardenas sent a memo to all CSM members requesting a December emergency meeting at the residence of Tomas Ybarra Frausto.<sup>88</sup> The purpose of the assembly was to address the lack of respect from the UW administration and create new political and organizational strategies for the upcoming 1971 winter guarter.<sup>89</sup>

Concurrently, the National Concilio of Chicana/o Studies conducted a meeting with CSM representatives to discuss the possibility of hosting a three-day national

conference at UW.90 The outcome of this gathering led to the submission and acceptance of a National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) grant, which provided funding for the June 23-25 1971, UW Chicana/o Studies National Conference.<sup>91</sup> Their objective was to strengthen the Chicana/o Studies Movement across the nation and create a network of communication to develop a cooperative curriculum and organizational structure.<sup>92</sup> Furthermore, this national conference would expand the drive to create a Chicana/o Studies Department.<sup>93</sup> Prior to the national conference, two different organizational strategies were utilized to demand the university administration fully fund and hire an academic program director.<sup>94</sup> Specifically, on February 23, 1971, a proposal was submitted to transform the Chicana/o Studies program into the El Centro de Estudios Chicanos, which was influenced by the UCLA Chicano Studies Research Center's ideological model, and became a model in the development of this new proposal.95 The El Centro de Estudios Chicanos mission statement argued that CSM should merge the various collectives into six areas.<sup>96</sup> The suggestion of the clustering of CSM's membership and committees enhanced their political argument. However, the university administration failed to acknowledge the new El Centro de Estudios Chicanos proposal.97

The second part of the strategy was to exercise a radical grassroots approach by establishing MEChA de UW as the student wing to organize massive protests, events, and meetings in an effort to resolve this critical issue.<sup>98</sup> The activists spent the 1970-1971 academic year in struggles, without favorable results or outcomes.<sup>99</sup> As an effort to improve their organizational strategies, a series of meetings took place throughout the summer months.<sup>100</sup> Once the new academic year emerged, the University of

Washington admitted a new group of Chicana/o students.<sup>101</sup> With this growth, they increased the demand for a Chicana/o Studies Center, which became the primary focus for all the CSM members.<sup>102</sup> The 1971 fall quarter was mostly consumed with planning new political strategies to confront the university administration for the academic year.<sup>103</sup> Then, on March 1972, MEChA de UW conducted a public protest and moratorium to stress the pressing need to hire and recruit Chicana/o faculty.<sup>104</sup> The CSM spent most of the 1972 spring quarter working on a campaign to attain Chicana/o Studies faculty tenure-track lines.<sup>105</sup> By the end of the academic year, CSM's members became very irritated with the university administration's continual disrespect and lack of funding appropriation.<sup>106</sup>

In the 1972 fall quarter, CSM created a Chicana/o Studies academic program status report in an effort to direct future organizational work.<sup>107</sup> Meanwhile, UW's President's Advisory Committee on Cross-Disciplinary Studies and Vice Provost of Special Programs, Theresa Aragon de Shepro, developed a counter Ethnic Studies Center proposal.<sup>108</sup> In theory, the development of an Ethnic Studies Center might enhance this academic discipline, however it followed the common practice of cluttering all ethnic studies programs into a single department to weakened them all, as was the case at the University of California, Berkeley.<sup>109</sup> The administration proposal undermined CSM political autonomy and forced the continuation of the head-to-head conflict with the university's leadership, oppositional faculty, and staff supporters for the next two years.<sup>110</sup>

During the 1973-1974 academic year, one joint Chicana/o Studies and Political Science tenure-track faculty line was granted by the administration.<sup>111</sup> After conducting

a nationwide search, the selection committee decided to hire Dr. Carlos Munoz as the first full-time Chicana/o Studies faculty member. However, the UW administration rejected Munoz because of his radical political history and lack of published scholarship in established academic journals.<sup>112</sup> This led to a mass demonstration and sit-in on May 13, 1974 at the office of Dr. George Beckmann, Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences.<sup>113</sup> Beckmann promised to appoint a Chicana/o associate dean to develop an academic program, which would have become the first program academic tenured-faculty professorship.<sup>114</sup> However, he quickly broke his promise and forced a change in CSM's political direction for the 1974-1975 academic year.<sup>115</sup>

Meanwhile, critical race legal scholar Richard Delgado was denied an appointmentship as Assistant Professor at the UW School of Law.<sup>116</sup> However, in response to political pressure from the CSM, the law school faculty reversed its earlier denial.<sup>117</sup> In the meantime Delgado accepted a position at Santa Clara University Law School and declined the UW offer.<sup>118</sup> A second major political battle would take place over Dean Beckmann's false promises.<sup>119</sup> Previously, the dean had rejected four qualified Chicana/o applicants from a general faculty hiring short list.<sup>120</sup> On April 29, 1975, eight Chicana/o Studies staff and students met with Beckmann to discuss the selection process for the Associate Dean.<sup>121</sup> The meeting proved to be unsuccessful as Beckmann claimed that CSM's radical tactics jeopardized his well-being.<sup>122</sup> As a direct result, Beckmann attempted to dismantle the ever-growing Chicana/o Studies Movement on campus.<sup>123</sup>

On April 30, 1975, President John Hogness issued a personal statement directing all UW students and employees to cease the interrupting of all university

courses, gatherings, and administrative meetings.<sup>124</sup> The following day, the UW student newspaper, *The Daily* published Hogness's political statement. In response to the president's disposition, five hundred copies of *The Daily* were collected and burned in a campus garbage bin, as a show of protest.<sup>125</sup> On May 2nd, Beckmann vowed to resign his current position if President Hogness failed to provide any campus police or political support.<sup>126</sup> Four days later, the university administration fired Chicana/o Studies Director Genaro Padilla and staff member Juan Sanchez, along with suspended staff member Rosa Morales, for their participation in the April 29 meeting at Dean Beckmann's office.<sup>127</sup> As a result, on May 7th, twenty-one (21) Chicana/o Studies faculty and staff resigned in solidarity to protest this administration attack.<sup>128</sup>

