

LANGUAGE FACTORS IN THE EMPLOYMENT
OF BILINGUAL MEXICAN-AMERICANS:
A CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
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NELDA CAROLA GARCIA
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Nelda Carola Garcia

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A large majority of Mexican-Americans speak Spanish as their first language and speak English only as a second language in school and employment. Assertions have been made that Spanish-speaking people are disadvantaged in their educational and employment settings. Also, allegations have been made that they operate with a handicap in performing job duties as proficiently as their monolingual counterparts.

The present study was a pilot investigation of the perceived English language performance of bilingual Mexican-Americans. Specifically, the English language abilities of bilingual Mexican-Americans were compared with those of monolingual non-Mexican-Americans. The objectives were to determine the importance of English language abilities for placement, adjustment, and advancement in white-collar

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ABSTRACT

LANGUAGE FACTORS IN THE EMPLOYMENT OF BILINGUAL MEXICAN-AMERICANS: A CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

by

Nelda Carola Garcia

A large majority of the people in the Southwest speak Spanish as their family and community language and speak English only as a requirement for formal education and employment. Assertions have been made that these Spanish-speaking people are confronted with a language barrier in their educational and employment settings. Also, allegations have been made that they operate under a handicap in performing job duties as proficiently as their monolingual counterparts.

The present study was a pilot investigation of the perceived English language performance of employed bilingual Mexican-Americans. Specifically, the English language abilities of bilingual Mexican-Americans were compared with those of monolingual non-Mexican-Americans. The objectives were to determine the importance of English language abilities for placement, adjustment, and advancement in white-collar

occupations and to develop comparative socioeconomic, educational, and employment background profiles of the two ethnic groups as well as a language profile of the bilingualism of the Mexican-Americans. From the findings, implications for the improvement of the occupational training of bilingual Mexican-Americans were derived for use in bilingual, business, and vocational education programs.

Personal interviews were conducted with forty-five employees. This group contained equal numbers of Mexican-Americans, their non-Mexican-American occupational peers, and persons in supervisory positions over each "matched pair" of white-collar employees. Data were obtained from a person in each of these groups from fifteen Texas firms in the finance, retail trade, and utilities industries. The participants were selected from three cities close to and three cities away from the Texas-Mexico border.

Ten language factors related to white-collar work situations were rated by the participants. The employees rated themselves and their occupational peers, and the managers gave ratings for the Mexican-American employee and his monolingual counterpart under his supervision. Three perceptions of performance of the ten language factors were thus obtained for each non-supervisory employee--a self-rating, a peer-rating, and a management-rating. The Mexican-Americans, their occupational peers, and their supervisors then indicated whether they considered each language factor important for job placement,

adjustment, and advancement. Interviews were also conducted to obtain background factors on the employees.

The data were tabulated and classified in case studies to reflect the perceptions of each participant. The ratios, or the percentage with which they "almost always" performed certain language factors, yielded comparisons between the perceived language performance abilities of the two ethnic groups. Tabulations and ratios were consolidated to show relative importance of each language factor to job progress. Summaries of the background factors were also made for comparative profiles, and language usage patterns were derived for the bilingual employees.

The data from this study indicated that the perceived language performance abilities of both ethnic groups were relatively high, with the Mexican-American subjects ranking somewhat lower. The self-images of language performance abilities indicated a relatively low self-image for the non-Mexican-American coworkers and a relatively high self-image for the Mexican-American subjects.

Even greater differences between peer-images of the language abilities were indicated in relation to the proximity of the employees' residence to the Texas-Mexico border.

The language performance abilities of the subjects in this study cannot, of course, be generalized to the entire Spanish-speaking population. The high levels of language abilities may be attributed to the employees' comparable

background factors, such as age, education, and occupational experience. The occupations and educational backgrounds of the employees' parents were also comparable. The major contrasts were shown by their nativity and language usage patterns.

The dual language characteristic of the Mexican-American employees did not affect their overall job-related language performance. Their relative performance on certain language factors, however, provided insight on how bilingualism can promote and mitigate problems for a bilingual employee. To a marked degree, these employees were considered to speak English with Spanish accents, but the more critical factors in their performance were vocabulary and fluency.

A prospective job applicant was expected to have certain language abilities in order to perform his job satisfactorily. These included comprehension of written material and of verbal instructions; use of correct verbal grammar; and use of words which are varied, selective, and relevant to his verbal conversations.

In summary, bilingualism was seen as having a role in the employment setting of Mexican-Americans. Spanish appeared to be used on the job without compensation or recognition of its skill and economic value. This area of research deserves further exploration.

LANGUAGE FACTORS IN THE EMPLOYMENT OF
BILINGUAL MEXICAN-AMERICANS: A
CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

By

Nelda Carola Garcia

To the memory of my father
and to my mother, who gave me
the support and encouragement of
so characteristic of my parents
throughout my educational journey.

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

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1971

Many people contributed to this work. Their
their interest, encouragement, and advice were
those that I should like particularly to acknowledge.
the members of my committee, especially my
chairman, deserves a special acknowledgment.

DEDICATION

To the memory of my father
and to my mother, who continued
the support and encouragement
so characteristic of my parents
throughout my educational endeavors.
experiences by being the first educator to encourage me
to utilize my own bilingualism.

The framework by which the field investigation was
conducted was originally developed under the encouragement
and guidance of Dr. Cole S. Brembeck. I am grateful that
he gave me an opportunity to examine cultural factors in
education at an early stage in my doctoral program and
encouraged me in my investigation of cross-cultural
concepts.

I also very much value the generous assistance and support provided throughout my program by Dr. Antoni G. Poland. His kindness, generosity, and moral support and consideration provided the framework for this study, which is immeasurable.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people contributed to this study through their interest, encouragement, and other support. Among those that I should like particularly to acknowledge are the members of my committee. Dr. Peter G. Haines, chairman, deserves a special tribute. He allowed me an opportunity and a special latitude to explore an area in which I was interested both personally and professionally. From the outset to the completion of my program, his professional insight and guidance have been invaluable in the pursuit of my objectives. I especially want to acknowledge the unique role he performed in my educational experiences by being the first educator to encourage me to utilize my own bilingualism.

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I also very much value the generous assistance and support provided throughout my program by Dr. Robert P. Poland. His kindness, generosity, and constant consideration provided the kind of encouragement which is immeasurable.

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Throughout the project the continuous interest of colleagues and associates and their readiness to assist were invaluable. I especially wish to thank Dr. Charles T. Clark, Associate Professor of Business Statistics, The University of Texas at Austin, and Dr. Myrtle L. Bell, Professor of Psychology, Lamar University, for their aid, interest, and support at every stage of the work. I also want to thank the School of Business at Lamar University, and especially Mrs. Norma S. Hall, my departmental head, for giving me considerations so that I could pursue work on this project with as much latitude as possible.

Particular appreciation is due Dr. Mietzl Miller, Associate Professor of Economics at Lamar University, who gave guidance and personal assistance relative to the classification, interpretation, and presentation of the data of the study. Dr. Miller, who read chapter drafts

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critically and raised questions on points needing clarification, also made constructive suggestions to refine and improve the communication of this work.

The field investigation, staged in Texas, was helped by the cooperation and assistance of many educators and of many businessmen, employees, and executives in industry throughout the state. The hospitality of many friends and relatives eased the pressuring demands as well as the expenditures posed by extensive travel.

A voluminous amount of work was generated from the field investigation. I am most appreciative for the assistance I received at various stages of consolidation from Sandy Phelps, Donna Carter, Lorna Lucas, and Gayle Sims. Special gratitude goes to Mavis Williams, business teacher at Nederland High School, who devoted personal time and energy to typing a final draft of the study. I wish to thank Gloria Cardenas, who exemplifies the young bilingual student of today, for her aid with last-minute preparation. Finally, I wish to express my appreciation to Jo Lynn Cunningham and Carolyn Piersma for the work they performed in transforming the draft into the formal, final copy.

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no exception.

The assimilation and acculturation of the Spanish-speaking population are a major problem. Historical, sociological, and psychological perspectives must be employed if the reasons for this group's lack of assimilation or unwillingness to acculturate are to be understood.

¹In this study, "Mexican-Americans" is a term used interchangeably with the term "Spanish-Speaking Population." See p. 19 for other terms used in reference to the Spanish-speaking population.

The problem of acculturation, after having been largely forgotten, has been the subject of numerous investigations which, during the last decade, have been able to ascertain some of the specific difficulties which must be experienced by Mexican-Americans.

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

has been identified as a

Introduction

There is evidence that the plight of disadvantaged youth, particularly in terms of employability is a critical concern of business educators today. Among the populations of disadvantaged youth are the Mexican-Americans, who represent a minority ethnic group heavily concentrated in the southwestern part of the United States. Each minority ethnic group in the nation has its own distinct history, historical circumstances, and peculiar heritage. The roots of "disadvantage" grow out of these circumstances. The history and heritage of the Mexican-Americans¹ of the United States are no exception.

The assimilation and acculturation of the Spanish-speaking population are a major problem. Historical, sociological, and psychological perspectives must be employed if the reasons for this group's lack of acculturation or unwillingness to acculturate are to be understood.

¹In this study, "Mexican-Americans" is a term used interchangeably with the term "Spanish-Speaking Population." See p. 19 for other terms used in reference to the Spanish-speaking population.

The problem of acculturation, often portrayed by the word forgotten, has been the subject of research and investigations which, during the last decade, were undertaken to ascertain some of the specific difficulties which might be experienced by Mexican-Americans.² While these projects have pointed to many different possibilities, language has been identified as a central concern.

There is evidence that vocational education, including business education, can assist in alleviating the problems of disadvantaged youth, but evidence is lacking regarding efforts being made to make a positive impact upon the problem. In essence, high school students are not well served by vocational education programs. It should be stressed that vocational education cannot be regarded as a panacea for the problems of disadvantaged youth. However, evaluative studies point to the need for new occupationally oriented programs to be added to the curriculum.³

Vocational education is faced with the challenge of seeking ways to provide for the occupational

²George I. Sanchez, Forgotten People (Albuquerque: New Mexico Press, 1940), p. 28; Julian Samora, ed., "Introduction," La Raza: Forgotten American (South Bend: University of Notre Dame Press, 1966), p. xii; Celia S. Heller, Mexican-American Youth: Forgotten Youth at the Crossroads (New York: Random House, 1966), p. 19.

³U.S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Education for a Changing World of Work: Report of the Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1963), pp. 131-230.

assimilation of Mexican-Americans. Implications for teaching the Mexican-American student should be derived from research in the realms of employment as well as educational settings. Teachers, and vocational teachers as this case in point, who are operating without a clear-cut strategy for teaching Mexican-American students, have both the opportunity and responsibility for considering educational approaches which may be more successful than those currently in practice.⁴ However, more information is needed to avoid changes which do not address themselves to appropriate goals. Particularly, more information is needed about the actual problems which are encountered by people who, educated and trained by past and existing methods, are gainfully employed. The fact that a person is gainfully employed does not overrule the possibility of his confronting problems which, if isolated conceptually, could be diagnosed and possibly remedied. Therein lies the realm of this study.

The Problem

This research specifically focused on Mexican-Americans, with the dual language characteristic of varying proficiencies in the English and the Spanish languages, and

⁴Miriam L. Goldberg, ed., "Methods and Materials for Educationally Disadvantaged Youth," in Education of the Disadvantaged: A Book of Readings, ed. by A. Harry Passow (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1967), pp. 369-98.

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On their non-Mexican-American peers whose only basic language is English. It sought to assess the effects of language on these workers' placement, adjustment, and advancement in certain white-collar occupations.

The major objectives which provided the general framework for this study were the following:

1. To determine the differences and similarities between the language abilities of the Mexican-American and non-Mexican-American employees as perceived by self, peer, and management images.
2. To assess the importance of language factors relative to different phases of employment in white-collar positions.
3. To develop comparative profiles of socioeconomic, educational, and employment backgrounds of all the employees and a profile of the dual language heritage and language usage patterns of the Mexican-American subjects as explanatory dimensions relative to their perceived language abilities.
4. To disclose sociological perspectives which may provide insights for educators, particularly in the field of business education, who are concerned with the improvement of occupational skills, knowledge, and assimilation of Mexican-Americans.

In order to Need for the Study

Culture. The states of the Southwest, where most of the nation's Mexican-American population lives, were once part of Mexico. Only a little more than a century ago this territory became part of the United States. Upon the transfer of lands between the two nations, the majority of the residents remained on the grounds which had been those of their ancestors. This was provided for in the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which settled the conquests from the Mexican War. The Mexicans living in what is now Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, California, Nevada, Utah, and Colorado chose to become citizens of the conquering nation. However, they did not abandon, and have not abandoned to this day, their basic adherence to their original ethnic origins, including language.

Sociologists and other social scientists refer to the descendants of those Mexicans who were "absorbed" into the United States as Spanish-speaking. The term takes on a special significance in that English is properly the native tongue of the Mexican-Americans, since they are natives of the United States. They are called Spanish-speaking in that Spanish is generally the first language they use in their lives and the language they often continue to use for communication within the family group and in their communities. In common parlance, Spanish is thus considered to be the "native tongue" of these people.

In order to participate in mainstream American culture, the Mexican-American must speak English. In order for the Mexican-American to communicate within what is now a subculture of the nation's mainstream culture, he must speak Spanish. Some Mexican-Americans never learn English; and if they do not commingle with the mainstream, there is no necessity for them to impose upon themselves another language.

On the other hand, some Mexican-Americans do not learn Spanish. In these rarer cases of the non-Spanish-speaking Mexican-American, the circumstances center around particular demographic structures in different geographic regions in which there is no concentration of a Spanish-speaking population. Most Mexican-Americans, then, are referred to as Spanish-speaking in social literature.

The necessity for the use of two languages does not offset the confirmation that the dual language characteristic is a problem. Viewpoints about bilingualism are based on historical research of vernacular languages in education, on the contribution of the Spanish language to the culture of the Southwest, and on psychological and sociological findings. They direct attention to the special need for schools to implement effective approaches with regard to introducing English to Spanish-speaking students as a second language. The viewpoints are supported by parents, teachers, and students, who also place

emphasis on language as a major problem of the Spanish-speaking population.⁵

Usually the acquisition of a second language is not a disadvantage for an individual in his adjustment and functioning in his principal cultural milieu. For the Spanish-speaking of the United States, however, there appear to be two major conditions of disadvantage surrounding the use of two languages.

Language Disability and In-School Achievement

The school setting for the student from a Mexican-American heritage is characterized by a language barrier which affects his educational achievement. In many cases the Mexican-American learns only Spanish before he enters school. If he attends a public school, he is immediately

⁵For a historical, cultural, and educational treatment of bilingualism, see: George I. Sanchez, "History, Culture, and Education," in Samora, La Raza, pp. 1-26. Other sources on need for effective approaches and viewpoints on language as a problem: U.S., Congress, Senate, Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, Bilingual Education, Hearings, before a special subcommittee on bilingual education of the Committee of Labor and Public Welfare, Senate, on S. 428, 90th Cong., 1st Sess., pt. I, 1967, pp. 59-66; Miles V. Zintz, "Problems of Classroom Adjustment of Indian Children in Public Elementary Schools in the Southwest," in Passow, Disadvantaged, pp. 88-100; Herschel T. Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children of the Southwest (Austin: The University of Texas Press, 1965), p. 81; Operation SER: A Demographic and Attitudinal Study of the Albuquerque Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA) for Utilization in Manpower Planning and Development, Advance Report No. 1 (Santa Monica, Calif.: Operation SER, August, 1968), pp. 32-37.

(Austin: Bureau of Business Research, The University of Texas, 1964), pp. 29-36.

confronted with another language with which he may not be at all familiar. This other language, English, which is in fact his "native" tongue, must be learned simultaneously with learning the subject matter during the first few years in school. In many instances when a child returns home he explains what he learned in English to his parents and neighbors in Spanish. Under these circumstances, what he learns is often less than what the school expects.

Poor educational achievement causes a high percentage of Mexican-American students to drop out of school before they reach the eighth grade.⁶ If they reach high school they are allowed many times to guide themselves toward unachievable goals. Those who graduate from high school frequently occupy positions which do not adequately utilize their skills. Such jobs could be done as well without the benefit of a high school education. These circumstances suggest that many Mexican-Americans who are able to complete their high school work may not have received effective vocational guidance. Ineffective

⁶ The median for school years completed is lowest for the Spanish-speaking population, as indicated by Ralph W. Yarborough, Senior Senator from Texas, in an address given at the opening general session of American Vocational Association Convention, Dallas Memorial Auditorium, December 9, 1968. The Median years completed by the Spanish-surnamed group is 6.1 compared to 8.1 for Negroes and 11.5 for Anglos, as shown by Harley L. Browning and S. Dale McLemore, in A Statistical Profile of the Spanish-Surname Population of Texas, Population Series No. 1 (Austin: Bureau of Business Research, The University of Texas, 1964), pp. 29-36.

vocational guidance may also play a role in the high school drop-out rate of Mexican-Americans.

Language and Perceived Employability

The economic condition for most Mexican-Americans is characterized by an extremely high unemployment rate. This unemployment is attributed to the educational level. Nevertheless, Mexican-Americans seeking employment, whether as high school or college graduates, are faced either with the problem of being underutilized in their employment or with the problem that the company cannot hire someone whose bilingualism results in a "thick accent" or "jargon" which may be damaging to the company image.

In areas where a significant proportion of the population is Spanish-surnamed, the other groups in the population have often alleged that the Spanish-surnamed person cannot be employed effectively in many positions because of his inability with the English language. In most instances the Spanish-surnamed person whose English language ability is adequate for most of life's common functions but who by necessity speaks more Spanish during his life than he does English seldom refines his pronunciation of English words. Thus he retains the normal accent derived from using English as a second language to Spanish. Manuel, in his report on ability and achievement of Spanish-speaking students, states for example, that "the

language handicap was shown also by the fact that many Spanish-speaking girls seeking employment with the telephone company failed because of their speech."⁷

To many observers the practice of not employing a person on the basis of his accent amounts to nothing less than fundamental discrimination stemming from other factors besides language. Nevertheless, language has frequently been cited as a principal reason for not employing the Spanish-surnamed for jobs outside service and menial categories. In essence, the language barrier causing the problems of big dropout, unemployment, and underemployment rates means that these students will " . . . end up on the economic slag heap."⁸

The educational and economic conditions join forces to direct attention to an unquestionable need for continued research on Spanish-speaking people. A number of suggestions for research, because of the current rapid development of action programs, have been submitted by educators who recognize that research findings can provide some basis

⁷Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 68. For additional treatment on language in Employment, see: Operation SER, Albuquerque, p. 27; Operation SER, Second Progress Report, Report to the U.S. Department of Labor under Contract No. 82-46-68-49, October 1, to November 29, 1968 (Santa Monica, Calif.: Jobs for Progress, Inc., 1968), pp. 7-17.