In response, MEChA de UW and CSM held a press conference to publicly proclaim a two-day Support Chicana/o Studies walkout of all courses for the following week.<sup>129</sup> On May 8th, eight additional Chicana/o Studies staff members resigned to show their political support.<sup>130</sup> A few days later, various CSM members met with President Hogness to seek a peaceful solution, but failed to prevent further radical political protests against the university administration.<sup>131</sup> On May 13th, a boycott took place with two thousand people marching through UW's campus, highlighted by a rally at the administration building.<sup>132</sup> After fifteen days of mass protest, President Hogness refused to reappoint Sanchez because of his actions during the boycott.<sup>134</sup> On June 2nd, MEChA de UW and CSM accepted President Hogness's settlement and returned to their positions.<sup>135</sup>

During the late 1970s, a political shift took place on the UW campus due to the decline of radical and leftist politics and a decrease in activism and mass actions.<sup>136</sup> CSM and MEChA de UW faced a major transformation in their political ideology and organizational direction.<sup>137</sup> They had fewer radical members as many Chicana/o students started to relocate or move onto different issues.<sup>138</sup> However, two major Chicana/o Studies political battles emerged in 1978 when MEChA de UW organized a mass sit-in at the Chicano Division of the Educational Opportunity Program (EOP) office to protest the re-organization of its program.<sup>139</sup> The second occurred on May 21, 1980, when twenty (20) Asian American and Chicana/o EOP students organized a sit-in to demand the resignation of EOP Vice President Herman Lujan and to prevent the university administration from dismantling this student service program.<sup>140</sup> However, their efforts failed due to the lack of political support and student activism.<sup>141</sup> By the early 1980s, UW's Chicana/o Studies program was forced to become part of the new American Ethnic Studies Department. This reduced the autonomy of the Chicana/o Studies Movement and prevented their goal of obtaining an academic department.<sup>142</sup>

#### CONCLUSION

During the Chicano Power Movement, community and student radicalism would guide the direction of UW's Chicana/o Studies Movement. Internal differences and struggles inhibited the development of a Chicana/o Studies Center and academic program. The university administration took advantage of latent political differences to prevent the realization of a Chicana/o Studies Department. University bureaucrats would utilize the clustering concept to merge all ethnic studies disciplines into a single

academic unit. Misleading assurances for funding of tenure-track faculty lines blocked the expansion and organizational structure of CSM. The UW Chicana/o Studies Movement had failed and would lead to a major decline of campus and local political activism in the subsequent three decades. The ideological and political shift on UW's campus in the late 1970s was the main factor in not making a Chicana/o Studies Department a reality. The details of this local social movement have demonstrated how university administrations, politically and ideologically, controlled the direction of the Chicana/o Studies discipline. Nonetheless, this political struggle motivated and inspired other Chicana/o Studies Movements across the nation.

The next battle of the Chicana/o Studies Movement that I will examine appeared on the campus of California State University, Northridge. As mass political action rocked the campus, this local social movement would be deeply influenced by the first generation of Chicana/o Movement political actors. **ENDNOTES** 

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## CHAPTER FOUR

# POLITICAL ACTIVISM: THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT AT CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, NORTHRIDGE, 1968-1975

### INTRODUCTION

By 1975, the Chicana/o Studies Department (CSD) at California State University, Northridge (CSUN) became a major geographical center for the Chicana/o Studies Movement (CSM) at the national level.<sup>1</sup> According to Rodolfo Acuña, "Today, California State University, Northridge (CSUN), is the largest Chicana/o Studies department in the United States, offering 166 sections per semester."<sup>2</sup> How did this occur? How did it begin? During the 1960s, San Fernando Valley State College (SFVSC), now known as California State University, Northridge, had admitted a small number of ethnic population students who impacted the origins of a local ethnic studies movement.<sup>3</sup> Prior to the CSD foundation, Chicana/o students made up less than one percent of the student body within the California State University (CSU) system.<sup>4</sup> This was due to class and education segregation, which would force the ethnic working-class population to attend underprivileged schools, and to be placed into segregated classrooms and excluded from attending a higher education institution.<sup>5</sup> In response, the Ethnic Studies and Chicana/o Studies social movements materialized in the CSU system to struggle for political autonomy and educational rights.<sup>6</sup> By 1968, ethnic population students began addressing major concerns to SFVSC administration through involvement in campuswide gatherings, popular protests, and teach-ins.<sup>7</sup> This new environmental landscape matured and intensified student radicalism and activism, thus motivating the appearance of CSUN's Chicana/o Studies Movement.<sup>8</sup>

Chapter Four contextualizes political activism and the making of a massive Chicana/o Studies Movement on the campus of California State University, Northridge in the late 1960s and early 1970s. In it I argue that popular resistance and social radicalism would force the administration to accede to the formation of a Chicana/o Studies Department. Section one investigates the origins of campus activism and mass action by focusing on the local Ethnic Studies Movement and CSM. The second section examines the first stage of CSD's political and academic organizational development between 1970 and 1975. Finally, I interpret how CSD became the largest Ethnic Studies Department in the United States.