⁸"Bilingual Education," The New Republic, October 21, 1967, pp. 9-10.

for important policy decisions.⁹ Most of the suggestions, however, are limited to an educational setting rather than an employment setting.

Limitations of the Study

A primary objective of the present study was to gain clear insights into pertinent factors about the employed Mexican-American white-collar worker with a dual language heritage and his work situation as it relates to his English language ability. The particular Mexican-Americans, occupational peers, and supervisors who are the subjects of this research are defined by certain vital characteristics:

1. Mexican-Americans are those who (a) have a dual language heritage and characteristic; (b) are employed in white-collar occupations wherein the use of English in one or more of its communication forms is a requisite of the job; and (c) have some appreciable level of employment experience or tenure. Such information is vitally needed to avoid speculation on these matters. With field data gathered on the basis of the employed Mexican-American's experience and his self language needs, as well as the observations, opinions, and attitudes of his non-Mexican-American occupational peers and supervisors, a more valid base
2. Occupational peers are those who (a) are not Mexican-American; (b) possess neither a dual language heritage nor a dual language characteristic; and (c) are employed in a job situation

⁹For a detailed summary of suggested research see Samora, La Raza, pp. 200-11.

which is identical with or very similar to that of their Mexican-American counterparts.

3. Management representatives are those who (a) are in supervisory capacities over both the Mexican-Americans and their occupational peers; and (b) represent an ethnic element which is neither Mexican-American nor bilingual.

By using a group restricted in the above characteristics, the scope of the research was narrowed. Virtually no work has been done to indicate what language needs the Mexican-American employee actually has on the job or, equally important, those which he believes himself to have. Neither has work been done to discover what attitudes the Mexican-American has about his language abilities in relation to those of his occupational peers who do not have the dual language characteristic. Conversely, no information exists to show attitudes toward the Mexican-American employee by his non-Mexican-American occupational peers and supervisors. Such information is vitally needed to avoid speculation on these matters. With field data gathered on the basis of the employed Mexican-American's experience and his felt language needs, as well as the observations, opinions, and attitudes of his non-Mexican-American occupational peers and supervisors, a more valid base exists from which to derive implications for educators of the future wave of Chicanos.

This research was also designed to give a base of information to serve as a possible starting point for more elaborate studies in the future. The present project is subject to limitations necessarily imposed upon individual research efforts, which by their very nature preclude the use of a team of qualified research specialists or a broad financial base. As a consequence, some of the data which appear only tentative or suggestive form a reference point for future work.

The third limitation was that of the population. Certain counties and areas in the State of Texas, one of the five Southwestern states, were selected because they face an urgent need for educational and economic reforms where Mexican-Americans are concerned. These were selected to represent high and low concentrations of the Spanish-speaking population.¹⁰

A fourth limitation was in the procedure for evaluating the language abilities of white-collar employees. Language performance abilities were determined by perceptions, opinions, and judgments of personnel selected for the case studies. It is recognized that fact and opinion easily may be diametrically different. Employees'

¹⁰ There is a two-way relationship rather than a three-way relationship between the populations of three ethnic groups in Texas. Anglos, as a majority group, are combined with significant proportions of one minority group, either Mexican-Americans or Negroes, but not both. See Browning and MeLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, pp. 11-13.

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perceptions, however, were considered of prime value to gain insights into the images held of the language abilities of Mexican-American employees.

The selected number of employees in their respective companies represent the fifth limitation of the study. The selection of Mexican-American white-collar employees requires a considerable amount of investigation. Of the total Mexican-American component of the Texas labor force, white-collar employment applies to less than one-fourth compared to over half of the Anglo employment. Therefore, companies within certain industries were selected according to data which showed that they employed Mexican-Americans in white-collar positions. Three white-collar levels were selected: (a) Professional and Technical; (b) Managers; and (c) Clerical and Sales.

Definition of Terms

Various terms used in this study require defining. The definitions are listed alphabetically for ease in reference:

Assimilation--Assimilation, an elusive concept, may be viewed as a changing process by which thoughts, feelings, and actions of different groups are fused socially and culturally. The process may include both Acculturation, where the thoughts, feelings, and customs of a people are altered through transmission, creativity, or

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disintegration, and Integration, where there is social interaction or fusion regardless of racial or ethnic identity.¹¹

Assimilation ranges from the "melting pot" concept to the "Americanization" viewpoint and to the theory of "cultural pluralism" which Vander Zanden defines:

... (Assimilation) aims at achieving uniformity within a society through immigrant conformity in those areas where this is felt to be necessary to the national well-being; yet simultaneously it permits immigrants to maintain their own cultural traits in conformity within a framework of cultural pluralism--an imperfect fusion of a number of diverse cultural ingredients within the framework of a larger society.¹²

For purposes of this study, the term assimilation is used in reference to the theory of "cultural pluralism" with the added dimension of achieving occupational uniformity. It should be stressed, however, that the works of writers cited in this study may use assimilation in sociological terms which include different concepts and viewpoints.

Bilingual--The term bilingual refers to an individual who develops and uses two languages, usually as a result of formal training. The Mexican-American shares

¹¹James W. Vander Zanden, American Minority Relations: The Sociology of Race and Ethnic Groups (2nd ed.; New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966), pp. 298-300.

¹²Ibid., p. 304.

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with the American Indian this characteristic of a culturally superimposed dual language characteristic. Within the broader definitional construction, Anglos of German and French descent are bilingual when, particularly in certain geographic regions of the Southwest, they use their respective languages in combination with English. The term bilingual, however, is used in this study with reference to Mexican-Americans whose functioning language abilities in Spanish and English stem from a dual language heritage.

Bilingualism--In education, bilingualism can be defined " . . . in terms of the development of literacy in two languages by using the child's first language as the medium for learning the reading and writing process."¹³ A program in bilingual education, for example, involves " . . . the use of two languages as medium of instruction to enable students to learn and adjust satisfactorily in their educational environments."¹⁴

Another definition of bilingualism is concerned with " . . . the ability of a person to function in two languages, and/or the ability of an adult to function as a

¹³ Severo Gomez, Paper delivered on "The Meaning and Implications of Bilingualism for Texas Schools," during Proceedings of the First Texas Conference for the Mexican-Americans, held in San Antonio, Texas, April, 1967 (Austin: Southwest Educational Laboratory), p. 47.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 57.

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literate member of his society in two languages as a result of his public school education."¹⁵ For purposes of this study, bilingualism refers to language knowledge which, in the absence of formal training in Spanish, results from a dual language heritage and leads to functioning abilities in both English and Spanish.

Monolingualist--A monolingualist is an individual who develops and uses one language. Some Mexican-Americans, for example, are monolingualists in that they speak only Spanish or only English. The term is used in this study in reference to Anglos whose functioning language ability is English only.

Disadvantaged Youth--The term "disadvantaged" is used interchangeably with such other terms as "culturally deprived," "educationally deprived," "deprived," and "lower socioeconomic group."¹⁶ The term as used in this study is in reference to youth who:

... usually exhibit two characteristics: they are from the lower socio-economic groups in the community and they are notably deficient in cultural and academic strengths. The latter characteristic is usually, but not always, a consequence of the first factor. The parents of these children have simply been unable to provide the quality of background, outlook, initial grounding, and readiness for formal learning that middle and upper-class parents provide as a matter of

¹⁵Ibid.

¹⁶Frank Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1968), p. 1.

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course. And all too often our schools have been almost exclusively geared to the mores of the latter group.¹⁷

For purposes of this study the term disadvantaged youth is broad in scope as it applies to Mexican-American students whose heritage makes them members of a minority ethnic group. The term is not confined to those students who "cannot succeed" in vocational education.¹⁸ Instead, it applies to Mexican-Americans, who, by receiving the type of training offered by a conventional vocational education program in high school, would be provided with skills and knowledge necessary for entry level employment. The term is used with an added dimension of providing occupational equality for Mexican-Americans by means of conventional occupational training which can enhance their employment opportunities.

¹⁷ Bernard A. Kaplan, "Issues in Educating the Culturally Disadvantaged," in Vital Issues in American Education, ed. by Alice and Lester Crow (New York: Bantam Books, 1964), p. 98.

¹⁸ It should be pointed out that the term disadvantaged youth is used in vocational education to include different concepts and viewpoints. Its use is limited to students whose characteristics, described above, "prevent them from succeeding in vocational education . . . programs designed for persons without such handicaps, and who for that reason require specially designed educational programs or related services." Texas Education Agency, Texas State Plan Vocational Education Under the Amendments of 1968, Fiscal Year 1971 (Austin, Texas: Texas Education Agency, 1970), p. 129. Another characteristic is that " . . . he is often a member of minority groups with linguistic problems that prevent educational success. In fact, these students come from a bilingually illiterate home," (Ibid., Appendix, p. 75).

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Non-Spanish-Surnamed Population--The non-Spanish-surnamed population represents members of the Caucasian race whose wide range of nationalities may include Irish, Polish, Italian, German, and others. In the Southwest members of this population are commonly referred to as "Anglos," a short term for "Anglo-Saxon," regardless of the nationality involved; their major characteristic is the basic language, English. A more inclusive term used in this study is non-Spanish-surnamed, but it will be used interchangeably with Anglos or non-Mexican-Americans. Specific reference is to employees and students from a majority ethnic group whose social, educational, and economic strata differ from those of the "disadvantaged" minority groups.

Spanish-Speaking Population--The Spanish-speaking population represents members of the Caucasian race known either as Mexican, Mexican-American, or Chicano, with a major characteristic of using Spanish as a basic language.¹⁹ The more recent term, Chicano, results from attempts by Young Mexican-Americans for self-identity and positive image. Chicano, derived from an Indian word and previously

¹⁹For a detailed description of generic and colloquial terms used by different ethnic groups, see Julian Nava, Mexican Americans: A Brief Look at Their History (New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1970), pp. 9-10.

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used as a derisive slang term, now symbolizes a badge of honor and loyalty to the civil rights movement of Mexican-Americans.²⁰

Spanish-speaking, a more technical term in this study, is used interchangeably with Mexican-Americans. Specific reference is to employees and students who represent a minority ethnic group regarded as "dis-advantaged."

Students with Special Needs--This term, according to the 1963 Vocational Education Act, applies to students with academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps who do not succeed in regular vocational education programs.

Vocational Education--The term vocational education, according to the 1963 Vocational Education Act, applies to programs which are operated in the public schools and assisted by funds provided by both federal and state governments. The purpose of these programs is to provide occupational skills and knowledge essential to the development of competencies required in the occupational field for which the individual is being prepared, upgraded, or updated.

²⁰The meaning of the term Chicano is explained in "Action Line," The Houston Post, August 30, 1970, p. 16-c. Its usage is explained in Nava, op. cit., p. 46.

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Vocational education refers to two areas in this study. In the first area, Business and Office Education, instruction is designed to prepare students for gainful employment in an office occupation. Training is provided for many different office occupations, e.g., bookkeepers, cashiers, payroll clerks, receptionists, and secretaries.²¹ In the second area, Distributive Education, instruction is designed to prepare students for gainful employment in retailing, wholesaling, and service occupations. In retailing, for example, students receive occupational training for many different positions, e.g., advertising manager, customer service employee, and salesperson in merchandise departments.²² In either of these areas, students receive training in different types of instructional programs, i.e., cooperative part-time training and pre-employment laboratory training programs.

White and Nonwhites--Members of the Caucasian race, Classified as "Whites," include Anglos and Mexican-Americans. Distinctions frequently are made, however, to facilitate the collection and analysis of statistical data.

²¹ Texas Education Agency, Vocational Office Education Program Standards, March, 1971 (1st ed., rev.; Austin: Texas Education Agency, 1971), pp. 1-16.

²² Texas Education Agency, Vocational Distributive Education Program Standards, March, 1971 (1st ed., rev.; Austin: Texas Education Agency, 1971), pp. 1-7.

Anglos, for example, sometimes are classified as "Whites not of Spanish-surname" while Mexican-Americans are classified as "White persons of Spanish-surname." U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960, uses "Spanish surname" although it points out that terms used in classifying Mexican-Americans are not without limitations.²³ As a consequence, the term "Spanish origin" was used for the first time in the 1970 Census as a "self-identifying" category.²⁴

The classification of Nonwhites, referring to members whose race is non-Caucasian, is used in statistical data largely in reference to Negroes. For purposes of this study the term is inclusive of American Indians and Orientals.

Cultural Approach

A cultural approach can be of value to teachers, whose value judgments daily affect the lives of their students. In more specific terms, a cultural approach can serve as a basis for recognizing and understanding an

²³U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports, Persons of Spanish Surname, Final Report, PC (2)--B. (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1963), pp. viii-ix.

²⁴The 1970 Census figures were not available at the time of this writing. Figures were released from Los Angeles by the New York Times Service: "9.2 Million Americans Linked to Spanish Origin, Census Reveals," Beaumont Enterprise, April 19, 1971, p. 5.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE PERTINENT TO VOCATIONAL

EDUCATION, LANGUAGE, AND CULTURE OF

THE MEXICAN-AMERICAN

First, the views of educators regarding a cultural approach essential to understanding the make-up of an individual and the causes and results of poor educational achievement were sought out. Secondly, the principles of vocational education which are relevant to the study were pinpointed.

Cultural Approach

A cultural approach can be of value to teachers, whose value judgments daily affect the lives of their students. In more specific terms, a cultural approach can serve as a basis for recognizing and understanding an individual's characteristics: strengths and weaknesses, educational aspirations, causes and problems of academic achievement, and self-image.

In addition to the specific advantages of understanding the makeup of the individual, the use of a

² Mancel, Spanish-Speaking Children, pp. 72-73.

cultural approach may promote recognition of untapped human resources and creative talent. Pioneering efforts and works reveal this country's neglect of the disadvantaged. This potential source of manpower and creative talent may be tapped by undertaking the following initial steps to understanding culture:

... [use] some fresh approach. . . . The usual tests won't identify these able pupils; the usual curriculum won't challenge them; the usual teachers won't inspire them. While additional research would be helpful, the more urgent need seems to be for creative teaching on the basis of a different set of assumptions. . . . [Also needed is] respect. . . . We don't understand these neighborhoods, these homes, these children, because we haven't respected them enough to think them worthy of study and attention.¹

Manuel reported a belief that "heredity itself sets the stage for many differences and that environment complicates the situation still further." He also accented the talent of children emphasizing that "failure with these children means an especially great loss of human resources."²

If attempts to understand the disadvantaged entail an approach which involves understanding the culture of the individual and respect for this culture, what is meant by culture? An attempt to define culture warrants a re-definition of the term "culturally deprived," which, though common in usage, is not unanimously accepted by

¹Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child, p. xi.

²Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, pp. 72-73.

educators. The concept of cultural deprivation when used by school personnel can foster misunderstandings or expectancies which are detrimental to the individual student. For example, the culturally deprived individual may be regarded with "a pervasive expectation of failure"³ which, as aptly stated by many educators, can cause the "self-fulfilling prophecy" to become reality.

Those who disfavor the term "culturally deprived" contend that the members of this group are not cultureless but that "their cultures and heritages differ from those cultivated by the middle-class schools they attend."⁴ Indeed, the so-called culturally deprived "possess a culture of their own, with many positive characteristics that have developed out of coping with a difficult environment."⁵

The concept of culture is regarded with differing viewpoints. Although some regard culture as being equivalent to environment, Riessman explains culture as:

. . . an effort to cope with the surrounding environment. If we fail to see the struggle, the attempts to combat the difficult environment, and instead seize upon the failures, the ineffectiveness, we will not understand

³Doxey A. Wilkerson, review of Dark Ghetto, by Kenneth Clark, in Education for the Disadvantaged, ed. by Harry L. Miller (New York: The Free Press, 1967), p. 31.

⁴Kaplan, "Issues in Educating the Culturally Disadvantaged," Vital Issues in American Education, p. 107.

⁵Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child, p. 3.

the behavior of the educationally deprived or, at best, will see it only onesidedly.⁶

Three reasons have been given by Manuel for the difficulty in describing a culture:

. . . the term is so broad. How people live . . . what customs they observe, what language they speak, what religion they value--in brief, the life characteristics of a people are their culture.

. . . cultures change. . . . This is particularly true of a people whose culture was developed within a rural-village environment and who are suddenly transplanted into a modern urban culture.

. . . there are extreme differences among persons who are within the same group. Within many large groups there are subgroups markedly different from each other. . . . It should be emphasized that a kind of central tendency--or, in statistical terms, the mode of a population--is just that: . . . a condition which is characteristic of a fraction of the group sufficiently large to have significance . . . characterizing a group as 'Spanish-speaking' expresses only a 'usual' condition to which there are many exceptions, and even 'Spanish-speaking' varies in degree.⁷

Manuel has repeatedly stressed, as have other writers, that inferences cannot be made regarding the status of an individual on the basis of the average or trend of the group, for the individual alone must be studied in order to learn of his real characteristics. Nevertheless, Manuel has also recognized the need for knowing the conditions and trends of the group.⁸

⁶Ibid., p. 6.

⁷Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, pp. 31-32.

⁸Ibid., p. 33.

Spanish-Speaking Culture

Numerous writers have discussed and described the Spanish-speaking population. Particular emphasis has been on the factors of: (1) resistance to acculturation, including the reasons and values behind the problem of acculturation; (2) differences between and within groups in the Spanish-speaking population and the historical influences on these differences; and (3) differences between the Spanish-speaking and English-speaking cultures.

The problems of assimilation and acculturation of Mexican-Americans have received the attention of social scientists, according to Heller, but "there are very few scholarly studies of the factors accounting for this situation."⁹ Heller acknowledged the work of Kluckhohn as a "recent effort along these lines . . . " in which slow assimilation is related to sharp differences in value orientations.¹⁰

Samora briefly traced the nationalities of the Spanish-speaking people from Spanish to Mexican to American. He stated that " . . . up to the turn of the century

⁹Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 19. It is interesting to note how the theme of acculturation is portrayed by Heller and others with the word Forgotten. Sanchez in 1940 wrote Forgotten People. Twenty-six years later Sanchez and other colleagues contributed chapters to La Raza: Forgotten Americans edited by Julian Samora. Also in 1966 Heller wrote Mexican American Youth: Forgotten Youth at the Crossroads.