# POLITICAL ACTIVISM AT SAN FERNANDO VALLEY STATE COLLEGE

The late 1960s marked the peak of a movement of international revolution and mass protest, which would impact U.S and global politics.<sup>9</sup> With the origins of the New Left and social radicalism in the United States, a new chapter of cultural activism emerged nationally and on the San Fernando Valley State College campus.<sup>10</sup> In the counter-hegemonic movements that filled the air in 1968, individuals and organizations would engage in civil disobedience and popular resistance around the world.<sup>11</sup> The happy days and apple pie ideologies of the 1950s became a historical memory, as the baby boomer population challenged its own middle-class privilege and cultural whiteness.<sup>12</sup> Student movements appeared at major universities, with student uprisings occurring from coast to coast.<sup>13</sup> In Northern California, activism peaked at the University of California at Berkeley and San Francisco State University. In Southern California, grassroots and leftist social movements were particularly noteworthy at the University of

California, Los Angeles; California State University, Los Angeles; University of California, Santa Barbara; and University of California, San Diego.<sup>14</sup>

In 1966, the Students for a Democratic Society (SDS) established a chapter at SFVSC, to organize campus and local area protests against the Vietnam War.<sup>15</sup> In November 1966, the SDS conducted an anti-war rally at the Van Nuys Air National Guard Base, where members were arrested for their participation and the distribution of unauthorized political literature.<sup>16</sup> Following the arrests at this anti-war protest, the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) began to appear regularly at campus and local political events.<sup>17</sup> However, the LAPD failed to curtail campus political protest or eliminate organizational radicalism.<sup>18</sup> By the spring of 1967 the SFVSC Faculty Senate urged the university administration to stop utilizing the LAPD.<sup>19</sup> Because of the pressure, the SFVSC police department was denied authority to arrest and target student organizations or individuals for their participation in peaceful campus protests.<sup>20</sup>

On January 15, 1967, two thousand five hundred CSU system faculty members attended a political rally at SFVSC, aimed at protesting Governor Ronald Reagan's proposal of increasing student tuition and cutting the state college system budget by ten percent.<sup>21</sup> Reagan was a major enforcer in disbanding student political unrests and demonstrations, employing police, sheriffs, and the California National Guard, and establishing policies to suppress the first Amendment rights of radical and leftist politics.<sup>22</sup> The state repression failed to halt mass political activities, which became a successful student practical strategy . to enhance mass critical awareness.<sup>23</sup> Militant-organizational approaches and methodologies were used to promote a new social movement. In the fall of 1967, SFVSU students formed a Black Student Union (BSU)

chapter with the general purpose of increasing the ethnic student population and establishing an Ethnic Studies Movement.<sup>24</sup> BSU would then spend a year developing an organizational structure and a strong political ideology, while cultivating social alliances with various radical and ethnic population campus and community organizations.<sup>25</sup>

For the 1968 fall semester, SFVSC admitted two hundred twenty-four ethnic population students under the new state college system's Educational Opportunity Program (EOP).<sup>26</sup> The EOP aided activists in the formulation of a new organizational stage, an educational master plan and structure for SFVSC's Ethnic Studies Movement.<sup>27</sup> Meanwhile, Dr. Ralph Prator resigned as President of SFVSC due to his increasing annoyance with ongoing student activism and political tensions on campus.<sup>28</sup> In the month after Prator's resignation, political conflicts intensified when SDC invited Mark Rudd, a student activist at Columbia University known for the "Days of Rage," to present his political views at a public lecturer on campus.<sup>29</sup> SFVSC administration considered Rudd a major campus-security concern due to his personal involvement in the mass political demonstration and administration-building takeover at Columbia.<sup>30</sup> A few days prior to Rudd's presentation, the Daily Sundial, in an attempt to develop a negative hegemonic perception of the instructional system, printed an image of a police officer dressed in riot gear leading the student body.<sup>31</sup> Rudd's speaking event motivated various SFVSC student movement organizations to continue engaging in political activism and to push for the creation of a non-credit experimental course on "Marxism, Leninism, and Revolution," offered by student organizer Cliff Fried.<sup>32</sup>

On October 17, 1968, a class uprising occurred at a freshman football game when three Cal Poly San Luis Obispo football players and two African American SFVSC team members exchanged words after the game.<sup>33</sup> This was the first time that ethnic population athletes had experienced classism on a sport field.<sup>34</sup> As a result, the BSU and the Ethnic Studies Movement demanded a meeting with the university administration to address this incident, but administrators denied the request.<sup>35</sup> In frustration, a massive protest was organized, and over two hundred students inundated the administration building.<sup>36</sup> Additionally, more than six hundred students gathered outside of the building to support the twelve-point platform of demands, which included the establishment of ethnic studies academic departments, the hiring of new ethnic population faculty, and the recruitment of future minority students.<sup>37</sup> To prevent the expansion of this political movement, the university administration called in two hundred fifty campus and local police officers.<sup>38</sup> After hours of student protesting, interim President Dr. Paul Blomgren tentatively agreed to the twelve-point platform demands.<sup>39</sup> However, in the days following the protest, Blomgren refused to honor the agreement and the Associated Students Senate passed a resolution to invalidate the BSU's charter.<sup>40</sup> University officials responded by filling felony and misdemeanor charges against nineteen students for their participation in the occupation of the administration building; however these charges would be overturned by the appeals process.<sup>41</sup> By the end of the 1968-1969 academic year, the SFVSC administration would commit to upholding eight of the twelve-point demands.<sup>42</sup> Thus, at SFVSU the Pan-African American Studies Department and Chicana/o Studies Department were born,

accompanied by the hiring of Rodolfo Acuña as the first Full Professor and chairperson of the Chicana/o Studies Department.<sup>43</sup>

# CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT AT SAN FERNANDO VALLEY STATE

During the late 1960s, the United Mexican American Students (UMAS), later becoming Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlán (MECHA), emerged on the CSUN campus to challenge the hegemonic academic complex and culture of the empire.<sup>44</sup> The local Chicana/o Power Movement was instrumental in the foundation of SFVSC's Chicana/o Studies Movement.<sup>45</sup> The UFW grape boycott, the 1968 East Los Angeles Blowouts, and the 1969 National Chicana/o Youth Liberation Conference further increased Chicana/o radical and leftist student and faculty awareness and activism.<sup>46</sup> According to SFVSC's model: "Chicano studies are different. The area came about because of student activism."<sup>47</sup> In CSMs early developmental stage, its members sought to enhance the social awareness of the Chicana/o working-class student in the classroom and community at large and adopted a student-centered pedagogy.<sup>48</sup> The political ideological framework was informed by Marxism, class-consciousness, and cultural and revolutionary nationalism, which influenced the curriculum and infrastructure expansion of the SFVSU Chicana/o Studies social movement.49 This instructional and participatory political process would become the primary factor in building a strong Chicana/o Studies Department with political swagger and class organizational focus.<sup>50</sup>

By late 1968, a Chicana/o Studies Department Advisory Committee (CSDAC) was established by CSM and MEChA de SFVSC leadership.<sup>51</sup> On January 27, 1969, CSDAC conducted its first meeting as an organizational collective, elected Everto "Beto" Ruiz as its first chairperson, and recommended the hiring of Acuña as department chair at the rank of Full Professor.<sup>52</sup> The establishment of this Chicana/o Studies Department would become one of CSM most notable achievements.<sup>53</sup> To finalize Acuña's appointment a CSM membership meeting was held on February 5, 1969, where he would accept the faculty position, and lead a discussion on developing a strong Chicana/o Studies curriculum.<sup>54</sup> Additionally, at the meeting, Mike Moutez, Julian Nava, Warren Furumoto, Martha Sanchez, and Frank Lechuga were appointed to CSDAC, and a subcommittee was established to examine the current recruitment and educational attainment process.<sup>55</sup> On April 23, 1969 the Advisory Committee changed its name to the Chicana/o Studies Affairs Committee (CSAC), appointed Irene Tovar as Director of the Chicana/o Studies Community Center, and hired Rafael Perez as a fulltime tenure-track core faculty member.<sup>56</sup> Furthermore, it was decided that a conference would be organized to examine the goals and problems of several Chicana/o Studies programs.57

In May 1969, CSAC compiled a list of faculty for potential appointments and created a summer academic and student service program.<sup>58</sup> On June 9th, Gerald Resendez and Carlos Arce were appointed as full-time core faculty members, Warren Furumoto became an affiliate faculty member, and Bert Corona and Aminta Lara were hired as adjunct lecturers.<sup>59</sup> The second part of the meeting contextualized the new Chicana/o Studies Department's academic and student service summer program, which

was established to enhance the basic writing and critical thinking skills of incoming and returning Chicana/o students.<sup>60</sup> The summer program offered three credit core courses that focused on Chicana/o culture, literature and communication skills.<sup>61</sup> These core courses served as the Chicana/o Studies curriculum model for the upcoming fall semester.<sup>62</sup> In the late summer of 1969, Jose Hernandez and James Dennis were hired to expand the founding core faculty.<sup>63</sup> The addition of these faculty members and the increase of Chicana/o students transformed CSAC and CSM into fully-functioning academic departments.<sup>64</sup>

By the end of 1969, the Chicana/o Studies Affairs Committee finalized the internal and praxis processes and expanded its membership.<sup>65</sup> On November 19, 1969, Guadalupe Ramirez, Susan Morales, Jose Galvan, Jose Luis Vargas, Luz Gallegos, Victor Alvarez, Molly Zapata, and Arturo Sais were appointed as new student and community members.<sup>66</sup> CSAC adopted new bylaws and officers, and appointed Jose DeAnda as special assistant to the President to aid in further expanding the CSD.<sup>67</sup> This new governance structure enhanced CSM political and practical strategies because it centralized the decision making process.<sup>68</sup> At the final CSAC meeting of the year, on November 26th, Vargas became the vice chairman and "Beto" Ruiz was appointed as general secretary.<sup>69</sup> Based on his years of secondary school teaching, Acuña would go on to suggest the need to offer Chicana/o students additional remedial courses to support classroom developmental skills.<sup>70</sup> It was decided that a subcommittee would examine this suggestion and assess students' skills levels at the beginning of the 1970 spring semester.<sup>71</sup> The meeting ended with an agreement to design a future Community/Barrio Studies program and center.<sup>72</sup> CSAC had a triumphant year after

successfully establishing an infrastructure and formulating a curriculum.<sup>73</sup> It had fiftyfour (54) Chicana/o Studies courses and had hired a faculty collective to transform the CSM into a Chicana/o Studies Department.<sup>74</sup>

## THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE CHICANA/O STUDES DEPARTMENT

The Chicana/o Studies Department experienced a cultural and political transformation as a result of the second stage of political battles with the university administration.<sup>75</sup> In the summer of 1969, President James Cleary approved the first phase of the interdisciplinary curriculum proposal.<sup>76</sup> The first core curriculum included ten lower division and forty-five upper division courses, which focused on Chicana/o cultural production, history, social issues, education, the arts, and other specialized topics.<sup>77</sup> By the end of the 1969 fall semester, a new segment of political unrest encounters would arise with the university administration regarding the process of curriculum development and funding.<sup>78</sup> Meanwhile, the Chicana/o Studies Department core faculty members and CSAC had started to create a Master of Arts program, with the intended goal of increasing the attainment of graduate and doctoral degrees by Chicana/o students.<sup>79</sup> Feliciano Rivera, a faculty member from the Mexican American Studies Program at San Jose State College consulted and assisted CSD on the design of the academic program.<sup>80</sup> This new graduate program offered students thirty units of seminar courses on the U.S. Chicana/o experience, and interdisciplinary methodologies and approaches, to fully comprehend the diverse populations of their communities.<sup>81</sup> The educational establishment of this Masters Degree program was fundamental to the

future foundation of Chicana/o Studies and Ethnic Studies doctoral programs that would emerge over the next three decades.<sup>82</sup>

During the early 1970s, CSAC incorporated a student and community voice within the decision making process. In order to make this participation a political reality, a revision occurred in CSAC's bylaws and constitutional structure.<sup>83</sup> The development of a Chicana/o Studies Barrio Center and Studies Program enhanced local Chicana/o community participation.<sup>84</sup> After the political foundation of this barrio center, CSAC and CSD struggled to attain a student space, which was named the Chicano House.<sup>85</sup> In May of 1970, an Anglo American fraternity burned down the first Chicano House.<sup>86</sup> . A series of community and campus meetings were organized to address the issue and help bail out the arrested Chicana/o students.<sup>87</sup> On the campus front, the university administration fully investigated the origins of this racial attack and provided CSD with a new location to reconstruct their community center.<sup>88</sup> The Chicano House episode made racial and class tensions a key issue on campus, as CSM leaders won a clean victory over an entrenched symbol of campus racism: the Anglo fraternity, whose act was not brushed off as prank, but exposed as a life threatening, racist hate crime.<sup>89</sup>

In the following years after the establishment of CSD, a massive Chicana/o cultural movement materialized at SFVSC.<sup>90</sup> Chicana/o students developed a visual art collective to organize art shows and produce symbolic representations, which documented the local Chicana/o Power Movements.<sup>91</sup> Also, Teatro Aztlan and traditional Mexican and Chicana/o music collectives were established to promote Chicana/o political and cultural expression within a drama and performing arts

environment.<sup>92</sup> The utilization of the arts and visual culture was a critical strategy, used by CSD, to recruit and retain Chicana/o students.<sup>93</sup>

In its early years, the CSD adopted community activism and organizing methods to guide the development of its core curriculum and political direction.<sup>94</sup> Furthermore, various Chicana/o students and faculty members would become major actors in the local Chicana/o Power Movements.<sup>95</sup> In summer 1970, they participated in organizing the August 29 Chicano Moratorium March against the Vietnam War, which took place in the working-class community of East Los Angeles.<sup>96</sup> Several months after this historical gathering, faculty member Raul Ruiz ran for a State Assembly seat in the City of Terrance, as a La Raza Unida Party (LRUP) candidate.<sup>97</sup> Additionally, the MEChA de SFVSC political committee decided to establish an LRUP chapter in the San Fernando Valley.<sup>98</sup> In early 1972, SFVSC Chicana/o students Richard Corona and Jess Margarito ran for San Fernando city council under the LRUP political banner and confronted the Anglo American political monopoly.<sup>99</sup> For a decade, CSD students and faculty associates participated in the development of the LRUP San Fernando chapter.<sup>100</sup> In 1974, during the proposed East Los Angeles incorporated campaign, faculty members Jorge Garcia and Raul Ruiz ran on in the LRUP's political slate.<sup>101</sup> Faculty and student participation in LRUP ultimately made a strong impression on local grassroots and radical politics.<sup>102</sup>

In the first generation of the CSD, MEChA de SFVSC had a major function in the decision making process, as its members participated in CSAC and the Faculty Hiring and Promotion Committee.<sup>103</sup> This MEChA chapter contributed to the local Chicana/o Power Movements and organized campus political activities that publicized CSD's

battles with the university administration.<sup>104</sup> It promoted cultural and political pride, through teach-ins and informational sessions that heightened awareness among general membership and attracted new MEChA members.<sup>105</sup> MEChA de SFVSC also, balanced the governance and decision making process of the CSAC.<sup>106</sup> In 1972, the administration changed the name of the institution to California State University, Northridge as the state of California transformed its educational college model from the liberal arts college, to the four-year teaching university, a paradigm shift in its mission and vision.<sup>107</sup> This new status required CSUN's administration to upgrade the academic and student affairs guidelines, and hiring and tenure procedures for full-time tenuretrack faculty.<sup>108</sup> It required academic departments and programs to hire faculty with terminal degrees from major universities.<sup>109</sup> Consequently, CSUN's Chicana/o Studies Department had to change its hiring process and forced current faculty to obtain doctoral or terminal degrees.<sup>110</sup> By 1975, CSD had fifteen full-time tenure-track faculty and more than 10 part time lecturers.<sup>111</sup> The increase in full-time tenure-track lines was achieved from political sacrifices made by Chicana/o students, support from an organized and involved community, and the capacity of Chicana/o Studies faculty to unite and limit crippling divisions.<sup>112</sup>

The early 1970s political encounters between CSD and the university administration increased.<sup>113</sup> Initially, the CSUN's administration would attempt to prevent the growth of CSD's faculty and funding growth by refusing to support the academic department.<sup>114</sup> In response, CSAC and MEChA de CSUN conducted a series of meetings with the university administration, which included strategic mass sit-ins and protests.<sup>115</sup> This grassroots and political radicalism was successful against the culture of

empire, because of a successful strategy of confrontation and the collective wisdom of the CSM at Northridge.<sup>116</sup> The sequence of political encounters resulted in the largest Chicana/o Studies Department in the United States.<sup>117</sup> The successes of this early stage of Chicana/o Studies inspired the discipline of Chicana/o Studies for future decades.<sup>118</sup>

#### CONCLUSION

Through the late 1960s and early 1970s, student political activism assisted in successfully establishing CSUN's Chicana/o Studies Department. Students and their allies created a Chicana/o Studies Movement to challenge the university administration and compel it to establish independent ethnic studies academic departments. University administrators at CSUN adopted authoritarian tactics and policies to restrict the efforts of students who demanded a CSD. However, in 1969 politically informed students, supported by staff, faculty, and the community members, would overcome the opposition, and the department became a reality. By 1975, core department courses were incorporated into CSUN's general education curriculum and university structure, permitting expansion of the department and inclusion of Chicana/o Studies into the education of thousands of CSUN students. The Chicana/o Studies Movements at these universities, while most successful at CSUN, influenced a generation of Chicana/o students, faculty, and community members throughout the nation to demand an educational space.