¹⁰Florence R. Kluckhohn, Variations in Value Orientations, cited by Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 19.

the Spanish settlements in the United States remained essentially Spanish folk societies with a variety of admixtures from the indigenous populations."¹¹ Manuel reported Saunders' classifications of the groups as follows: (1) the Spanish-American group of New Mexico and southern Colorado who represent more of a village culture; (2) the Mexican-Americans who are immigrants or descendants of immigrants from Mexico; and (3) the Mexicans who have recently come to the United States either legally or illegally.¹²

Sanchez provided historical information concerning the Spanish-speaking people who settled in the Southwest more than 350 years ago. His writings in 1940 and 1966 indicated differences between groups and reasons for lack of acculturation of the Spanish-speaking population. In 1966 he reported:

. . . The date of migration and settlement, the attendant cultural noncomitants, geographic isolation, natural resources, the number and kind of Indians among whom they settled, and many other factors resulted in not one Spanish-speaking people but several, each with distinctive cultures. The outlook on life and the value, the allegiances, the biology, the very speech of these colonial settlers varied greatly, and though all were Spanish-speaking, they can be thought of as different peoples.

Until about the mid-nineteenth century, the Californios, the Nuevo Mexicanos, and the Texanos went

¹¹Samora, ed., "Introduction," in La Raza, p. xii.

¹²Lyle Saunders, Cultural Difference and Medical Care; the Case of the Spanish-speaking People of the Southwest, cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 36.

their separate cultural ways, held together only lightly by, first, the slender threads of Spain and, later, for a brief time, the uncertain bonds of independent Mexico. The annexation of Texas and the occupation of the rest of the Southwest by the United States changed the course of human affairs in the region, but the change was a slow one, unplanned and haphazard. The United States had not developed the social and cultural institutions to carry out an effective program of acculturation among her new citizens. The new states and territories were left to shift for themselves, with an understandable lack of success. The Spanish-speaking peoples of the Southwest remained Spanish-speaking and culturally isolated--unassimilated citizens, subject to the ever increasing dominance of a foreign culture.¹³

Sanchez suggested that time could have solved some of the problems of acculturation, but in addition to the inadequacy of social conditions was the problem of changing conditions brought about on the Southwestern scene. The need for cheap labor led to the importing of people from Mexico. "What for brevity [Sanchez chose] to call 'cultural digestion'"¹⁴ had adverse effects on the problem of acculturation.

In 1940 Sanchez described conditions of social and economic decline resulting from a lack of efforts to Americanize the descendants of the Spanish colonists in New Mexico. Although he recognized the portrayal of the status of the people to be beyond his report, he stated:

. . . Almost a hundred years after becoming American citizens, a broad gap still separates them from the culture which surrounds them. In lieu of

¹³ Sanchez, "History, Culture, and Education," in La Raza, pp. 5-6.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 7.

adequate instruction, they have clung to their language, their customs, their agricultural practices. ~~Though no fault can be found with a society because~~ it seeks to perpetuate worthy elements of its culture, it is to be regretted that, in this instance, the process has not been accompanied by suitable adaptations.

The New Mexican often carries on inferior and obsolete practices and beliefs because he has been permitted, and forced, to remain in isolation. Of necessity, he has persisted in a traditional way of life that is below current standards. His language has suffered by disuse, yet he has had little chance to learn to use English effectively. His social status reflects his economic insufficiency. His lack of education handicaps him in the exercise of his political power. That same lack makes him a public charge once he has lost his land, his traditional source of livelihood. Midst the wreckage of his economy and his culture, and unprepared for the new order of things, he is pathetic in his helplessness--a stranger in his own home.¹⁵

Samora, twenty-six years later, confirmed the unwillingness to acculturate portrayed by Sanchez:

. . . even today . . . the descendants of those early colonists have not accepted completely the life-ways of the dominant society and are in many instances highly resistant to complete acculturation.¹⁶

"Both in the rate and the degree of acculturation and assimilation," concluded Heller, "Mexican-Americans are among the least 'Americanized' of all ethnic groups in the United States."¹⁷

Relevant to the acculturation phase of the Mexican-Americans are the contrasts drawn by writers regarding the differences between Spanish-American and

¹⁵ Sanchez, Forgotten People, p. 28.

¹⁶ Samora, ed., "Introduction," in La Raza, p. xii.

¹⁷ Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 4.

American cultures. With regard to the values of the two cultures Manuel reported on the works of Kluckhohn, Ulibarri, and Saunders.¹⁸ Kluckhohn found that the values held by the Spanish-American and the American cultures, respectively, disclosed orientations toward: (1) "subjugation-to-nature" versus "mastery-over-nature"; (2) "time" focused on the present versus focused on the future; (3) "being" versus "doing" type of activity; and (4) a "relational" dependency versus individualistic "self-reliance."¹⁹ Manuel, however, who discussed Ulibarri's unpublished 1958 report on "The Effect of Cultural Difference in the Education of Spanish Americans," found Ulibarri's division of time orientations interesting in that the upper class regards the past but plans for generations ahead, the middle class looks back one generation but plans for one future generation; and the lower class seeks immediate rewards. Ulibarri suggested that " . . . the alleged fatalistic attitude . . . (is) a misrepresentation of his behavior" and the exclamation, "God wills it" is more a "matter of mental hygiene therapy"

¹⁸Florence R. Kluckhohn, Variations in Value Orientations; Horacio Ulibarri, "The Effect of Cultural Difference in Education of Spanish Americans"; Lyle Saunders, Cultural Difference and Medical Care; the Case of the Spanish-speaking People of the Southwest, cited by Manuel, pp. 35-38.

¹⁹Kluckhohn, Value Orientations, cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, pp. 35-38.

which results from an individual having "exhausted all the possibilities at his disposal."²⁰

Recognition of individual variations were recognized by Kluckhohn.²¹ Saunders noted similarities within the groups and differences between the groups; he recognized, however, that a given individual may not be characterized by the group's characteristics and listed characteristics similar to the four given by Kluckhohn.²² Ulibarri summarized with two important points: (1) the inherent danger in thinking that all individuals conform to the group's characteristics; and (2) the rapid change in conditions with regard to the acculturation of some in one or both cultures.²³

Homes

The homes, representative of impoverished economic conditions, are a key factor which influence the lives of the disadvantaged. It should be noted, however, that the literature concerning the homes of the disadvantaged is in most instances more applicable to Negro youth than to

²⁰Ulibarri, "Cultural Difference," cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 38.

²¹Kluckhohn, Value Orientations, cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 36.

²²Saunders, Cultural Difference, cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 37.

²³Ulibarri, "Cultural Difference," cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 38.

Mexican-American youth. Kemp's discussion, for example, of the problem that fatherless homes place on the mothers to provide their children with " . . . the care and affection they desire and need because the burden of merely holding the family together drains their emotions" may not necessarily hold for Mexican-American homes. More applicable to Mexican-American youth, however, may be Kemp's indications that disadvantaged youth experience rejection in the school, when the curriculum and materials are not suited to their needs and abilities; in the community, when personnel, facilities, and job opportunities are lacking; and in society, when narrow opportunities limit their aspirations.²⁴

The disadvantaged must contend with many adverse environmental conditions. Some of the conditions reported by Deutsch and summarized by Kemp include: staying within their immediate environment and thus remaining unfamiliar with areas beyond their neighborhood boundaries; scarcity of such resources as books and school supplies; a lack of successful experiences, which promotes failure, negative self-images, and low estimates of their own competencies;

²⁴U.S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Division of Vocational and Technical Education, The Youth We Haven't Served, A Challenge to Vocational Education, by Barbara H. Kemp, Circular OE-80038 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1966), p. 3.

unrelated educational and occupational training; and discrimination which can result in feelings of hostility, humiliation, or self-doubt.²⁵

Most of these conditions of the disadvantaged apply, of course, to the Mexican-Americans. Conditions of poverty, for example, force the Mexican-Americans to live in slum areas.²⁶ Yet, there are factors which warrant special emphasis with regard to the Mexican-American family.

The social role of the church, the authoritarian role of the father, the size of the family, and the responsibilities and behavior of the children are unique factors in the Mexican-American family. Historically, a pattern of social life is represented by both the church and the family.²⁷ Traditional forms are displayed in the family organization, for example, where there are strong ties in the extended family which "impose obligations of mutual aid, respect, and affection." Heller is one of several writers who extend these ties to compradazgo, where it is recognized that compadres are not related although

²⁵Ibid., pp. 3-4.

²⁶John H. Burma, Spanish-Speaking Groups in the United States (Durham, S.C.: Duke University Press, 1954), p. 86.

²⁷Ibid., p. 8.

they assume "family obligations in a religious ceremony establishing ritual kinship."²⁸

Burma, as well as Heller and other writers, has noted the authoritarian role in the family life assumed by the father and the subordinate role assumed by the mother in the traditional pattern. While the father's personal business is regarded as his own business, the community requires his social responsibilities to be above reproach. He is expected, for example, to support his immediate family and to lend assistance to his parents and near relatives. The woman's place is in the home, while the man, whose life is less restricted, "is expected to assume material responsibility for his wife and children, to be loyal to the large family group, and to live up to his community responsibilities."²⁹ A transition from this traditional has, according to Ulibarri, led to increases in alcoholism and the number of divorces.³⁰

The size of the family is considered important in the Mexican-American culture. Heller presented implications of family size "in the slow upward mobility of Mexican-Americans." She suggested that the high birth rate warrants exploration because of the probability that "most

²⁸Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 34.

²⁹Burma, op. cit., p. 9-11.

³⁰Ulibarri, "Cultural Difference," cited by Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 39.

Mexican-American parents continue to be unaware of the extent to which each child's chances for advancement are hampered by the large number of siblings."³¹

Mexican-American children are instilled with a sense of responsibility toward their younger siblings which basically underlies the authoritative structure of parental control. The older brother role in the Mexican-American family extends to the father's role. In the United States, however, it has a distinct quality which Heller describes as more of a "foster parent" role " . . . schooled in American ways." The differences in the roles for the girl and the boy are mainly based on the "male image" which indulges in " . . . sexual prowess, physical strength, adventurousness and courage, male dominance, self-confidence, and verbal articulation." The girl's role, on the other hand, is one of fidelity and close supervision within the home.³²

The behavior of the children is one of respectful conduct which is closely related to the values of honor and respect. Ruth Tuck observed, as reported by Heller, that " . . . Good manners stand high in the list of desirable attributes for children, even in humble homes." The children " . . . are urged to show respect, obedience,

³¹Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 32.

³²Ibid., p. 35.

and humility in their behavior toward parents and elders and are drilled in courtesy."³³ In comparing the behavior of Mexican-American youth with Anglo-American youth, Heller found the former to be " . . . marked by extraordinary courtesy and politeness . . . at least on the basis of casual observation."³⁴

Characteristics Relevant to Educational Achievement

Many of the characteristics, favorable and unfavorable, of the disadvantaged are disclosed by educators, whose views differ in degree of emphasis. Black emphasized the fears of the disadvantaged of failure and its consequences; of being overpowered by teachers; and of lack of recognition and understanding by teachers.³⁵ Riessman has emphasized the confusion caused by the assumption that a slow child is a poor student when in fact slowness can also be indicative of an intellectual capacity with a strong desire for thoroughness, for thinking through a problem carefully, or for emphasizing the

³³Ruth Tuck, Not With The Fist, cited by Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 37.

³⁴Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 37.

³⁵Millard H. Black, "Characteristics of the Culturally Disadvantaged Child," The Disadvantaged Child: Issues and Innovations, ed. by Joe L. Frost and Glenn R. Hawkes (New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966), pp. 45-46.

concrete and physical.³⁶ Other characteristics which are described by Riessman and emphasized by Black are that the disadvantaged individual: (1) learns through a physical, concrete approach; (2) has an anti-intellectual attitude; (3) is superstitious and traditional in religion; (4) focuses on a male-centered culture; (5) is inflexible and unreasonable in his beliefs concerning morality, diet, family polarity, and educational practice; (6) has a feeling of frustration from his alienation toward the social structure; (7) blames others for his misfortunes; (8) values masculinity and regards intellectual activities as unmasculine; (9) values knowledge for practical, vocational ends rather than intellectual ones; (10) desires a better standard of living but is not willing to conform to a middle-class way of life; (11) is deficient in auditory, attention, and interpretation skills; (12) reads ineffectively and is deficient in communication skills; and (13) has broad areas of ignorance, and is suspicious of innovations.³⁷

Operative Factors

Studies conducted by Metfessel and others on the causes and results of cultural disadvantage reveal operative factors in the lives of children from

³⁶Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child, p. 64.

³⁷Black, "Characteristics," p. 46.

disadvantaged homes. The factors have been interpreted by Black, who grouped them into four categories: (1) readiness for instruction, (2) school behavior, (3) language factors, and (4) learning patterns.³⁸

Readiness for instruction.--The disadvantaged child whose gaps in knowledge and learning are significant enters school where he is confronted with unfamiliar communication procedures and patterns. His limited experience in receiving approval for a job well done poses a problem of motivation to the teacher. The limited nature of experiences beyond the home presents a problem when the teacher assumes that the child has had these experiences. In essence, comprehension of classroom studies and activities is limited because of deprivation in communication skills, concepts, and experiences in the home.³⁹

School behavior.--The disadvantaged are "unaware of the 'ground rules' for success in school." This lack of awareness does not represent a failure to recognize the values of an education but rather the lack of "know-how" to cope with the academic and middle-class cultures. Evidence supports the contention that both parents and disadvantaged youth recognize the values of education.

³⁸Ibid., pp. 46-49.

³⁹Ibid., p. 48.

The critical distinction is that the disadvantaged do have a dislike for school because they believe " . . . the school does not like them, does not respond to them, does not appreciate their culture, and does not think they can learn."⁴⁰

Interest in education focuses on vocational ends. Reading habits, because of lack of books and other literature in the homes, manifest themselves in frustration when experiences fail to generate motivation in reading. The use of timed tests for objective measurement are of doubtful value with the disadvantaged because " . . . accurate determination of their potential and their achievement must be obtained through some technique which does not penalize them with rigidly defined time limitations."⁴¹ The adult view regards the teacher more in terms of an authoritative role than in terms of an adult who can be presented with questions.

Language factors.--The disadvantaged "understand more language than they use," although their usage of language is not characterized by "a wide hearing or understanding vocabulary."⁴² Black reported evidence that the

⁴⁰Frank Riessman, "The Overlooked Positives of Disadvantaged Groups," in Frost and Hawkes, Disadvantaged Child, p. 55.

⁴¹Black, "Characteristics," p. 49.

⁴²Ibid., p. 47.

vocabulary of the disadvantaged in grade two is approximately one-third and in grade six about one-half that of normal children. Many words are used appropriately but are not representative of the school culture; the disadvantaged, instead, learn words two years later than most children. A problem in language development of disadvantaged children which is attributed to the lack of objects in the home is that they " . . . do not perceive the concept that objects have names, and that the same objects may have different names." Words are fewer and less varied than those used by kindergarten children in higher socioeconomic classes and may result in severe, limited self-expression. The significantly small use of compound, complex, and more elaborate sentence constructions, a problem " . . . not limited to the non-English-speaking child . . . ," applies to most disadvantaged. The listening abilities, affected by noisy, crowded conditions in the home, in turn affect what the disadvantaged can learn.⁴³

Learning patterns.--Inductive approaches enable the disadvantaged to learn more readily than do deductive approaches. Underlying the assumption that " . . . low self-esteem, induced by long economic deprivation, discrimination, or both, may cause pupils to distrust their

⁴³Ibid., p. 47.

own judgment or conclusions . . . " is the need for an authoritarian figure in the classroom for the disadvantaged. The home limits the opportunities for children to experience discussion or draw conclusions from observations. Because of limited experience with symbolic representation, the disadvantaged need concrete applications of what is learned so that long-term goals set by a school fail to provide immediate satisfaction. Poor attention span causes difficulty in following a teacher's instructions, since complications arise by their particular inability to supply through context what is missed during periods of inattention.⁴⁴

Two questions might be raised concerning these operative factors in the lives of the disadvantaged. First, do these factors apply to Spanish-speaking students also? If so, how do they apply, and what are the differences or similarities? The answers to these questions are pertinent to teachers involved in teaching Spanish-speaking youth.

The academic achievement of Mexican-Americans is an average 7.1 years of school completed, as compared with 12.1 years for the Anglo child and 9 years for the nonwhite child in the Southwest.⁴⁵ The academic achievement of

⁴⁴Ibid.

⁴⁵US., Congress, Senate, Bilingual Education, Hearings, p. 17. Data on the academic achievement of

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Mexican-American students is influenced by such previously-mentioned factors as fear, the problems in readiness for instruction resulting from deprivation in communication skills, and linguistic limitations in vocabulary and listening abilities.⁴⁶ As Bumpass, quoted by The New Republic, told Texas Senator Ralph Yarborough, school children with Spanish surnames in the Southwestern states "are suffering from linguistic, cultural and psychological handicaps that cause them to experience academic failure in our schools."⁴⁷

These weaknesses are influenced by the socio-economic conditions in the homes, the assimilation and

Mexican-Americans in Texas is shown by Browning and McLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, pp. 29-36.

⁴⁶Influencing factors such as school factors, parents' socioeconomic status, family characteristics, expectations, and population characteristics which are related to the educational achievement of Mexican-American students are treated by: James G. Anderson and William H. Johnson, in Sociocultural Determinants of Achievements Among Mexican American Students, An Interim Report of the Mathematics Education Program. Prepared for National Conference on Educational Opportunities for Mexican-Americans, Austin, Texas, April 25-26, 1968 (Las Cruces, N.Mex.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, New Mexico State University, 1968), pp. ii-29; U.S. Congress, House Committee on Education and Labor, Bilingual Education Programs, Hearings, before the general subcommittee on education of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, on H.R. 9840, and H.R. 10224, 90th Cong., 1st. sess., 1967, pp. 449-63; Report of the Governor's Committee on Public School Education, Report to the Governor, Legislature, and Citizens of Texas, Leon Jaworski, Chairman (Austin, Tex.: n.p., 1968), pp. 28-39.

⁴⁷Bilingual Education, Hearings, cited in "Bilingual Education," The New Republic, p. 9.

and acculturation problems of the Mexican-American culture, and, of course, the individual himself. All factors are components, or slices of the problematic pie encountered by the Mexican-American student, but a major slice which permeates all other components is the bilingualism of the Mexican-American.

If Mexican-American students share similar operative factors with most disadvantaged youth but a major difference is one of bilingualism, how should this difference be viewed? Is this bilingualism an advantage or a disadvantage?

Sanchez has presented views on bilingualism which are based on historical research on vernacular languages in education. A professional lifetime spent in the study of Spanish-speaking people of the Southwest has led to his belief in the potential effectiveness of introducing English to Spanish-speaking children as a second language and his criticisms of the schools for their failure to implement effective approaches.⁴⁸

Sanchez has suggested that there is need for various approaches to be used to promote the Spanish

⁴⁸ Sanchez, "History, Culture, and Education," in La Raza, pp. 1-26. The introduction of English to Spanish-speaking children is treated by Marguerite Smith, English as a Second Language for Mexican Americans, Prepared for National Conference on Educational Opportunities for Mexican-Americans, Austin, Texas, April 25-26, 1968 (Las Cruces, N.M.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, New Mexico State University, 1968), pp. 1-19.

language because of the contributions it has made to the culture of the Southwest:

. . . For us in the Southwest it is a matter for simple language and simple logic. Instead of operating in the abstract, we can use our everyday circumstances as a basis for our convictions about the place of a foreign home-language in our culture and the value of that language in learning English. We do not have to defend much of our cultural substance from Spanish. . . . It takes only very elementary research to see how the Spanish Mexican contribution undergirds the culture of the Southwest.⁴⁹

Sanchez's reasons are, above all, based on psychological and sociological findings.

The emotional problems of a child who senses failure and frustration have been observed by Sanchez, who compares his observations with significant findings of modern psychologists and sociologists. Maier, for example, reported how restrained tendencies can result in hopeless or defiant attitudes when there are inconsistent rewards.⁵⁰

Sanchez compared this situation:

How many times have I seen this repeated by children with a foreign home-language! How many times have I seen a child cringe and crouch, physically and emotionally, because the language of the home was taboo at school and the language of the school was nonfunctional at home. Here is the genesis of the pachuco, the delinquent.⁵¹

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 13.

⁵⁰Norman R. F. Maier, Frustration: The Study of Behavior Without a Goal (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949), cited by Sanchez, La Raza, pp. 12-13.

⁵¹Ibid., p. 12.

Sanchez also mentioned recognition by social psychologists of "the fundamental importance of esteem in personality formation and motivation" for "feelings of self-confidence, worth, strength, capacity, and adequacy of being useful and necessary in the world."⁵² Accordingly, he questioned, "What can contribute more to self-esteem than the recognition and appreciation of one's vernacular?" and concluded, on the basis of research, that " . . . in filling the esteem need, as well as in avoiding psychological confusion, the home-language of the child is a highly potent educational instrument."⁵³

In line with Sanchez's conclusion was Bumpass' acknowledgment of the effects of school policies which do not permit Spanish being spoken anywhere on school grounds. The policies are implemented, " . . . never realizing that by making (the Mexican-American) reject himself as an individual, we are damaging his 'self-identify,' which psychologically is essential to him for success in school or later life."⁵⁴

⁵²A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), cited by Sanchez, La Raza, p. 13.

⁵³Ibid.

⁵⁴U.S. Congress, Senate, Bilingual Education, Hearings, p. 61. A symposium, "Must the Mexican-American Child Adopt a Self-Concept That Fits the American School?" was reported by Miriam Kass as "Ethnic Identity Vital, Psychologists Claim," in The Houston Post, September 20, 1970, p. 2-B.

The psychological and historical perspectives notwithstanding, Sanchez observed that actual practice presents a discouraging picture. Of the 35,000 Spanish-speaking students in the secondary schools and of the 300,000 in elementary schools:

. . . For only a negligible few . . . is Spanish being used as an educational device; and, if they succeed (and many do not) in retaining and developing their home-language, it is not because the public schools have planned it so. What a waste of the assets of the vernacular in education.⁵⁵

Sanchez described the reality of the education system in the Southwest, basing his conclusions on his study of the education of Spanish-speaking people in the United States. Observations were made

. . . for more than forty years, and I have been highly critical of our schools' efforts for at least three-fourths of those years; still I was amazed at the persistence of the assertion that bilingualism is bad, that a foreign home-language is a handicap, that, somehow, children with Spanish as a mother tongue were doomed to failure--in fact, that they were ipso facto less than normally intelligent.

This sounds like an exaggeration, but these views can easily be documented . . .⁵⁶

Sanchez's major emphasis was on "factors other than professional consideration" which he believes "have determined what should be done in the education of

⁵⁵ Sanchez, "History, Culture, and Education," in La Raza, p. 13.

⁵⁶ Ibid., p. 15. Substantiating the views of Sanchez are the accounts given by Miriam Kass, Houston Post, and by Stuart Long, "Imperception of Educators Under-scored," Corpus Christi Caller, December 11, 1968, on the Hearings held by U.S. Commission on Civil Rights in San Antonio.

Spanish-speaking children."⁵⁷ He mentioned the problem of segregated schools and the faulty logic behind some of the current preschool crash programs. These programs are expected to provide a level of competency in the English language which in reality cannot be accomplished even in the two years that a child spends if he repeats the first grade.⁵⁸ Bumpass concluded that a program lasting only six to eight weeks " . . . can in no way bridge the linguistic gap . . . " nor prepare children for effective participation in schoolwork. In the teaching of foreign languages, " . . . few students can progress toward bilingualism in one year even on the college level."⁵⁹

The views presented by Sanchez and other educators concerned with the educational problems of Spanish-speaking children help formulate historical and psychological perspectives of the bilingual problem. Manuel, whose work with the Spanish-speaking children of the Southwest stems from an interest in individual differences and exceptional children, studied the problems of these children from the

⁵⁷Opposition to the views of Sanchez and Bumpass is described in "Spanish on the School Grounds," Human Relations Newsletter (Houston: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, February, 1969), p. 2. Controversies over the use of Spanish in the schools is depicted for the South Texas region by Letters from Our Readers, Corpus Christi Caller, December 2, 1968, December 5, 1968, and December 11, 1968, p. 2.

⁵⁸Ibid., pp. 16-17.

⁵⁹U.S. Congress, Senate, Bilingual Education Hearings, p. 60.

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viewpoints of parents, teachers, and the students themselves.⁶⁰

The parents' responses to Manuel's study revealed eagerness and concern over their children's receiving a good education and recognition of their responsibilities and limitations in financing this education. The teachers emphasized problems which, similar to the operative factors discussed by Black, included emotional difficulties and conflicts, attitudes, and abilities, home and community conditions, and the techniques of language teachers. Both parents and teachers " . . . saw language as a major problem of the Spanish-speaking group as a whole."⁶¹

The students presented clear, interesting statements of their problems, attitudes and feelings, and difficulties they had overcome. In summary, most of the students emphasized the language problem by pointing out such important factors in success as: (1) whether or not they knew English before starting school; (2) the relationships between their knowledge of English, their acceptance by other students, and their school progress; (3) the use of English both in and out of school; and (4) the encouragement of the teachers in learning English and their tolerance toward Spanish being spoken in school. Other

⁶⁰Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, pp. 73-109.

⁶¹Ibid., p. 81.

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problems indicated were those of finances and social pressures which they experienced. Some noted the tendency for classmates to drop out. Others indicated experiences with or fear of discrimination and feelings of inferiority.⁶²

The disadvantaged also have favorable characteristics which are related to their thinking and learning. These strengths, termed by Riessman as "overlooked positives," reflect a cognitive style which includes: cooperativeness and mutual aid that mark the extended family; the avoidance of the strain accompanying competitiveness and individualism; equalitarianism in informality and humor; the freedom from self-blame and parental overprotection; the children's enjoyment of each other's company and lessened sibling rivalry; the security found in the extended family and a traditional outlook; the enjoyment of music, games, sports, and cards; the ability to express anger; the freedom from being word-bound; an externally oriented rather than an introspective outlook; a spatial rather than a temporal perspective; an expressive orientation in contrast to an instrumental one; a content-centered rather than a form-centered mental style; a problem-centered rather than an abstract-centered

⁶²Ibid., pp. 73-109.

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approach; and finally, the use of physical and visual style in learning.⁶³

Other favorable characteristics have also been related to abilities for learning. Kemp reported studies which showed the disadvantaged to be: (1) creative, motivated and proficient in areas where their interests lie; (2) capable of working diligently and well on a specific task or assignment which has a purpose for them, such as a job or scholarship leading to a career; (3) capable of close and loyal personal relationships with both peers and adults; (4) retentive of repetitive events or experiences which are important to them; and (5) convinced of only that which they can see, feel, and prove. In summing the strengths of disadvantaged youth, "perhaps the greatest source of strength," states Kemp, "is the resourcefulness with which most of them cope with the difficult conditions of life."⁶⁴

Since the weaknesses apparently outweigh the favorable characteristics or strengths of disadvantaged youth, is the implication for education, then, one of hopelessness for alleviating their problems of educational achievement? It is not the purpose of this

⁶³Riessman, "The Overlooked Positives of Disadvantaged Groups," in Frost and Hawkes, Disadvantaged Child, p. 56.

⁶⁴U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Youth We Haven't Served, p. 5.

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this paper to discuss in detail the instructional approaches being used in the field of education to cope with the problems of disadvantaged youth. However, the accounts given by educators regarding the consequences of cultural deprivation on academic achievement are considered. In addition, the United States Government's recognition of the educational problems of the Spanish-speaking population and its efforts in promoting bilingual education are discussed.

In the absence of sufficient empirical evidence, investigators give different explanations in terms of theoretical formulations for low verbal performance and academic retardation. Theories on the effects of disadvantage in the early environment, for example, were given by Hunt, Deutsch, Bernstein, and Strodbeck. Deficiencies in language development were investigated by Bernstein and Deutsch, who both contended that "restricted language becomes an ever greater handicap as children advance in school."⁶⁵

⁶⁵ Passow, Disadvantaged, p. 171. The socio-psychological factors which affect the academic achievement of disadvantaged students are revealed by J. McVicker Hunt, "The Psychological Basis for Using Pre-School Enrichment as an Antidote for Cultural Deprivation," pp. 174-213; Martin Deutsch, "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," pp. 214-24; Basil Bernstein, "Social Structure, Language, and Learning," pp. 225-44; Fred L. Strodbeck, "The Hidden Curriculum of the Middle-Class Home," pp. 244-60.

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By drawing on research, Ausubel attempted to assess the consequences of cultural deprivation on cognitive and motivational development. He weighed the "critical periods" hypothesis, which concerns optimal periods of readiness for behavioral development and developmental retardation and the degree of permanent retardation when there is a deprivation of necessary stimulation during the critical period. He mentioned animal studies which led to the finding that " . . . children who fail to learn the age-appropriate skills at the appropriate times are forever handicapped in acquiring them later." Ausubel pointed out, however, the difficulty in extrapolating to human cognitive development and argued that the theory does not proclaim that a person cannot undergo intellectual development at other periods. He recognized " . . . the irreparable loss of precious years of opportunity when reasonably economical learning could have occurred if attempted, but did not," and the resulting learning deficit which hampers present and future intellectual development. Nevertheless, he concluded from the available research that environmentally induced retardation in verbal intelligence was not irreversible, even though the possibility of remediation lessens as children advance in age.⁶⁶

⁶⁶David P. Ausubel, "How Reversible are the Cognitive and Motivational Effects of Cultural Deprivation? Implications for Teaching the Culturally Deprived Child," in Disadvantaged, pp. 307-09.

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"The failure of our schools to educate Spanish-speaking students" as evidenced by high dropout rates, is recognized by the United States government, which is fortunately beginning to promote steps toward changing the situation. In 1967, the United States Congress conducted its first hearing regarding the problems of bilingual education. Bills are being proposed both in the House and the Senate to provide financial assistance in the development of elementary and secondary programs specially designed to meet the needs of bilingual students.⁶⁷

In summary, understanding the strengths and weaknesses of disadvantaged youth serves as a backdrop in understanding the causes and problems which affect their level of educational achievement. The characteristics, the operative factors, and the academic achievement all combine to shed insight into the level of educational aspiration, or lack of it, demonstrated by the disadvantaged.

Educational and Occupational Aspirations

The meaning of education and the level of educational aspiration for the disadvantaged may differ from those of middle-class people. The differences revolve

⁶⁷U.S. Congress, Senate, Bilingual Education, Hearings, pp. 1-2.

around the interest in knowledge for the sake of knowledge as such and the opportunity for self-development in terms of self-expression and actual growth.⁶⁸

The family's influence on the values of honor and politeness where the behavior of children is concerned did not sway Heller from focusing instead on the family's need to concentrate on "the development of mobility aspirations, which require a more direct orientation toward the goal of occupational success." By not receiving this kind of training, she believes, Mexican-American children begin to be directed toward: (1) an attitude of fatalism and resignation; (2) a lack of conception of how work and rational use of time need to be combined; (3) dependent behavior instead of self-reliance and autonomy in decision-making situations; and (4) little or no encouragement for valuing higher education or intellectual effort. Further, she indicates that:

The lack of parental encouragement to pursue a formal education, may also be directly tied to the parents' belief that higher education is useless for their children and would not result in achievement but rather lead to frustration and humiliation.

Heller does recognize a change taking place in that some parents are now encouraging their sons to continue their

⁶⁸Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child, pp. 12-13.

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schooling, "but such parents are still the exception among Mexican-Americans."⁶⁹

Riessman distinguishes between the interests of middle-class individuals and disadvantaged individuals by saying that the former view education "in terms of how useful and practical it can be" to them recognizing that a postal clerk's job and a policeman's job "require fairly detailed civil service examinations, and education is sorely needed to obtain these coveted positions." With regard to the disadvantaged, who are "much more oriented to the vocational, in contrast to the academic aspect of education," he elaborates:

What is possibly less well known is that education serves purposes other than job improvement. One respondent told us, 'I want education so that I can handle the red tape you run into all over nowadays. If you want to buy a TV on time, or get a driver's license, you've got to fill out papers and be able to read; the same thing for a lot of jobs, the unemployment check, getting an apartment in public housing, signing a lease.' In short, he wants education in order to deal with the bureaucracy which he feels surrounds him. Education is desired to enable him to cope better with the everyday problems of a complex society.⁷⁰

The occupational motivation of Mexican-American youth, according to Heller's extensive treatment, has not been a focus of concern for social scientists. Most writings are on low occupational goals and achievement.

⁶⁹Heller, Mexican-American Youth, pp. 34-41.

⁷⁰Riessman, The Culturally Deprived Child, pp. 12-13.

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She indicates the tendency to stereotype the image of the Mexican-American with lack of ambition and the image of the Mexican descendent with delinquency.⁷¹

Heller's study of Mexican-American youth in Los Angeles compared their occupational expectations with those of Anglo-American youth. She found that the expectations of Mexican-American youth exceeded the achievements of their fathers. Moreover, "Since education constitutes an important means of realizing occupational ambitions . . . , " Heller found that Mexican-American boys on the high school senior class level have expectations which exceed the educational level of their parents. She noted that the findings " . . . should not obscure the fact that the aspirational level of Mexican-American youths, even if high school seniors, . . . " is substantially below that of Anglo-American youths in general unless the class factor is controlled.⁷²

Mexican-Americans do not, however, differ from Anglo-Americans in the ambition to have a self-business type of occupation. Heller reported on the significance of this trend. First, she reported " . . . the assertions by sociologists that, with the growth of large-scale organization, small business ownership has lost some of its

⁷¹Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 80.

⁷²Ibid., pp. 81-82.

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meaning as a path of mobility." Secondly, she poses the question, "Can it be that as this 'much-cherished ideal' is losing ground among the young Anglo-Americans, especially of working class background, it is gaining ground among Mexican-American youth?" and possibly is a trend which provides an explanatory dimension between the two cultural groups. This pattern of third and fourth generation is also compared to the " . . . pattern similar to that displayed by some ethnic groups, such as the Jews, in the first generation."⁷³

"The intensity of the ambitions of these boys, especially in view of the stereotyped image of Mexican-Americans as a lackadaisical people with the "mañana" spirit was noted by Heller in pointing out the similarity in mobility goals and endorsement of other values in both cultural groups. This is, as previously mentioned, " . . . especially noteworthy in light of the nature of their home socialization which is largely devoid of these values. . . ." Deferred gratification, for example, was shown in the Los Angeles study, to be even more favored by Mexican-American youth than by Anglo peers, thus reversing the concept of the home environment's saturation

⁷³S. M. Lipset and R. Bendix, in Social Mobility in Industrial Society (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1962), cited by Heller, Mexican-American Youth, pp. 82-83.

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with a present-time orientation and, above all, the findings of Shannon and Krass.⁷⁴

The degree to which aspiration exceeds the aspirations of the majority is a major point also. Heller stated, on the basis of writings by Handlin, and Rosen:

Since recent immigrants generally . . . irrespective of country of origin, concentrate at the bottom of the socioeconomic ladder, they must at some point in their history exceed the aspirations of the majority population of the same class if they are to take the leap which would enable them to approximate, or to surpass, the class distribution of the majority population. If they simply advanced to the same degree as those of similar socioeconomic status in the majority group, the gap between their class distribution and that of the majority population would continue. And yet we know that some ethnic groups have outstripped the older generations of 'native' Americans in achieving economic, if not social, success.⁷⁵

If the aspirations of Mexican-American youth need to exceed those of the majority in order for them to " . . . take the leap . . . to approximate, to surpass . . . " the majority, is there any indication or available data that they are headed in this direction? According to Heller, the acceleration of the trend, which is manifested

⁷⁴The Economic Absorption and Cultural Integration of Immigrant Mexican American and Negro Workers, cited by Heller, Mexican-American Youth, pp. 83-85.

⁷⁵Oscar Handlin, "Historical Perspectives of the American Ethnic Group," in the Daedalus (Spring, 1961); Bernard C. Rosen, "Race, Ethnicity, and the Achievement Syndrome," American Sociological Review, XXII (February, 1959), cited by Heller, Mexican-American Youth, p. 85.

in mobility, aspirations, and values of Mexican-American youth.