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#### CONCLUSION

## SURVIVAL AND THE LOST HOPE: WHAT HAPPEN TO THE CHICANA/O STUDIES MOVEMENT

#### INTRODUCTION

In 2004, Marcos Pizarro declared, "Chicana/o Studies is in a coma."<sup>1</sup> Rodolfo Acuña's Sometimes No Other Side (1998) and The Making of Chicana/o Studies (2011), have further addressed the mainstream and professionalization that has coopted the Chicana/o Studies discipline.<sup>2</sup> Since the late 1970s, the culture of the empire has marginalized and eliminated many accomplishments of the Chicana/o Studies Movement (CSM).<sup>3</sup> CSM participants were engaged in debates and discourses that questioned their recognition, academic definition, and legitimacy, which became the major objectives for their survival. Many critics have disputed the need for curricular consistency, since Chicana/o Studies did not present a single methodology that fit the boundaries of traditional academic disciplines. Consequently, various university administrations pressured Chicana/o Studies programs and departments to develop a standardized curriculum in order to be incorporated into the academic mainstream complex.<sup>4</sup> Many academics argued that higher education should provide ethnic student population with a critical and innovative consciousness for ethnic population students.<sup>5</sup> However, I argue that Chicana/o Studies was co-opted in order to gain academic acceptance and failed to promote the production of radical and leftist scholarship. In addition, alternative perspectives and research innovations became secondary in the quest of a Chicana/o Studies intellectual life.

The culture of the empire in the late 1970s formulated practical methods to dismantle and regulate Chicana/o Studies and Ethnic Studies course content.<sup>6</sup> The goal of this process was to change the social justice and political mission of Chicana/o Studies and Ethnic Studies disciplines; , and to signify the professionalism of the core curriculum and elevate its academic reputation. By 1980, the majority of Chicana/o Studies programs and departments adopted traditional models of historical, cultural, and social and behavioral studies as their three primary content areas.<sup>7</sup> Meanwhile, scholars and professors influenced by radical and leftist ideologies were marginalized from this procedure. Furthermore, CSM participants could not avoid engagement with contemporary internal struggles, which would affect their organizational and practical framework.<sup>8</sup> The mainstream incorporation of Chicana/o Studies programs and departments into the traditional academic industrial-complex would come to enhance political contradictions and disagreements.<sup>9</sup>

In this chapter I examine the critical question: What happened to Chicana/o Studies and the social movement that struggled to create this discipline? I argue that by the late 1970s oppositional and reactionary scholars and professors supported by sympathetic politicians, administrators, and academics, largely marginalized their leftist and radical counterparts. It offers a historical examination and argument on how traditionalists shifted the political direction of Chicana/o Studies and it identifies ideological conflicts that occurred in dismantling and professionalizing Chicana/o Studies. Finally, I conclude that the CSM, in its challenge of the U.S. Empire and the culture of the academy, was largely exhausted by 1980.

#### CHICANA/O STUDIES AND THE CULTURE OF THE EMPIRE

The four local Chicana/o Studies Movements that are examined in this dissertation were part of a larger national social and educational movement. Each CSM collective had its own ideology and social identity that made it different from other Chicano power movement battlegrounds. The local CSM struggles were linked nationally through communication networks and organizational frameworks that were established to formulate a Chicana/o Studies ideology and mission statement. In the early years, Chicana/o student radicals overwhelmingly impacted the political development and direction of the CSM. The concepts of internationalism and nationalism gained prominence by proliferating critiques of the US war on Vietnam and its military and political intervention in Latin America, which profoundly influenced the Chicana/o Studies Movement challenges of American exceptionalism and institutional classism. The strong radical and leftist political commitment by CSM actors, concretely and dramatically illustrates this perspective. But, they faced resistance from university administrators and faculty in mainstream departments. Also, most Anglo-American scholars and professors objected to ethnic studies programs and departments, particularly when dominated by ethnic population groups. Activists and teachers in the social and educational movements were generally unable in the short term, to achieve a student and community centered Chicana/o Studies collective. University administrators and their sympathizers also limited the scope of the Chicana/o Studies to the United States, with a degree of success. They feared its radicalism, its innovative research and teaching pedagogies, and the threat it posed in adopting the internationalism. Therefore, more narrowly focused and less threatening cultural nationalist CSM actors

gained greater political influence on Chicana/o Studies ideology and vision for the most of the 1970s.

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, the University of California at Berkeley was a political center for the Chicana/o Studies Movement because of the Third World Liberation Front and its ongoing popular protests. The major accomplishments of the UCB CSM were the establishment of *El Grito* and the adoption of third world radicalism and international leftist politics. Its weaknesses were the cultural nationalist and oppositional Chicana/o actors. It also suffered by adopting unrealistic objectives, and because of internal class and political conflicts between CSM participants. The development of a Chicana/o Studies program within a single ethnic studies department was the main factor in the decline of the local movement. The UCB CSM was similar to the one at UCLA in the success of the research publications, but was sharply dissimilar in lacking UCLA's mass involvement in the local Chicana/o power movement. Significantly at UCB, this Chicana/o Studies Movement made a major impact on the CSM geographical environment on the west coast.

Meanwhile, the UCLA Chicana/o Studies Movement had a prominent place in the Los Angeles area Chicano Power Movement, as it shared participants and grassroots organizers. The UCLA CSM struggle successfully developed a research center, *Aztlan Journal* and the publications. Additionally, CSM participation in the local Chicano Power Movement was critical to the organizational framework for its campus political work. Members encountered difficulties balancing community grassroots, organizing with campus activism, and handling internal and external social conflicts. UCLA's Chicana/o Studies Movement had a commonality with the UCB struggle because of the impact that

*El Grito* made to the development of *Aztlan Journal* and publications. But, the UCLA CSM was more successful than UCB or the University of Washington because of the UCLA Chicana/o Studies Research Center and Aztlan publications, which impacted the foundation of scholarship on the Chicana/o population and experience. In addition, the UCLA struggle was able to achieve the goal of an academic department ., with the emergence of a new generation of Chicana/o radical student actors during the 1990s.

The University of Washington was a major organizational location for the Chicana/o Studies Movement in the Pacific Northwest and the state of Washington. The strengths of UW CSM were its triumphant United Farm Workers Grape Boycott campus campaign and the recruitment of Chicana/o students from the Yakima Valley and eastern valleys of Washington State. Also, activists in local and statewide Chicano Power Movement influenced the UW CSM political direction and campus activism. Unfortunately, the UW CSM failed to achieve a research unit, having been hampered by internal and external political conflicts, and was compelled to accept a merger of the Ethnic Studies disciplines into a larger American Ethnic Studies division. This outcome was similar to UCB, which also had a single academic department. It was similar to CSUN and UCLA with widespread student activist participation in the local Chicano Power Movement.

By 1975, the California State University at Northridge Chicana/o Studies department (CSD) had become the largest Ethnic Studies division in the United States. The effectiveness of the CSUN struggle was the result of establishing a culture of campus activism and success in attaining staff and faculty alliances resulting in a strong organizational structure and an academic department. CSUN CSM developed a strong

relationship with the local Chicano Power Movement, through collaboration and involvement. Like other locations, CSUN was weakened by internal and external disagreements, and failed to establish a Chicana/o Studies community resource center in the San Fernando Valley. It also failed to develop relationships with traditional academic departments, which might have been a blessing in disguise, limiting channels for cooptation. CSUN CSM was similar to the other three social movements, but experienced further success in creating a Chicana/o Studies department and conducting a counter-hegemonic battle with university administration. The struggle at CSUN was distinct in part because CSUN is a teaching university and UW, UCB, and UCLA are research institutions. It could justify its curriculum on the basis of teaching educating future teachers who were responsible for preparing the rapidly growing Chicana/o population in their midst. The triumphant Chicana/o Studies campaign at CSUN influenced the next generation of CSM actors and organizers, and its department influenced .the development of this discipline .. The cultural geography of the Chicana/o Studies Movement was critical in developing a collaborative voice, but each local social movement had a major role in organizing at the national stage. Furthermore, the turn to cultural nationalism limited the growth of international radical politics and influenced the decline of the first generation of CSM.

In teaching Chicana/o Studies in the United States, one cannot minimize or discount the impact of research and scholarship.<sup>10</sup> Despite oppositional portrayals of Chicana/o Studies as intellectually barren or steeped of class essentialism, Chicana/o Studies scholars have produced work that has challenged disrupted, motivated scholars and altered the academy. However, it is beyond the scope of this conclusion to examine

the groundbreaking works of first generation scholars.<sup>11</sup> Yet, it is important to stress that a Chicana/o scholarly tradition was already established prior to the unfolding of the Chicana/o Student Movement. Chicana/o studies programs and departments however encourage scholarship and provide a more solid base for growth and development. Defining Chicana/o Studies was a point of contestation in its early years in the academy. University administration and traditional departmental hegemonic efforts were successful in limiting and controlling the direction of a great deal of Chicana/o Studies scholarly production.

Early Chicana feminists argued for the inclusion of gender issues, which would bring heightened attention to class and sexuality.<sup>12</sup> Chicana actors had to wage an intense conflict to inculcate a feminist critique of the CSM and they often encountered withering criticism from their male counterparts. In the early 1970s academic disciplines were overwhelmingly male dominated. All ethos and political strategies of the Chicano Power Movement were primarily race oriented rather than gender directed. Furthermore, the lack of awareness or interest by Anglo-American feminist activists about the needs and life experiences of ethnic women hindered gender consciousness in the Chicano Power Movement.<sup>13</sup> The small numbers of Chicana professors and scholars were faced with marginalization, consternation, resistance, and were denied equal opportunities to function in the academy. Nevertheless, they raised critical questions about the development of the CSM.<sup>14</sup> Many Chicanas feared that unless they asserted themselves, Chicano men and Anglo-American women would be the prime beneficiaries of affirmative action policies. Chicanas defined their unique status in

American life and emphasized their commonalities and differences with Chicano men and Anglo American women.

In the 1970s the first Chicana/o studies courses, campus lectures and programming appeared on campuses throughout the nation and set the stage for a rise of second-generation Chicana/o scholars.<sup>15</sup> The first generation Chicana/o Studies scholarship emerged in a highly contentious political and cultural landscape. Radical and leftist Chicana/o scholars and professors had to struggle against Anglo American mainstream academics and the Chicana/o scholars who retained traditional views.<sup>16</sup> The patriarchal politics of traditionalism and subjectivism circumscribed and limited the radical and leftist actors who created the discipline, along with their effort to offer an inclusive Chicana/o Studies counter-hegemonic vision.<sup>17</sup> By the 1980s, Chicana/o Studies scholars were forced to rethink their research agenda and pedagogy, and many succumbed to tradition. Perhaps most significantly, Chicana/o Studies failed to bridge the gap between campus and community. It was most successful when it did as in the case of CSUN.