. . . May depend in part on the diffusion of established information concerning the conditions conducive to stimulating the 'achievement syndrome' among Mexican-Americans. Unfortunately, such knowledge is very limited--in fact, no study has been specifically designed for this purpose. However, [the] Los Angeles data sought to discover the principal variables in Mexican-American ambition.⁷⁶

The findings of the Los Angeles study were as follows:

1. There is no significant difference in mobility goals and values along standard sociological variables.
2. The lack of differentiation among three variables (the parents' occupation, education, and country of birth) possibly reflects homogeneity of the Mexican-American population.
3. The most salient variable, or factor, associated with ambition is school integration. Aspiration to non-manual occupations is a significantly large ratio for boys in integrated schools rather than in non-integrated schools.⁷⁷

With respect to the influence of an integrated school on the aspiration for non-manual occupations, Heller noted:

. . . This may be quite an important finding in view of the fact that Mexican-Americans are at present employed predominantly in manual occupations. It suggests that whether or not Mexican-Americans will move toward the occupational distribution of the population at large will be partially determined by the continuation or the elimination of the school ghettos to which their children are presently confined. This finding also suggests that the quality of the school experience may be the decisive factor in stimulating ambition among Mexican-American youth.⁷⁸

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 86.

⁷⁷Ibid., pp. 86-87.

⁷⁸Ibid., p. 87.

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A study by Manuel which "throws additional light on the problems of Spanish-speaking students" focused on the vocational plans of both Spanish-speaking and English-speaking junior high and senior high school students. Replies to a questionnaire were received from 559 boys and 489 girls in grades 9 through 12, but there were major differences in enrollment for the English and Spanish-speaking students. Of a total of 559 boys, for example, only 122 were Spanish-speaking students. Of a total of 489 girls, only 127 were Spanish-speaking. The Spanish-speaking students going beyond the tenth grade totaled sixty.⁷⁹

Regarding the college plans of the students, Manuel pointed out that much less choice of college is indicated by the Spanish-speaking groups. A number of the students in Manuel's study wanted to go to college but were unable to do so because of the lack of finances. Other factors which were noted to affect the inability to go to college included the attitudes of the parents and the need for more information about schools, colleges, or jobs.⁸⁰

Analysis of the vocational plans of the students indicated that "As far as could be judged from the replies,

⁷⁹Manuel, Spanish-Speaking Children, p. 106.

⁸⁰Ibid., pp. 106-09.

the Spanish-speaking students were a much less confident group."⁸¹ In conclusion, Manuel indicated:

The feelings of both English-speaking and Spanish-speaking students regarding their future difficulties may be closer to reality than one would like to admit. Both economic level and school achievement vary over a wide range in both groups, but again the average finds the Spanish-speaking group at a disadvantage. In spite of the selection which has taken place through the dropping-out of less able students, the Spanish-speaking students in the senior high school (for which figures were available) made much lower average scores than did English-speaking students on tests of reading and mathematics.

The school, the home, and the community have a gigantic task to provide opportunities which will enable children to reach more nearly the capacities with which they are endowed.⁸²

The need for understanding disadvantaged youth through a cultural approach and through consideration of the causes and results of poor educational achievement has been shown by a number of investigators. Closely allied to level of education is the level of aspiration of disadvantaged youth. If the Spanish-speaking students' response that they would "rather get a job" is an indication of their vocational aspiration, how, then, can Vocational Education better equip these students for gainful entry into the world of work? It would seem that business teachers could assist on this. In providing vocational education, however, there appears to be a conflict as to whether it would be vocational, educational, or both.

⁸¹Ibid., pp. 107-08.

⁸²Ibid., p. 109.

Vocational Education

There has been serious conflict between the vocational educators and nonvocational educators as well as between vocational educators themselves concerning the emphasis which should be placed on either vocational or academic training. While it is not the purpose of this paper to trace the historical development of this conflicting emphasis, mention will be made of the misunderstanding of educators of the need for either vocational or academic education or both.

Riessman's distinction, between vocational and academic aspirations held by middle-class and disadvantaged youth may not be a clear distinction from a vocational educator's point of view. Is it not the purpose of education, including both academic and vocational education, to prepare an individual "to cope better with the everyday problems of a complex society?" If an individual, whether termed middle-class or disadvantaged, views education "in terms of how useful and practical it can be to him" is he not viewing it from a vocational as well as an academic point of view? It is essential to review the role of vocational education in the curriculum of the schools.

Barlow, in his treatment of the rationale for vocational education, noted evolving views on the people vocational education serves and its place in the high school:

It is logical to think that vocational education in its broadest sense pertains to all occupations and to all people, but (because of the influence of federal participation in vocational education) it is customary to think of this type of education in a more restricted sense. However, even with the elimination of education for those occupations which require a prolonged learning period (the professions, for example), the contemporary program of vocational education encompasses the vocational needs of 85 per cent of the persons who enter and work in the nation's labor force.⁸³

He also quotes Conant on the place of vocational education in school:

The controlling purpose of vocational education programs at the high school level is to develop skills for useful employment. These programs relate school-work to a specific occupational goal but involve more than training for specific job skills.

Vocational education is not offered in lieu of general academic education, but grows out of it, supplementing and enhancing it. Vocational education is an integral part of the total education program and requires aptitude that students at the lowest academic level do not have. Slow readers, for example, are not able to benefit from regular vocational programs.⁸⁴

The struggle with concepts of education regarding preference over the student and the central purpose of education has been experienced by every society. Barlow states:

Some societies pay more attention to one than the other; our society pays attention to both. Social gains are sought which provide benefits to the individual and to the group as a whole. Attention focused upon the student as the central concern of education does not neglect the total social environment and its needs.⁸⁵

⁸³Melvin L. Barlow, ed., "The Challenge to Vocational Education," Vocational Education, The Sixty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965), p. 5.

⁸⁴Ibid., p. 6.

⁸⁵Ibid., p. 9.

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Vocational education today is faced with challenges for change. One trend calls for the reappraisal of its concepts. Criticisms of vocational education programs are made by both nonvocational and vocational educators who, nevertheless, would likely concur with Passow's cited statement of the President's Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education that ". . . the worker of tomorrow will need a sound general education which will give him the knowledge, the skill and flexibility he needs to learn new techniques and adapt himself to new jobs."⁸⁶

In 1928, Lomax, a pioneer in the field of business education, stated:

So far as a philosophy of American secondary education is concerned, no outstanding educational leader appears to question that every American high school student should be educated to be occupationally efficient . . . ⁸⁷

If vocational and academic education are complementary and if "every American high school student should be educated to be occupationally efficient," can vocational education teachers share in this responsibility with disadvantaged youth? The vocational aspirations of a student will need careful guidance not so much in terms of his making a permanent vocational decision but in terms of his equipping

⁸⁶Passow, ed., "Education in Depressed Areas," Disadvantaged, p. 365.

⁸⁷Paul S. Lomax, Commercial Teaching Problems (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1928), p. 10.

himself with occupational information which will better prepare him to make decisions.

The primary role of the vocational education teacher is to recognize the need for both vocational and academic education in providing a well-rounded education for vocational education students. A concept which is not new to business teachers is the offering of guidance, for "occupational information and vocational guidance are very important for young people as they progress through school and make choices related to their vocations."⁸⁸ A business teacher may often be found to be very much involved in the vocational phase of guidance activities. This is true of business subjects because they represent the largest areas of terminal education at the secondary level. Furthermore, the business teacher is often asked to recommend students as prospective workers and to work with the community in various ways.

In performing guidance services, the business teacher is not assuming the responsibility of the entire guidance program. The cooperation of the entire personnel, under the direction of a trained counselor, is essential to an adequate program of guidance services. Nevertheless, a business teacher may use a variety of tools, or instructional techniques, to assist students in more

⁸⁸U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Report of the Panel, p. 202.

realistic vocational planning, either as a part of an organized program or as a separate service in the absence of such a program. A basic principle of the vocational guidance program is that the teacher does not decide what vocational choice the student should make. Instead, the teacher's responsibility lies in providing occupational information which the student may use in making his occupational choice.⁸⁹

The kind of occupational information a student needs will depend upon how far he has progressed in making a vocational choice. For example, if a student is just beginning to think about an occupation and if he still lacks one or more years before he finishes school, he needs to become familiar with the general characteristics and requirements of different occupations. On the other hand, if the student is on the point of wanting to work or of deciding on a vocation before he graduates, he needs specific information on occupations in which he is interested.

In order to familiarize students with occupations as a preliminary to their entering the world of work, the teacher should keep in mind the importance of the

⁸⁹Gertrude Forrester, "The Technique and Tools of Guidance," Guidance Problems and Procedures in Business Education (Somerville, N.J.: Somerset Press, 1954), p. 28.

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continuing educational role of vocational education. The Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education stated:

It is becoming increasingly clear that there is no real assurance now that mastery of an occupation, once achieved, will last any worker a lifetime. . . . Pre-employment training of youth must therefore provide a solid occupational foundation . . . continuing educational opportunities must be provided to cope with occupational change. Vocational educators must train more broadly for career patterns, for a lifelong sequence of employment opportunities.⁹⁰

Challenges for Change

It was previously stated that vocational education presently is faced with challenges for change and that one trend calls for the reappraisal of its concepts. In 1961, President John F. Kennedy, in his Message to Congress on American Education, requested that the acts in vocational education be reviewed and re-evaluated ". . . with a view toward their modernization" because of the technological changes occurring in all occupations.⁹¹ Accordingly, the Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education studied vocational programs and submitted their recommendations, some of which are pertinent to this study and will be discussed at this point.

The Panel "devoted considerable attention to vocational guidance and its relationship to the improvement

⁹⁰U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Report of the Panel, p. 16.

⁹¹Ibid., p. v.

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of vocational education" but found ". . . adequate evaluation of achievements and limitations . . . impossible."⁹² Nevertheless, some of the recommendations pointed to the need for guidance services which would: (1) start early and be continuously available; (2) be available to out-of-school youth; (3) be coordinated with community sources; (4) be provided in every school that maintains a program of vocational instruction; (5) include followup programs; and (6) have properly trained counselors who have current knowledge of job requirements and available opportunities. Recommendations to make counseling services more readily available and more effective included: (1) recognition that certain groups of students, such as potential dropouts, minority groups, and migrants, need special counseling services; and (2) maintenance of adequate counseling facilities and sufficient occupational information. Emphasis was placed on an adequate staff for providing occupational information and vocational guidance.⁹³

Students with special needs drew close attention by the Panel of Consultants. The Panel recognized the problem of disadvantaged youth who become the dropouts and the serious problems faced by the school and by the students themselves because of their apparent lack of

⁹²Ibid., p. 183.

⁹³Ibid., pp. 241-42.

interest and motivation. The following analysis was provided of these students:

Their interests and aptitudes may be different and more related to the motor skills and practical aspects of learning. It is probable that in this context many of them may be gifted or talented if this classification can be defined in psycho-motor learning. Usually the intelligence they display is non-verbal; their strength is not in the symbolic and abstract, although they seem to be able to sometimes master this deficiency through strong interest and motivation, occasional success and recognition, and realistic application. School, many of them conclude, is a waste of time.⁹⁴

The unemployment element, of course, did not escape the Panel's attention as a "serious element" in the "relationship to society and to the Nation's economy."⁹⁵ One important insight drawn was that "there is ample evidence that public vocational education can assist many young people and help alleviate the problems," but the Panel pointed out:

. . . Sadly lacking is evidence that national, State, and local concern and support are sufficiently aroused and forthcoming to make positive impact upon the problem.⁹⁶

In essence, disadvantaged youth "are not well served by high school vocational education programs."⁹⁷

⁹⁴Ibid., p. 126.

⁹⁵Ibid., p. 128.

⁹⁶Ibid., p. 131.

⁹⁷Ibid., p. 209. The needs of Mexican-Americans are not well met by vocational education programs, as indicated by Frank Angel, Program Content to Meet the Educational Needs of Mexican-Americans. Prepared for National Conference on Educational Opportunities for Mexican-Americans, Austin, Texas, April 25-26, 1968

What, if anything, can vocational education do for disadvantaged youth? The Panel recognized, of course, that vocational education cannot be viewed as a panacea for the complexity of the social problem. Nevertheless, the Panel in its attempt "to improve and redirect vocational education to better serve youth with special needs," summarized major needs. Some recommendations for curriculum improvement consisted of adding such features as: (1) new occupationally oriented programs of vocational education to provide training for existent employment; (2) cooperative, work-study programs; (3) individualized instruction; (4) appropriate vocational guidance; (5) specially trained teachers who understand the various needs of disadvantaged youth; and (6) experimental and pilot programs. Special attention also was called to the instructional materials which could be used in a program for youth with special needs, e.g., programmed learning materials. Accordingly, to prepare students for the world of work the teacher needs to provide learning activities and select appropriate instructional techniques to involve, use, and reinforce the learning activities.⁹⁸

(Las Cruces, N.M.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, New Mexico State University, 1968), p. 1.

⁹⁸Ibid., pp. 131-32, 229-30, 183. A similar summary on needing occupational training programs for Mexican-American students is shown by Angel, Program Content, p. 16.

[illegible]

Summary of Literature

This chapter is a summary of literature relevant to the purpose of this study. This preliminary investigation indicates the need for education to provide ways of accelerating the assimilation of Mexican-Americans into the educational and occupational mainstream of American life.

The need for educators to understand the cultural factors which come into force in the education of disadvantaged youth has been shown primarily on the basis of recognizing the special characteristics and problems of disadvantaged youth, with major emphasis on Mexican-American students who are bilinguals. Operative factors in the lives of disadvantaged youth coupled with the problem of bilingualism affect the educational achievement of Mexican-American students. The level of educational achievement reflects high drop-out, unemployment, and underemployment rates.

A teacher who attempts to gain an understanding of the characteristics, educational aspirations, self-image, and problems of educational achievement experienced by disadvantaged youth will find the use of a cultural approach essential. Despite the difficulty of determining what constitutes culture, it is significant to recognize that the culturally deprived do have a culture of their own, though this differs from the culture found in middle-class schools. This culture must be recognized and

respected if an understanding is to be gained of the behavior of the disadvantaged. The need for such understanding is based on the assumptions that each individual has certain abilities, interests, and other characteristics which, if recognized, can be turned into assets and make him a happier person and a more useful citizen. While the individual per se must be studied, there is need also for knowing the conditions and trends of the group.

The Spanish-speaking population is one of the least Americanized groups in this country. Their major problems of assimilation and acculturation call for historical, sociological, and psychological perspectives if the reasons for their lack of acculturation or unwillingness to acculturate are at least to be understood.

The educational system has served as a means of upward mobility, but it has not served as effectively for the Spanish-speaking population as it has for other ethnic groups. Consideration of bilingualism, based on historical research of vernacular languages in education, on the contribution of the Spanish language to the culture of the Southwest, and on psychological and sociological findings, direct attention to the need for schools to implement effective approaches for introducing English to Spanish-speaking students as a second language. The viewpoints are supported by parents, teachers, and students, who also place emphasis on language as a major problem of the Spanish-speaking population. The role of

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the United States Government in its recognition of the failure of schools to educate Spanish-speaking students is an unprecedented one. Steps now being taken to promote bilingual education may begin to alleviate the central problems in the educational achievement of Mexican-Americans.

Closely allied with the educational achievement and aspirations of Mexican-American youth is their occupational motivation, an area which has received little attention by social scientists. The aspirational level of Mexican-American youth exceeds the educational level of their parents, but unless the class factor is controlled, this level is substantially below that of Anglo-American youth. The degree to which aspirations exceed the aspirations of similar socio-economic status members of the majority group is significant if Mexican-American youth are to approximate, surpass, or exceed the attainments of the majority.

The occupational aspirations of a student will need careful guidance, particularly in terms of equipping him with occupational information which will better prepare him to make decisions. The college plans, for example, of Mexican-American students are influenced by such factors as limitations of income or self-confidence, but there is need for additional counseling with regard to information about schools, colleges, or jobs.

Most educators need to recognize the need for both vocational and academic education as essential to providing a well-rounded education for students. If it can be accepted that every high school student should be guided to become occupationally efficient, a business teacher can assist in this responsibility by providing occupational information for both guidance and pre-employment training purposes.

Business education is faced with the challenge of seeking ways to provide for the educational and occupational assimilation of Mexican-Americans. Implications can perhaps be derived from continued research efforts on the part of educators, inasmuch as data on the Spanish-speaking people is limited, and the coverage of the Mexican-American ethnic group has not been as extensive as that of other minority groups. There is an unquestionable need for research on the Spanish-speaking people. The Mexican-American student's level of aspiration, self-image, and perception of education, for example, are areas which warrant careful consideration. The teacher of Mexican-American students is faced not with a clear-cut strategy but with many challenges within an educational-occupational spectrum. The business teacher, or any teacher, has the opportunity and the responsibility to consider implications for needed research which may point to educational approaches that may be more successful than those currently in practice.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES FOR THE STUDY

Procedures of the study included first the selection of industries, geographic locations, firms, and employees in white-collar occupations within the located firms. A set of field and related instruments with which to collect the desired data was developed, and the data was then analyzed in relation to the objectives of the study.

Population and Sample

The population of the study was the white-collar employees, Mexican-American and non-Mexican-American, in certain industries selected by a judgment sampling of firms within these industries. Six distinct Texas metropolitan areas were selected for the sampling of firms. The major part of the study is based upon the perceptions of forty-five employees. Fifteen of them were in managerial positions relative to the other thirty, fifteen of whom were Mexican-Americans and fifteen of whom were non-Mexican-Americans. The finance industry was represented by six banking firms, retail trade by five department

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stores, and the transportation-communications industry by four utilities firms. Dallas, Houston, and Beaumont each furnished three firms, while Brownsville, Corpus Christi, and San Antonio provided two firms each. Every firm was represented by three employees, one from each of the previously-described categories.

A case study approach was determined to be the most appropriate for meeting the objectives of this project. If a large body of knowledge is available relative to the universe for a study, then sharply delineated hypotheses can be stated and tested with large samples and inferential statistics. Since little is known, however, about the white-collar Mexican-American employee, it was judged to be most appropriate at this point to interview so as to explore in depth the untapped dimensions of the problem. Opportunity for saturation of the investigator in the settings in which the workers were employed thus facilitated the development of insights into the interpretation of the findings of this study. While the conclusions of this study must, of course, be limited to those studied, the broader insights lend themselves to more rigorous testing in future experimental studies.

Several criteria were used in determining eligibility for inclusion of an industry in the study. The first and primary consideration was whether the industry employed Mexican-Americans; the second was whether they were employed in white collar positions in significant

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numbers. Out of the total Mexican-American component of the Texas labor force white-collar employment accounts for less than one-fourth as opposed to over half of the Anglo employment.¹ Therefore, Texas industries, as well as the firms within their spheres, had to be analyzed with reference to data indicating that they employed Mexican-Americans in white-collar positions.

The industry's size, along with its geographic diffusion factor, was a third important factor in selection. In order to obtain opinions regarding Mexican-American white-collar employees' language performance abilities which would be representative of people from relatively dense and relatively sparse Mexican-American population centers, the industry selected needed to contain firms in nearly all the major metropolitan areas of the state.

Selection of Industries

Retail trade, finance, and utilities were the three industries selected. Industry Codes, Standard

¹For data on the occupational levels of the two ethnic groups in Texas, see: Browning and McLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, Table 20, p. 44. Their table is calculated from various sources of the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports, Persons of Spanish Surname, Final Report PC(2)-1B, Table 6, pp. 38-49; and General Social and Economic Characteristics, Texas, 1960, Table 58; Census of Population: 1950, Persons of Spanish Surname, Table 6; and Characteristics of the Population, 1950, Vol. II, Part 43, Texas, Table 28a.

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Industrial Classifications (SIC) data from the 1963 Census of Business provided information regarding the size and projected growth patterns of these industries.² Other sources provided follow-up information on these industries relative to their labor forces and wage rates in different Texas counties.³ Moreover, a comparative analysis was made for the industry categories showing the employment figures for the Anglo and Spanish-speaking populations in Texas.⁴

Wholesale and Retail Trade Industry.--"Wholesale and Retail Trade" ranks as the nation's largest employment

²U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Business, 1963, Retail Trade, Summary Statistics, Part I, Vol. I (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966).

³Texas Employment Commission, A Report of Employment and Total Wages Paid by Employers Subject to the Texas Unemployment Compensation Act and by the Federal Government Under the Federal Unemployment Compensation Act (Austin: Texas Employment Commission, 1968), First Quarter, 1968, pp. 1-18 and Second Quarter, 1968, pp. 1-18; Texas Employment Commission, Manpower Trends: Beaumont-Port Arthur-Orange Area, Vol. XI, No. 12; Brownsville-Harlingen-San Benito Area, Vol. VII, No. 1; Corpus Christi Area, Vol. XXIV, No. 1; Dallas Area, Vol. XXIV, No. 1; Houston Area, Vol. XXIII, No. 8; and San Antonio Area, Vol. XXV, No. 1 (Austin: Texas Employment Commission, 1969), January, 1969, pp. 1-2.

⁴For data on the two ethnic groups and their percentage distribution in 14 industry categories, see: Browning and McLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, Table 22, p. 47. Their table is calculated from U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports, Persons of Spanish Surname, Final Report PC(2)-1B, Table 6, pp. 38-49; and General Social and

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category. In Texas it is also the largest, with no other industry employing a larger percentage of the Anglo component (22 per cent) or the Spanish-surname component (23 per cent) of the labor force. By its very nature the industry also qualified with its geographic diffusion factor since retail trade represents an essential business function for any metropolitan area.

The Government's Standard Industrial Classification system involves numerous sub-categories of industrial definitions within its main broad listings. Among the subsequent narrowings under "Wholesale and Retail Trade" is the category of "Department Stores." For purposes of this study, department stores in a chain system or large independently-owned types were selected to supply the firms within the larger industrial category. The same criteria of size, ethnic group employment practices, and geographic diffusion were used in choosing within the narrower sub-category of an industry's broad classification. Throughout this study, the "Retail Trade" grouping represents only department stores of the types defined above.

Utilities Industry.--The other two industries selected involved one different measure of determination from that of the significant employer of Mexican-Americans. By reputation and by governmental statistical evidence,

Economic Characteristics, Texas, 1960, Table 58 (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963).

neither the finance nor the utilities industries employed Mexican-Americans in very appreciable numbers. However, Mexican-Americans were in fact employed in both, and the recent trends seemed to indicate increasing attention to the deliberate hiring of this particular minority ethnic group in the state.⁵

"Utilities" is actually a sub-category within the rather widely grouped classification of "Transportation, Communication, Electric, Gas, and Sanitary Services." The grouping is based on putting together those industries commonly referred to in economics literature as "public utilities," which includes railroads, airlines, telephone, gas, light, and water companies. Each of these industries requires considerable numbers of workers in blue collar, service, and manual labor positions. Consequently, the 1960 business census data indicated that 6 per cent of the Spanish-surname component of the Texas labor force was employed in the large industrial category.⁶ However, on the basis of reports that gas, light, and water companies

⁵The trend was reported by various sources included in the list, "Personnel Interviewed," in Appendix A. Minimal employment of Mexican-Americans in both industries was indicated in an interview with Dr. M. B. Hernandez held at the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Austin, Texas, November 8, 1968. Further, minimal employment of minority groups in the utilities industry is disclosed in: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Employment Patterns in the Utilities Industry, 1966-1967, Research Report 1968-26 (Washington, D.C.: EEOC, June 1968), p. 2.

⁶Browning and McLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, p. 47.

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were increasing their hiring of Mexican-Americans for white-collar jobs, this industrial classification was chosen for the study. Like department stores, these basic consumer utilities are necessary to the functioning of a metropolitan area, and, although these industries are limited in number due to their regulated monopoly status, each city selected would provide a population of firms in the industry from which a sample firm could be selected.⁷

Finance Industry.--The industrial classification of "Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate" employed only 1.7 per cent of the 1960 Spanish-surname component of the Texas labor force. However, the banking industry subcategory of this larger grouping was reported to be increasing its employment of various minority ethnic groups in the state.⁸ Also, there was a certainty that each city selected would have a number of banks which could qualify for the study.

Selection of Locations.--Six cities were selected as the sites for sampling large-sized companies representative of white-collar employment in the three industries. A comparison of the characteristics of the Spanish-surname

⁷Initially the researcher sought to use telephone companies as potential firms for the study. However, universal unwillingness to participate in a study of this nature was encountered.

⁸"Personnel Interviewed," Appendix A.

population for different Texas metropolitan areas resulted in the selection of Beaumont, Brownsville, Corpus Christi, Dallas, Houston, and San Antonio.⁹ The percentage of total population which was Spanish-surname and census data regarding the chosen cities were the two major factors in determining the geographical distribution of the companies in the state. Additional factors were concerned with the relationship between the median income and other characteristics of the Spanish-speaking population. A pattern pointed out by Browning and McLemore, for example, shows an increase in educational level in areas of the state where there is less concentration of Mexican-Americans, i.e., North and East Texas.¹⁰

⁹For data on the characteristics of the Spanish-surname population applicable to nineteen metropolitan areas of Texas, see: Browning and McLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, Table A-2, pp. 81-83. Their table is calculated from data provided by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Census of Population: 1960, Subject Reports, Persons of Spanish Surname, Final Report PC(2)-1B, Tables 9, 10, 12, and 13; Census Tracts, 1960; Number of Inhabitants, Texas, 1960; and Census of Population: 1950, Persons of Spanish Surname, 1950.

¹⁰Browning and McLemore, Spanish-Surname Population, pp. 29-36. For additional treatment of lowest ratio and greatest educational status and change for the Mexican-American population, see: Richard A. Lamanna and Julian Samora, "Recent Trends in Educational Status of Mexican-Americans in Texas," Improving Educational Opportunities of the Mexican-American, Proceedings, 1967 Texas Conference for the Mexican-American (Austin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1967), pp. 20-41.

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An additional characteristic regarding the location of the selected cities is the feature of proximity to the Mexican border.¹¹ The cities, representing four regions in Texas,¹² were compared as follows:

South Texas.--The economic conditions in this region are significantly low within Texas and also relative to all five southwestern states. Two of the six cities involved in the study are located in South Texas.

Brownsville: Located in the Rio Grande Valley, often referred to as "the Valley," Brownsville represents one of the lowest educational and income levels. It has a high Mexican-American population (64 per cent), since it is located on the border. There is minimal industry, but commercial trade between Texas and Mexico is high.

Corpus Christi: In contrast to the Valley, the Corpus Christi area has a higher level of industry. Promotion of increased commercial trade between Texas and

¹¹"Border" refers to the Texas-Mexico border which extends from El Paso (West Texas) to Brownsville (South Texas) for an approximate distance of 900 miles. The use of different cities as a base on the Texas border results in a variance in the distance between a selected city and the border. Brownsville, located exactly on the border, serves as the base reference for the distance from the border.

¹²The geographical distribution of the six selected cities is shown in a map of Texas in Appendix A.

Mexico is underway. Located approximately 128 miles from the border on the Gulf coast, Corpus Christi is comparable to the Valley in its low educational and income levels and its high population of Mexican-Americans (38 per cent).

Central Texas.--The city chosen in this section of Texas was San Antonio. Characterized by industry and by high commercial trade between Texas and Mexico, San Antonio is known to employ Mexican-Americans in the fields of public administration and governmental work. Located approximately 290 miles from the border, the city has a high Mexican-American population (38 per cent). Its educational and median income levels are higher than those of the South Texas region.

East Texas.--Part of the region included in the study is commonly referred to as "Southeast" Texas. Southeast Texas, bordering on the Texas Gulf of Mexico and Louisiana, is a highly industrialized region and has a considerably smaller population of Mexican-Americans. It includes two of the selected cities:

Beaumont: The area has the lowest Spanish-speaking population (2.7 per cent), comparable in this study only to Dallas. In contrast, its population is characterized by its French heritage, whereby bilingualism is common in the combination of English

and French. The highest educational level¹³ and median income for Mexican-Americans in Texas is in the Beaumont area. Highly industrialized, the area is located between Houston and the Louisiana border and is approximately 430 miles from the Mexican border.

Houston: Of the three cities located farthest from the border, Houston has a higher Spanish-speaking population (6 per cent) than either Beaumont or Dallas. The Houston area, highly industrialized, ranks second to Beaumont-Port Arthur in educational level. It compares with Dallas in educational level and median income.

North Texas.--The city included from this region of Texas was Dallas. It is considered a financial metropolis in Texas, with heavy concentration in banking and insurance activity. Dallas is approximately 500 miles from the border, farther than any other city in this study. It is comparable to the other two cities located farthest from the border with its low Spanish-speaking population (3.4 per cent) and high educational and income levels.

¹³Reference to "highest educational level" for Mexican-Americans in Texas does not apply to college education. Beaumont-Port Arthur ranks third in its percentage of Mexican-Americans completing 1-4 years of college, while Amarillo ranks first, and Fort Worth ranks second.

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Selection of Firms

The six sample cities provided the basis for the geographical distribution of the companies. The final selection of a company, however, was based on its meeting certain criteria which were considered requisite to contacting a company and requesting its personnel to participate in the study. In line with the objectives of the study, it was essential that the companies consent to disclose whether or not their white-collar occupational levels included Mexican-Americans, to assess the language abilities of the employees in both ethnic groups, to indicate the importance of the language abilities for the satisfactory performance of employees in white-collar positions, and to permit their employees to participate in the study if they were selected. The procedures used in the final selection of the companies were principally based on the positive responses to a letter and questionnaire sent in an effort to solicit their willingness to participate in this project.

Selection of Employees

Employees were selected from the companies in the six cities. A total number of 45 participants were selected from 15 companies as shown in Table 1. Of the 45 white-collar employees, 30 represent the employees in the two ethnic groups and the remaining 15 represent management personnel who supervise the employees. The number of

TABLE 1.--Design Matrix.

Location	Number of Industries				Number of Employees
	Finance	Trade	Utilities	Firms	
<hr/>					
Away from Texas-Mexico Border					
Beaumont	2	1	. .	3	9
Dallas	1	1	1	3	9
Houston	1	1	1	3	9
Close to Texas-Mexico Border					
Brownsville	1	. .	1	2	6
Corpus Christi	1	1	. .	2	6
San Antonio	. .	1	1	2	6
Total	6	5	4	15	45

employees are unevenly distributed in some cities and as a consequence, in each industry. More participants reside in cities located in the upper regions of the state (27) compared to those who reside in the South Texas region. Also, by industry, a greater number are employed in banks (18) in comparison with those employed in department stores (15) and utilities companies (12).

Participants in this study were of three types: Mexican-Americans, their non-Mexican-American occupational peers, and the supervisors of both these groups. Mexican-American employees are referred to as the subjects. The non-Mexican-American occupational peers of the Mexican-Americans are referred to as coworkers. Both types of

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employees were selected according to their occupational levels and stages of employment, i.e., adjusted or promotable employees, within their companies. Every effort was made to locate subjects and coworkers with similar duties, responsibilities, and positions. The subjects were matched in terms of occupational levels and positions so that each subject-coworker pair is considered as a matched pair. The third type of participant was the person who held a supervisory position over each matched pair. This group is referred to in this study as management.

In summary, the Mexican-American employees are the subjects, the non-Mexican-American occupational peers are the coworkers, and the supervisors over the pairs are the managers or management. A subject and a coworker together from the same company, in the same geographic location, and the same industry are a matched pair.

Preliminary Instruments

The collection of data involved a series of steps. Personal interviews were conducted with various business and education sources in a preliminary field investigation. This information was then utilized in the design of the study. Instruments were developed for data collection, and a questionnaire was mailed to select the companies and participants. Personal interviews and the field instruments were used in the final field investigation to collect the data on the participants in the study.

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Personal Interviews

Personal interviews, a major source of data, were conducted in two developmental stages of the study. In the preliminary stage of the study, an itinerary was scheduled for personal interviews to be held in three cities in North, Central, and South Texas regions. The itinerary included travel by car, for an approximate distance of 400 miles, to Dallas, Austin, and Corpus Christi.

Initial interviews were conducted in three cities for the purpose of gaining insight on occupational and educational problems and on issues pertinent to the Spanish-speaking population in Texas. The interviews were scheduled by letters, phone calls, and visits and were, in many cases, based on referrals. Sources were continuously added as the interviewing progressed, for contact with these sources usually disclosed, among other things, the names of individuals and organizations concerned with problems of Mexican-Americans. An interview with a leading authority on the Spanish-speaking population, for example, resulted in a chain of interviews. The interview with the recommended source disclosed either another referral or, in many cases, resulted in an introduction and a scheduled interview with a subsequent source who in turn repeated the process. The referral pattern served as a method for determining additional persons to be interviewed during the preliminary field research.

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The interviews with the different educational and employment sources disclosed opinions on the types of problems observed for employees in either the Spanish-speaking or non-Spanish-speaking population as well as those held in common by both ethnic groups. A list of questions was compiled to elicit and categorize certain problems, comments, and suggestions. This interview-schedule provided guidelines for the development of instruments which were used to collect the data in the final field research.

Several instruments were developed subsequent to the personal interviews conducted in the preliminary stages of the study. These included: (1) a covering letter, (2) a questionnaire, and (3) a field instrument comprised of different sections for ultimate use in the field research conducted in a later stage of the study. The initial questionnaire and its accompanying cover letter were used before scheduling the final field research.

Letter of Request for Participation

A letter requesting the participation of the companies and their personnel and explaining the nature and objectives of the research transmitted a brief questionnaire wherein the companies consented to participate in the study.¹⁴ The questionnaire was sent to 165 companies in

¹⁴The questionnaire and transmittal letter are included in Appendix A.

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all the cities except Beaumont, where the participation of companies was requested and verified by means of phone calls or visits. The contact list for the companies in the six cities was compiled from various library sources such as directories for each city and directories pertinent to each industry.¹⁵ A total of 69 banks, 58 department stores, and 38 utilities companies were contacted by means of either the questionnaire or phone calls and visits for the purpose of securing companies whose personnel met the criteria set for their participation in the study.

Questionnaire for Screening Participants

A mailed questionnaire was used on the final field research for the purposes of selecting the companies and employees for the sample and scheduling personal interviews in order to collect data. The field research was then initiated in Beaumont. Thereafter, the itinerary included travel to Dallas, San Antonio, Corpus Christi, Brownsville,

¹⁵General and financial information on banks, department stores, and utilities companies and their personnel was obtained from: Poor's Register of Corporations, Directors and Executives (New York: Standard and Poor's Corporation, 1969); and Moody's Index of Corporations and Industries (New York: Moody's Investor Service, January-June, 1968). The state bank directories used were: Polks' Bank Directory, The Bankers Standard Guide to the Financial World (Nashville, Tenn.: R. L. Polk & Co., Publishers, March 1960); Polk's World Bank Directory (Detroit: R. L. Polk & Co., March 1969); and Texas Banking Red Books (Dallas: Bankers Digest, February, 1969). Addresses and phone numbers were also obtained from Southwestern Bell Telephone Directories for each city.

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and Houston. This travel schedule included distance of approximately 1,200 miles by car and a week's stay in each city.

A major activity throughout the scheduled travel was a followup on each mailed questionnaire to verify the participation of a company. Very few companies had returned the questionnaire at the outset of the travel schedule, so a followup phone call or visit was made shortly after arrival in a city. Companies indicating a willingness to participate, either by return letter or telephone confirmation, were visited for the purpose of scheduling a conference with a company executive. During the conferences, the executives and other management representatives were oriented on the nature and objectives of the study. Moreover, informal group conferences were held with the employer and, in some cases, with the employees as a method of screening and selecting the company personnel who could participate in the study.

Field Instruments

Once the selection of the companies and their employees became final, the objectives for the field research were changed from "screening" participants to collecting data on the participants. Two major methods were used with the selected participants in the collection of data. First, personal interviews were scheduled with the participants to gain insights on language abilities and

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other factors related to their work situation in white-collar occupations. Secondly, an interview schedule developed as a field instrument was used to collect data from each participant in the final field research.¹⁶

The field investigation focused on three categories of data. First and foremost, information was sought concerning perceptions of on-the-job language abilities of Mexican-American employees. Secondly, information was sought regarding how different types of employees viewed these language factors in relation to their importance for job placement, adjustment, and advancement. Thirdly, concomitant information on socio-economic and cultural background factors was sought relative to the employees participating in the project.

The first part of the field instrument, "Language Factors Rating Sheet," was related to the language factors and was completed by those who participated in the study. The same instrument, was used in conjunction with the personal interviews as the basis for completing "Language Factors Relative to Employment Phases." This instrument was used to indicate the importance with which these language factors were regarded by the participants for the different phases of employment. The third part, "Data on

¹⁶The field instruments, "Language Factors Rating Sheet" (Part 1), "Language Factors Relative to Employment Phases" (Part 2), and "Data on Employees" (Part 3) are included in Appendix B.

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Employees," was a questionnaire designed to obtain specific data on each employee. This instrument served as a format for personal interviews with each participating employee to obtain socio-economic, cultural, educational, and occupational data.