The stature of Chicana/o Studies literature has rested on the production of innovative and influential scholarship.<sup>18</sup> The quest for curricular standardization and a single authoritative Chicana/o Studies methodology has generated engaging debates and useful materials, opening space for discourses in academia, as its initial founders had attempted to do. Such a strategy permits marginalized groups, including African Americans, Native Americans, and Asian Americans, to present their research and teaching methodologies.<sup>19</sup> Most university administrations have sought to cluster Chicana/o Studies, Asian American Studies, African American Studies, and Native

American Studies, together in one entity, in order to weaken the autonomy of each, to promote internal distractions, and to reduce the investment overall. <sup>20</sup> This was evident at the University of California at Berkeley (UCB), where the administration wanted the students' original demand for a third world college combined into a single ethnic studies department.<sup>21</sup> Chicana/o Studies advocates justifiably feared losing visibility, autonomy, and power. Ethnic Studies typically arose in the aftermath of struggle for autonomous departments on campuses with smaller ethnic student populations. Chicana/o Studies was often grouped together with Asian American Studies, African American Studies, and Native American Studies, to form a single Ethnic Studies academic department or program.<sup>22</sup>

In the early 1970s, skeptics and opponents had questioned whether Chicana/o Studies would survive. Conservative scholars predicted low quality, weak reputations, and an overly political orientation would limit its life span. In contrast, CSM actors feared that the academy would refuse to incorporate an intellectual insurgency led and defined by Chicana/o scholars as a social and educational movement. Chicana/o Studies was defeated before it had the opportunity to mature. CSM participants waged a profound struggle, and their effort has been largely forgotten in dominant historiography.<sup>23</sup> Perhaps it is not surprising that challenges to the culture of the empire have been quickly discredited in hegemonic narratives. As a social and educational movement, Chicana/o Studies have encompassed wide-ranging critiques of American society, from militarism to racial and class oppression, and has united a broad spectrum of Chicana/os, African Americans, Anglo Americans, Native Americans, and Asian American liberals and radicals.<sup>24</sup> Recent scholarship, and campus commemorations of

the 45th anniversary of student strikes and Chicana/o Studies programs has begun to alter our understanding of the complexity of the late 1960s and its connections to long standing civil rights struggles.

The Chicana/o students and activists of the late 1960s believed they could change society, and translated Chicano Power Movement ideologies into concrete gains.<sup>25</sup> They sought to gain control of public institutions in Chicana/o communities; reclaim their heritage; identify with international anti-colonial struggles; and challenge class oppression and racism.<sup>26</sup> Students demanded open admissions and affirmative action, Ethnic Studies and Chicana/o Studies cultural centers, and to gain an autonomous presence in traditionalist higher education institutions. They soon demanded academic recognition and respect for African American Studies, Asian American Studies, Native American Studies, and Chicana/o Studies.<sup>27</sup>

In the struggle for Chicana/o Studies departments and programs the CSM failed to sufficiently pressure higher education institutions.<sup>28</sup> Most Chicana/o students were not part of the new wave of immigrants who came after the passing of the 1965 congressional immigration reform, but rather were descendants of earlier immigrants.<sup>29</sup> They were more susceptible to Cold War patriotism that silenced Chicana/o support for anti-colonial and anti-war struggles.<sup>30</sup> While the uprisings of the late 1960s radicalized the movements, nothing could counter the power of the empire culture, and most were co-opted or repressed.<sup>31</sup> The students' evolving consciousness was shaped by experiences with ethnic population struggles, in study groups, meetings, mass actions, and on occasion in the classroom.<sup>32</sup> Chicana/o activists also joined labor, human rights,

educational, environmental, prisoner rights, anti-war, and other social justice movements.<sup>33</sup> Scholars, including historians of educational rights, and the Chicana/o Power Movement, have neglected to develop a comparative historical analysis of the CSM.<sup>34</sup>

#### CONCLUSION

In 1971, Professor Julian Samora, with the support of the University of Notre Dame (UND) administration and funding from the Ford Foundation and the U.S. Department of Education, established the Mexican American Graduate Studies Program (MAGSP).<sup>35</sup> Between 1971 and 1985, MAGSP had awarded funding to fiftyseven (57) Chicana/o doctoral students.<sup>36</sup> The purpose of this academic program was to train the next generation of Chicana/o Studies scholars and professors. However, Samora only handpicked traditionalist Chicana/o graduate students who would support the ideology of the culture of the empire. Why was Samora extremely selective in admitting graduate students into the MAGSP? One major factor was the allure of the University of Notre Dame's elitist and conservative academic structure, and Samora believed that working within the culture of empire would reform the political and social conditions of the Chicana/o population. On another level, the Mexican American Graduate Studies Program weakened the CSM by planting oppositional seeds to force the decline of student and community participation within the decision-making and development process.<sup>37</sup> Samora created an "imaginary community" and two generations of oppositional Chicana/o Studies scholars and professors with funding from the Ford

Foundation. In 1985, the UND administration used Samora's academic retirement to disband MAGSP, but the reality was that the funding source was discontinued.<sup>38</sup>

The moderate and conservative political climate of the past three decades slowed the growth and shifted the direction of this academic discipline. Most established Chicana/o Studies programs and departments were forced to adopt traditional political and academic methodologies to survive the university administration attacks. Yet, the federally supported affirmative action and diversity programs have profoundly shifted the political and ideological environment in which Chicana/o Studies scholars and intellectuals function, and a majority have turned to enhancing their personal careers rather than advancing the cause of students or the communities left behind. Yet, their presence was made possible by the radicalism, collectivism, and grassroots organizing of the first generation of students who introduced Chicana/o Studies courses into the university curriculum. Chicana/o leftist and radical scholars will continue to challenge the culture of the empire through activist scholarship and social justice and action research. The political and ideological conflicts among CSM actors are a primary example of how this counter-hegemonic dream was once again forced into the defensive.

**ENDNOTES** 

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