Language Factors Rating Sheet

The "Language Factors" section of the field instrument was a one-page rating form pertaining to ten factors of language. On the basis of the preliminary field work, these ten language factors were chosen to serve as indicators of an employee's perceived proficiencies with English as related to job performance. The ten factors covered the broadest ranges of communication abilities, including written and spoken communications as well as composition and fluency. Each of the ten factors was considered important for job performance although not all ten factors would be equally vital to different occupational settings.

The structure of the "Language Factors" instrument gave participants three basic choice sections for expressions of their opinions and judgments. Each person could score a "Yes," "No," or "Unknown" column relative to each factor. "No" and "Unknown" were singular choices. "Yes" was subdivided into four distinctions in order to obtain finer discriminations upon the significance of the opinions regarding the individual language factors. The

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response section of the "Language Factors Rating Sheet" is shown below:

Yes				No	Unknown
Almost Always	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely		

Participants were instructed to place an X under the proper response column for each language factor.

Each language factor was listed with a reference number, a caption head, and a positive statement which was used to orient the participant's thinking toward the response he would most nearly feel to be his exact opinion. These language factors and their corresponding response guide statements are as follows:

1. Grammatical Structure of Oral Communication--
Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his oral communications.
2. Appropriateness of Vocabulary--Employee utilizes a varied vocabulary which is well chosen and pertinent to his oral communication.

3. Accent--Employee speaks without a noticeable accent.
(There is no accent which "sounds different from English.")
4. Fluency in English--Employee gives evidence of being fluent in the use of his English.
5. Clear Conveyance of Instruction--Employee expresses himself well when giving instructions.
6. Clear Understanding of Instruction--Employee clearly understands instructions.
7. Spelling--Employee gives evidence of an ability to spell.
8. Reading--Employee demonstrates an ability to comprehend what he reads.
9. Grammatical Structure of Written Communications--
Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his written communications.
10. Composing a Letter/Report--Employee has an ability to compose a letter or report which is well organized and coherent.

The positive statements were used to clarify for the participants the precise meaning for each language factor selected for purposes of this study. Using the first language factor, "Grammatical Structure of Oral Communication," as an example, the participant was not left with this vague reference caption but was guided to make

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his response relative to the statement, "Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his oral communications." The participant then could reflect upon this possibility and determine whether, in his opinion, the employee under consideration used correct grammatical structure in his oral communications almost always, frequently, occasionally, rarely, or never. On the other hand, if the participant felt incapable of making a judgment regarding the correctness of the employee's grammatical structure in communications, his response would be in the "Unknown" column.

Language Factors and Employment Phases

In order to obtain the opinions of the participants in the study on the importance of these different language factors relative to employment and promotion, the Language Factors Rating Sheet was modified for use in conjunction with the personal interviews. As the second part of the field instrument, the modified version was called "Language Factors Relative to Employment Phases."

Procedures for this instrument involved having the interviewer ask each participant to indicate which of the ten language abilities he felt that a person should have in order to receive the best consideration to be employed initially for a particular job, i.e., the job which either was held by the subject or the coworker. Following the same procedure, the participant was next asked to indicate

the abilities a person should have in order for him to be more successful in adjusting to the particular job and in performing the duties of that job. Lastly, the interviewer went through the same procedure to find out which factors the participant felt a person should have in order to get the best consideration for advancement, e.g., pay raises or promotion to a higher level position. Checks were made according to the responses given in each case and were placed under columns captioned Placement, Adjustment, and Advancement which corresponded to each of the ten language factors. For purposes of this questionnaire the factors were expressed in a positive direction. Since the point of view of a well developed language proficiency was used, these factors were termed as abilities.

Data on Employees

The third part of the field instrument, that which was used for the principal portion of the personal interviews, was devised to obtain relevant data about each employee's background. The questionnaire, containing three main sections, obtained information relative to the individual's employment background, his socio-economic-cultural background, and his educational background. In interviews with the Mexican-American employees, every section included additional questions which would reveal in

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greater depth the particular language background and heritage of that participant.

At best, the whole "Language Factors" instrument could obtain only opinions, perceptions, and judgments. No tests were administered to check the validity of opinions. Fact and opinion may easily be diametrically opposed, but for purposes of this study, unsupported opinions in themselves were considered to be of prime value. Work with America's minority ethnic groups has demonstrated that self-image and the general social image of the person in another's eyes can and does influence the behavior, expectations, and achievements of the minority ethnic group member. Actually, it has been found that self-image and image in the eyes of others form significant influences in anyone's life regardless of his status in a pluralistic society. Therefore, information of the type obtained herein has its value in what it demonstrates about images as such, whether or not there would be corroborations for the opinions obtained.

Much literature now exists to support the contention that a person's success or failure depends not as much on how well he performs his work as on how well he is perceived as performing his work. Consequently, this kind of insight about Mexican-American employees was believed to be of paramount importance to this study. The acquisition of such insight guided these research efforts and the design of the field instruments.

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Case Studies

The primary results of the field investigation are recorded in the case study references given in Appendix C as Case Studies 1-15. Each table represents a classification and consolidation of the data gathered relative to the several aspects of the study for a given firm. This set of tables therefore formed the basis for analysis and interpretation of the findings.

For purposes of this project, a case study was defined to include one particular firm in a specific city with the opinions of three of its employees on the two separate aspects of the ten language factors and comparable background factors on the matched pair of employees. Case Studies 1-6 represent data obtained from employees of banks in Texas. Case Studies 7-11 contain data from employees in department stores within the state, and Case Studies 12-15 represent data from employees in utilities companies. The case studies could, of course, be regrouped several different ways in order to reclassify data for different analytical purposes. For instance, if data were needed to compare Beaumont employees with those in Dallas, Case Studies 1, 2, and 7 would be grouped in contrast to Case Studies 5, 9, and 13 (Dallas).

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Each case study presentation contains the tabulated and classified data concerning: (1) language performance ratings given on the ten language factors, (2) emphasis placed on each language factor relative to three different phases of employment, and (3) identification of personal background factors for the subject and coworkers described by the particular case. Each case study reflects opinions and perceptions given by nine separate rating devices plus identifying background characteristics which were selected from personal interview questionnaires pertaining to each person in the matched pair. No background data as such was collected for the management participants involved in the study.

Background notes were written at the bottom of each case study, with one column devoted to the subject and another to the coworker. These data provided a quick reference for the "matching" of the two employees in regard to such things as age, tenure, position, education, and sex. One side of the case study form shows the opinions collected on the language performance abilities of the subjects and coworkers. The other side shows the significance of a language factor for obtaining employment, adjusting to the job, and/or receiving promotion as perceived by the subject, coworker, and the manager.

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Language Performance Ratings

The data contained in the section of the case study entitled "Language Performance" reflects the ratings which were given to subjects and coworkers with regard to their abilities to perform in the ten language factors. Each participant completed two "Language Factors Rating Sheets," making a total of six rating sheets per case to be tabulated in the "Language Performance" part of the case study. Each subject rated himself and his coworker. Each coworker rated himself and the subject. The manager rated the subject and the coworker. All of the ratings which applied to the "Language Performance" part of each case study were separated into two main columns labeled "Subject" and "Coworker."

Employees' Ratings.--The "Subject" and "Coworker" columns were each sub-divided into four separate columns. Three of these indicate whose judgment is recorded relative to the performance of the particular language factor for each employee, and the fourth column indicates the total or the combined opinions for each factor. Sub-columns headed "S," "C," and "M" show the ratings given by subjects, the coworkers, and the managers respectively. Everything recorded under the main column labeled "Subject" shows the ratings which were given to the subject and everything recorded under the "Coworker" main column shows the ratings which were given to the coworker.

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Numerical Conversions.--On the rating sheets, the participants checked columns beside each language factor which indicated judgments about the employee's ability on the factor under consideration. In order to make comparisons between these ratings, numerical conversions were then made for the responses actually made by the participants. These weightings were made as shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.--Weightings Given to Verbal Responses for Language Performance Ratings.

Response Choices Checked by Participants (One Choice Checked per Language Factor)	Numerical Conversions for Tabulations in Case Study
Almost Always	4
Frequently	3
Occasionally	2
Rarely	1
No	0
Unknown	U*

*Removed from total language factors.

The numbers used in these ratings are relative rather than absolute and indicate degrees of performance of particular language factors in the opinions of the participants in the study. They represent the verbal opinions held regarding the employee's abilities with the language factors and are used only to facilitate tabulation and discussion. No control was used to weigh the opinions of

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the participants against results of more formal or standardized testing relative to the language factors under consideration.

Ratios.--In order to make comparisons of total language factors ratings, those factors about which the person's ability was not known, were eliminated. Ratios were then derived for the factors for which positive responses were given so that there was no penalty for a rating of "Unknown." Zero, however, was added to the total points to obtain a numerator for the fraction when the positive response indicated the individual did not ever perform the particular function properly, i.e., for the "no" response.

One of the language factors focused on accent, asking if the person spoke English without a foreign accent. This language factor applied only to the Mexican-Americans, who were presumed to be mostly Spanish-speaking, i.e., bilingual, before the field investigation began. Since the factor did not apply to the non-Mexican-American participants, there were nine, instead of ten, language factors applicable to their ratings. By use of the ratio device, adjusting both numerators and denominators, the ratings could be converted to numbers which could be compared for the employees.

The ratio consisted of the total points accumulated on the language factors receiving positive responses in

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relation to the number of factors marked, including those rated "No." In the instance of the Mexican-American participants, the language rating which indicated the highest regard for their language abilities would be 40:10, or 40/10, or 4.0. For the non-Mexican-American participants, the highest possible rating regarding their general abilities in the language factors would be 36:9, or 36/9, or 4.0. In this way the final, or total, ratings were comparable between the two groups, even though the number of language factors being rated was not the same. Moreover, if a participant were given evaluations in the "Almost Always" category for only six language factors and no ratings on the three or four remaining factors as a result of the rater not feeling qualified to evaluate them, the ratio on the accumulated 24 points would be 24:6, or 24/6, or 4.0. A final total rating of less than 4.0 would indicate that in at least one factor category the participant did not receive the "Almost Always" check for ability to perform that language function in the opinion of the rater.

Composite Ratings.--Subjects and coworkers each received three ratings. They rated themselves and each other, and the manager gave each of them a rating. The self-ratings were to reveal the participant's self-image of his performance of the language factors. Self-images could then be weighed against the opinions of the other people rating the participant to see if the opinions were

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relatively consistent. Because of the similarities in the job functions for the subjects and the coworkers, their ratings of each other were considered peer-images. These ratings were sometimes thought of as lateral ratings because of the workers being considered to be on the same plane. Since managers are placed above their employees in the line drawings on organizational charts, the manager ratings of the subjects and the coworkers were thought of either as vertical ratings or as manager ratings. A composite rating for the participant, then, consisted of adding his self-image to the peer image to the manager rating.

The composite, or overall, rating consisted of thirty possible checks for each subject and twenty-seven for each coworker. If the subject viewed his own ability in the "Almost Always" performance category for all the language factors and this opinion was shared by both the coworker and the manager, his total language performance rating ratio would thus be 120:30, or $120/30$, or 4.0. A coworker receiving self- and other-ratings in the same category would have a total language performance rating ratio of 108:27, or $108/27$ (with the accent factor eliminated and with a total of nine factors in each of the three ratings) and would still receive the comparable rating of 4.0.

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Percentages.--The numbers (conversions of verbal responses) and the ratios used in the case studies for the Language Performance section were further modified to the more readily understandable percentage system for use in the tables and graphs. Since a 100 per cent "Almost Always" rating or as any percentage less than the maximum possible could be easily interpreted, this approach allowed a more meaningful differential system to be employed in the comparison of the data.

By way of illustration, some results from Case Study 1 might be used. The total final rating for the subject in that case was 3.69, whereas the coworker's was 3.38. In this case the subject was considered by the overall rating to have a 0.31 points greater language performance ability on the 4-point scale for the total language factors than did the coworker in his performance of the total language factors. This might be interpreted that the subject was 0.31 points short of having received "Almost Always" ratings for every factor and that the coworker was 0.62 points away from having received all "Almost Always" ratings for every factor. In these last two instances, where the maximum points possible are 4.0, the differences are determined relative to the distance of the actual rating from the maximum. In the first instance, the lower rating was subtracted from the higher rating to obtain the difference.

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Changing the above numbers to percentages makes a comparison of the two ratings easier to see at a glance. The conversion to percentages could be done two different ways, both of which were used for different arrangements of the data. One way is to divide the total final rating by four, the total possible score. After multiplying the original decimal fraction answer by one hundred, this derived percentage indicated the deviation of the participant's rating from 100 per cent of "Almost Always" check marks. The second method, yielding the same answer and indicating the same thing, is figured from raw rather than derived scores. In this method, the number of marked factors is multiplied by four and the result is divided into the total points received. To make the final conversion to a percentage number, the decimal fraction is, of course, multiplied by one hundred.

Using the first method described above, the subject's score of 3.69 in Case Study 1 should be divided by 4.0 to give 0.92, or 92 per cent when multiplied by one hundred. Dividing the coworker's rating of 3.38 by 4.0 and multiplying the answer by one hundred gives the coworker 84.5 per cent of the maximum score of "Almost Always" checks for each factor rated.

Using the second method described above, the first step is to multiply the 26 factors given positive responses for the subject by four, giving an answer of 104. This number is then divided into the 96 total points received

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by the subject. Getting 96 out of a possible 104 points gives the subject 92 per cent of the maximum score obtainable by receiving "Almost Always" checks for every factor marked. The coworker received a total of 71 points out of a possible 84 since only 21 factors were given responses other than "Unknown." The coworker received a score of 84.5 per cent on all of the language factors marked by the three raters.

Conversion to percentage scores makes a comparison of the two ratings for each matched pair clearer and easier to interpret in terms of meaningful differences. The subject was only eight percentage points away from getting "Almost Always" marks for his performance of the various language factors, whereas the coworker in Case Study 1 was between fourteen and fifteen percentage points away from having received all "Almost Always" checks. The subject was thus rated about 7 per cent more capable in his performance of the language factors than was the coworker.

Ethnic Group Ratings.--Most of the data was not analyzed for individual persons or cases as in the foregoing illustrations. Subjects were treated as a total group, as were the coworkers. Self-images of all subjects were contrasted with the self-images of all coworkers. Lateral and vertical ratings were summarized for purposes of comparison. In these cases, larger numbers were involved for total points and total possible points, but

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the methods of derivation of the percentages were the same as for an individual case. Percentage differences are thus presented for comparison with each other.

Ultimately each language factor was analyzed relative to the different opinions held by each of the three raters about both subjects and coworkers. Using the percentage method, comparisons were made to show perceived relative strengths and weaknesses of the two ethnic groups in each of the ten language factors. Approximately one thousand individual ratings provided the basis for this analysis. Because of having two main groups (the subjects and the coworkers), each having four rating dimensions (three perceptions plus the total) and operating across ten language factors (nine in the case of coworkers) within three separate types of firms in six distinct locations, the variables and possible data rearrangements were of a very large magnitude. With very few exceptions, however, the results of the various analyses indicate but minor variances in almost every possible arrangement of the data.

Language Factors and Employment Phases

The classified and tabulated results from the "Language Factors Relative to Employment Phases" instrument used for part of the personal interviews are indicated on each case study. In these interviews, each language factor was named and discussed briefly in relation to the function of the factor as defined in this study. Then,

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going straight down the list of factors, the participant was asked to indicate whether or not he considered that language function important relative to obtaining a placement in a job such as his. Starting at the top of the list again, the procedure was repeated by asking about each factor in relation to making a satisfactory adjustment to the job situation. The procedure was then repeated relative to promotion.

The managers were also asked their opinions about the importance of the language factors in relation to placement, adjustment, and promotion for the job situations of the subject and coworker, not their own positions. The same phase by phase approach was used in the interviews with the managers as was used with the subjects and coworkers.

Tabulations.--The results of this part of the study are shown on the case studies under the major caption, "Employment Phases." Four main columns were devoted to the tabulations of opinions on the importance of each language factor for the three different phases of employment. The first column was devoted to the opinions of the subject, the second to the coworker's opinions, and the third to those of the manager. The fourth main column was used to *show* the total affirmative responses for each language *factor* under its proper phase emphasis.

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Each main column was sub-divided into separate columns for each phase of employment under investigation. Columns headed "A," "B," and "C" were used to refer to the Placement, Adjustment, and Promotion Phases respectively. The number "1" was chosen to indicate an affirmative response by the participant, and a blank for a negative response for that employment phase.

At the bottom of each sub-column, the number of language factors considered important to that phase of employment was entered over the total number of factors considered important for one or another employment phase by that participant. In Case Study 1, for example, the tabulations show that the subject considered all ten factors important for one or another phase of employment. Seven factors were considered important for initial placement, one for adjustment, and two for promotion. There was no one factor which was considered important for more than one employment phase. The coworker in this case study, on the other hand, considered three factors to be important for all three employment phases. Two other language factors, however, were not considered important for any employment phase. Out of the ten language factors, the coworker thought only eight were pertinent to different employment phases. Thus the factor numbers under the "Coworker" column sub-divisions are eights, with all eight showing up under placement importance, three of them under adjustment, and seven under promotion. The manager in the

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same case considered nine language factors important to any one phase, but he, like the subject, did not consider any one factor to be important to more than one employment phase.

The fourth column, headed "Total," summarizes the opinions in the whole case relative to each language factor for each employment phase. In the combined opinions of the three participants in Case Study 1, only four of the language factors were considered to have importance for job adjustment, with no two people in the case picking the same factors. The manager actually did not consider any of the factors to have importance for adjustment.

The classified and tabulated material in the "Employment Phases" part of the case studies furnished the data from which the results of this project were interpreted through rearrangement and manipulation of the data. A major portion of the analysis consisted of using a factor by factor approach and then separating the marks of emphasis according to the categories of participants. The responses to this part of the interview were considered to be dichotomous and unidimensional, since a language factor was rated as either important or unimportant for a particular employment phase. The analysis of the results was therefore based on a frequency count in order to highlight differences of opinion between subjects, coworkers, and managers. The second approach used with the data was to separate the employment phases in such a way as to

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determine in which phases of employment the individual language factors were considered to be the most crucial by the different participants.

Marking charts were set up for each employment phase. Tabulations were made of the number of participants in each category who considered each language factor important to that employment phase. These tabulations were further divided to indicate the type of firm in which the particular participant was employed. However, these results are not pursued, since no workable correlation was noted between firm classification and job classification. Since some of the people in the utilities firms had occupations similar to those in the finance industry and even in the department stores, no attempts were made later to analyze the results on the basis of the three separate industrial classifications. Instead, it was considered more appropriate to group the whole sample on its original basis of white-collar employment phases rather than to make contrasts between the opinions of those in different industrial settings.

Percentages.--In addition to numerical tabulations, percentages were figured for the various language factors with respect to each employment phase in order to get indications of the areas for which the participants perceived the possession of the language abilities to be most critical.

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For this procedure, 450 was used as the denominator and the number of actual marks given for a particular phase for the numerator to determine what percentage of total possible was given for the phase. The number 450 was used because under each employment phase, 450 affirmative responses could have been made. That is, 4 each of the 45 participants had agreed that each of the 10 language factors had been important to some particular employment phase, that phase would have received the 450 affirmative marks.

Further, in order to distinguish between the opinions of the three types of participants, percentages were calculated for each type on the basis of the total marks actually given for each employment phase. Using the Placement Phase as an example, over the entire fifteen cases certain language factors were given 254 marks for perceived importance for placement. Subjects gave 107 of these, coworkers gave 83, and managers gave the remaining 64. From these figures, percentages were figured to show the proportion of the total emphasis given by each type of participant. These calculations were made for each employment phase in order to find clues of value to business educators of future Mexican-American white-collar workers.

Each language factor was also examined for the percentage of potential emphasis which it received relative to each employment phase. If every participant considered one particular factor important for a particular employment

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phase, that language factor would have received 45 marks. This number was divided into the actual number of marks given to determine the amount of overall emphasis given the factor for that employment phase. Arrays were constructed to indicate the rank order of each language factor for the particular employment phase. Rank was determined on the basis of percentages of total possible marks given to each factor in each phase, beginning with the highest percentage. Through this device, the combined opinions of all the white-collar workers in the study could be seen in regard to the career phase for which they thought any particular language factor was the most vital.

The Flow Array of Language Factors.--Another array was developed which ranked the ten language factors from highest to lowest emphasis on the basis of their average scores. Since successful employment includes the three phases of placement, adjustment, and promotion, there is interest in each of the language factors as "flow" abilities as well as "static" abilities. For instance, although the greatest single score of total marks fell upon the language factor of understanding in relation to promotion, the highest average incidence of marks across all three employment phases occurred for reading. So in a flow conceptual framework, i.e., where ability in a language factor was thought to be necessary across all phases of a *white-collar* career, the emphasis given each language

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factor may vary from the emphasis given for each factor relative to a particular employment phase.

The "flow" array, ranking the ten language factors from highest to lowest incidence of affirmative responses, was derived by taking an average of the percentages each factor received for each of the three employment phases. The same results would occur by totaling the number of affirmative responses which were given to each factor for each phase and dividing by 135, the maximum affirmative responses possible. This method was used as a check against the first method and both sets of data are included for reference purposes.

Comparative Background Factors

Notes on the bottom of each case study indicate simplified references to the backgrounds of the subjects and coworkers. Full employment, socio-economic, and educational background data are presented in separate tables located in Chapter IV, Part A.

The background data were collected as the main part of the personal interviews and serve the principal purpose of furnishing profiles of the people who participated in the study. From the data, the average age of the subjects and coworkers could be determined, and its relationship to any other differences between the two ethnic groups represented in this study could be assessed. The data also yielded figures for the average number of

years of school attended by members of each of the two groups, their years of experience on the job held at the time of the study and on prior jobs, and to a limited extent some information regarding their salary positions.

The questionnaire also sought data about the parents of the two ethnic groups in order to get some suggestions as to the comparability of the environments of the subjects and coworkers. Place of birth and occupational and educational information were the principal data obtained about the parents for both groups. In order to look at mobility patterns, place of birth for the subjects and the coworkers and some indication of residence changes were also obtained.

Dual Language Background Factors.--The subjects gave additional in-depth information regarding language patterns among family members. The questions related to what language was mainly used with spouses, children, parents, grandparents, and siblings. Information was sought not only about the subject's use of Spanish and English but also about the use of the two languages by other family members.

Tabulations.--The background data were generally tabulated for each individual case. Efforts were made to keep case study references constant for cross and comparative reference purposes. The utilization of the data for this study primarily involved tabulations from the

field instrument to proper positions in table columns so that comparisons and other analyses could be made. Some estimates were made, particularly with respect to age range. For purposes of developing a better profile of the people in the study, midpoints were chosen from each range in order to arrive at approximate average ages for the two groups.

CHAPTER IV

THE FINDINGS, PART A: COMPARATIVE PROFILES OF THE EMPLOYEES

The results of this study are divided into three main sections. Part A provides a comparative profile of background socioeconomic, educational, and employment factors of the employees and a profile of the language background of the subjects.

Socioeconomic Backgrounds

Socioeconomic background is an important dimension for understanding the situation of an individual or group. Characteristics and factors applicable to the parents as well as to the employees themselves provide insight into the socioeconomic backgrounds of the workers in this study.

Parents' Backgrounds

Parents of both ethnic groups shared some factors in common with regard to their educational and occupational backgrounds. The factor of nativity or geographical origin, however, showed a distinct difference between the parents of the employees in the two groups.

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Nativity.--The parents of the workers in the two ethnic groups differed in terms of their geographical origins, as shown in Table 3. All of the coworkers' parents were natives of this country; approximately half of them were born in Texas and the remaining half were natives of other states. Approximately half of the subjects' parents, however, were born in Mexico.

Differences were noted with regard to the number of employees in each ethnic group whose parents were natives of Texas. In both ethnic groups, there were fewer employees whose parents were natives of Texas than there were employees whose parents were not natives of Texas. There was a difference between the two ethnic groups, however, with regard to only one or both parents having migrated to Texas. For the coworkers there were more cases where both parents migrated to Texas, and for the subjects there were more cases where only one parent was born in another country. Parents of all but five of the fifteen subjects were born in another country. However, it is interesting to note that one, a mother born in Arizona, was reared in Mexico. Regardless of whether this mother is considered a native of this country or a native of Mexico, though, it still may be seen that more mothers were natives of this country and that more fathers were natives of Mexico. A similar pattern (i.e., fewer mothers and more fathers migrated to Texas) can be noted for the coworkers'

TABLE 3.--Places of Birth of Workers and Their Parents.

Case Study	Subjects				Coworkers	
	Texas	Other State	Mexico	Other #	Texas	Other State
1	M*		F		P*	
2	P*					P*
3	P*				P*	
4	F*	M			*	P
5				P*		P*
6	F*		M		F*	M
7	M*		F		P*	
8	*		P		M*	M
9	M*		F		M*	M
10	P*				P*	
11			P*		*	P
12	M*		F			P*
13	F*		M		M*	F
14	*		P		P*	
15	P*				P*	
Totals						
Parents	15	1	12	2	16	14
Workers	13		1	1	12	3

* = Study Participants; M = Mother; F = Father;
P = Both Parents

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parents. The migration of this group, however, was from other states rather than another country.

Some differences can also be noted between the nativity of the parents in relation to the subjects' employment in an industry and proximity to the border. The number of parents born in another country was proportionately higher in the Retail Trade industry than in either Finance or Utilities. In contrast, more native-born parents were found in Finance than in the other two industries.

Within each industry, however, variances were noted between the nativity of the subjects' parents, particularly with regard to the factor of location. In Retail Trade, for example, having foreign-born parents characterized subjects living close to rather than away from the border. Living close to the border did not imply, however, a heavier concentration of foreign-born parents in all cases. In the case of Finance, for example, the larger number of native-born parents characterized subjects living close to rather than away from the border. Moreover, subjects employed in utilities companies away from the border also tended to come from homes wherein one or both parents migrated from Mexico.

Of the 14 parents who were born in a foreign country, twice as many (9) lived away from the border rather than close to the border (5), whereas 9 of the 16 who were native-born lived away from the border, with the

remaining 7 living close to the border. There was a tendency in the factor of location and proximity to the border, then, for the subjects' parents to immigrate to points farthest from the Mexican border.

Occupational Levels.--As shown in Table 4, the occupational levels in which the employees' fathers were employed reveal some differences between the two ethnic groups. All of the coworkers' fathers were located in middle occupational levels, while the subjects' fathers showed a wide range in their occupational levels. There was an equal number of fathers from each ethnic group in the craftsmen level, but, twice as many of the coworkers' parents were in the three levels at the middle of the occupational ladder (office and clerical, craftsmen, and operatives). The occupations of the subjects' fathers ranged from the top two levels (professional-technical and managers) to a middle level (craftsmen) and to a lower level (laborers). Most of the subjects' fathers were in the latter two levels.

There was a major difference between the male employees in the two ethnic groups for their fathers' occupations. Without exception, the male coworkers' fathers were in two mid-levels (craftsmen and office-clerical). All but one of the five male subjects, however, indicated that their fathers worked in a low occupational level (labor). Incidentally, all but one of these fathers

TABLE 4.--Occupational and Educational Backgrounds of Parents.

Background	Case Study																															
	Subjects' Parents															Coworkers' Parents																
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Tot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	Tot.
<u>Occupations</u>																																
Prof. & Tech.					F											1																0
Managers					M											2																0
Ofc. & Clerical																0																5
Craftsmen				F												5					P											5
Operatives						F										1																3
Laborers																5																0
Wife/Mother	F	F	M	M		M										14	M	M	M	M		M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	12
Other	M	M	F					F								2	F			F		F	F								5	
Total																30																30
<u>Years of Schooling</u>																																
Unknown																																
0-4	F					P										2	P			P	F	F										6
5-8	P	M	P	M				F								8																3
9-11							P	P	M	P						15				P	P	M	M									11
High School Dip.																1																3
College Degree																2	M															6
Sp. Training																2	F															1
																(1)																(2)

Note: F = Father; M = Mother; P = Both Parents.

were born in a foreign country. The only deviation within the Mexican-American ethnic group was by the fathers of the two youngest male subjects. Otherwise, the male subjects' fathers were in labor occupations and were born in Mexico.

In both ethnic groups, there was reticence in discussing parents' occupations. Both the subjects and the coworkers were observed to share feelings of sensitivity which, understandably, brought about a reluctance to provide details of the occupations of their parents, especially the father's line of work. Employees tended in some cases to classify their father's occupation as "Retired" and demonstrated no attempt to indicate the type of work they had performed prior to retirement. In three cases where the fathers' occupations were described as "Railroad," the employees appeared to prefer not to refer to the occupation as one of the labor level. Only one of the fifteen subjects unhesitatingly classified his father's position as "laborer." This subject, a departmental head in a utilities company in the Valley, added that his father was an "agricultural laborer."

The employees in both ethnic groups came from homes where mothers were not employed outside of their homes. Employment was noted for only five of the thirty mothers, and office and clerical levels apply only to coworkers' mothers. Two subjects' mothers were in service occupations at the time of this study which differed from the type of

work they did while the subjects were growing up. The mother of a subject from a Houston bank was a half-time practical nurse, but her occupation while the subject was growing up was that of housewife. The other subject's mother was working as a seamstress for Neiman Marcus in Dallas but was formerly a personnel manager in her native country of Cuba. Sewing is a characteristic skill of most Cuban women; and, although the mother was ". . . not one of the best seamstresses compared to most Cuban women," as humorously pointed out by the subject, "she worked as a seamstress for the primary purpose of having something to do." Also, the sewing job did not require much use of the English language.

Education.--Almost half of the sixty parents completed from five to eight years of school, although, as shown in Table 4, some differences existed between the parents of the two ethnic groups at four educational levels. An educational background of less than eight years, for example, was indicated for over half of the subjects' parents. More subjects' parents, especially the fathers, completed fewer years of school, sometimes having stopped their education at the fourth grade or elementary level. More subjects' parents than coworkers' parents had only a junior high school education, while the parents of the coworkers tended to go beyond this level and to enter and complete high school. For example, one-third

of the coworkers' parents (10 of 30) entered the ninth grade. In the case of the mothers, the difference became even greater, with only one subject's mother in contrast to six coworkers' mothers going beyond the ninth grade. Yet, regardless of ethnic group, most parents who entered high school succeeded in receiving their high school diplomas. High dropout rates around the fourth or seventh grade levels was a characteristic of the subjects' parents, but there was a holding power for parents who entered high school, regardless of ethnic group.

Most of the parents with high school diplomas continued their training on a post-high school level. Special training was largely comprised of adult classes and technical programs. Three parents of employees in banks located away from the border (Dallas and Beaumont) were college graduates.

The years of school completed by the parents is significant in relation to their nativity. All but four of the fourteen subjects' parents who were born in a foreign country completed school at various levels below the eighth grade. For example, parents born in Mexico constitute half of the parents whose education terminated at the fourth grade level. Most of the remaining parents terminated their schooling between five and eight years, but it is interesting to note that four of the five subjects' parents who entered high school were born in a

foreign country. One of three born in Mexico, the father of a subject in a department store in San Antonio was reared and graduated from high school in this country. The only other high school graduate who is a native of this country is the father of a secretary with a utility company in Dallas.

Employees' Backgrounds

As shown in Table 3, the nativity of the employees indicates more similarities than major differences between the groups. The same is true for residence and age, as shown in Table 5.

Nativity.--Of the thirty employees, twenty-five were born in Texas, three coworkers were born in other states, and two subjects were born in foreign countries (Cuba and Mexico). The coworkers in the study represented a second generation of native-born Americans. The subjects in the study represented a generation which, unlike that of their parents, was the first native-born generation of Mexican-Americans.

Residence.--As shown in Table 5, residence for most employees in both ethnic groups ranged from a period of over ten years to a lifetime in the cities in which they lived at the time of this study. A difference between the ethnic groups, however, was that more subjects than coworkers resided in the same place all their lives.

TABLE 5.--Comparative Background Factors.

Case Study	City	Type of Firma	Occupational Type ^b	Subjects		Coworkers		Education ^c (Number of Years)		Experienced (Number of Years)			
				Sex	Age	Sex	Age	Subjects	Coworkers	Current Position	Prior	Total	Current Position
1	Beaumont	B	C	F	45	F	35	12x	14	16.0	5.5	21.5	1.5
2	Beaumont	B	T	M	23	M	35	12x	17x	0.3	3.5	3.8x	1.0
3	Brownsville	B	C	F	35	F	28	13x	12x	13.0	4.0	17.0	3.5
4	Corpus Christi	B	C	F	35	F	45	14x	12x	2.5	11.0	13.5	14.0
5	Dallas	B	C	F	35	F	45	*17x	12x	5.0	2.0	7.0	9.0
6	Houston	B	C	F	28	F	28	13x	14+	1.0	6.0	7.0	3.0
7	Beaumont	DS	S	F	35	F	35	#8	#9	0.5	8.0	8.5	6.0
8	Corpus Christi	DS	S	M	55	F	55	13+	14x	36.0	0	36.0	3.5
9	Dallas	DS	C	F	35	F	55	#12x	12x	14.0	0	14.0	35.0
10	Houston	DS	C	F	22	F	22	#11	12	3.0	0.5	3.5	1.5
11	San Antonio	DS	M	F	24	M	55	12x	14x	7.0	0.0	7.0	14.0
12	Brownsville	U	M	M	35	M	45	12x	14x	11.0	0.0	11.0x	3.5
13	Dallas	U	C	F	25	F	25	13x	12	3.0	2.5	5.5	3.0
14	Houston	U	P	M	45	M	42	*16	*16	21.0	0	21.0x	5.0
15	San Antonio	U	C	M	28	M	36	12x	12	3.0	4.0	7.0	17.0
Average					34		39	13	13	9		12	8
												16	

^aB = Bank; DS = Department Store; U = Utilities.^bC = Clerical; M = Managerial; P = Professional; S = Sales; T = Technical.^cx = Special Training; # = No High School Diploma; + = College Work; * = College Degree; ** = Two College Degrees.^dx = Additional Experience in Military Service.

Most coworkers had lived in the same place for over ten years.

Age.--The subjects were a relatively younger group than their coworkers, as shown in Table 5. The average age of the subjects was 34, as compared to 39 for the coworkers. No subject or coworker was younger than 22 years of age. Only one industry, Retail Trade, had employees as old as 50 years of age.

Educational Backgrounds

The years of school completed, occupational training, and influences on choice of work were characteristics in the educational backgrounds of the employees which provided important insights. These factors are shown in Table 5.

Years of School Completed

The educational backgrounds of the employees in both groups indicated that they had completed an average of thirteen years of school as shown in Table 5. The majority of the employees in both ethnic groups were high school graduates. In several respects, however, their educational backgrounds revealed some small differences. For example, there were slightly fewer subjects than there were coworkers who were high school graduates; and there were slightly fewer coworkers than subjects who were dropouts. The four school dropouts were in department stores which

were located in the cities away from the border. Two subjects (employees in retail trade in Dallas and Houston) dropped out of high school in the eleventh or twelfth grade. The others, a subject and a coworker (employees in retail trade in Beaumont) dropped out by the eighth and ninth grades respectively. Unlike what might be expected, then, the few dropouts in the study were lifelong residents of areas wherein the average number of years completed by the subjects were high.

Training beyond high school was principally done on a special training program level, i.e., business or technical school rather than the college level. If consideration is given to the number of employees who took special courses, the subjects had more special training than did the coworkers. For example, 11 subjects reported 16 instances where they took courses in different types of training programs, whereas 8 coworkers reported 9 instances of having taken special courses. Multiple courses were sometimes taken, as in the case of one female subject in a Corpus Christi bank who completed four types of training programs.

The type of training program offered by a business school appears to be the favorite type for purposes of specialized training. Business schools were attended by eight employees, six of whom were subjects and two of whom were coworkers. The subjects also participated in more adult evening classes than did their coworkers.

Other characteristics are descriptive of the special training for both ethnic groups. First, the subjects and the coworkers with special training were all high school graduates. In one case, however, the subject had been a dropout and had received special training in a company-sponsored training program. A second characteristic is that residence was not a relevant factor in the special training of the subjects as it was for coworkers living close to the border. Finally, Retail Trade had the smallest number of subjects with special training, while the number of coworkers with special training was comparable for each of the three industries.

The majority of both the subjects and the coworkers were, at the time of this study, in the type of work for which they were trained. There were, however, a few exceptions for both ethnic groups within each industry. For example, in a Dallas bank, one female subject who earned a masters degree in a professional area of teaching was unable to teach because of certification requirements in this country; consequently, she attended business school where she received special training which enabled her to do bilingual secretarial work. Similarly, one female worker whose interest was in professional training in education was employed in an office position with a Corpus Christi banking firm.

Occupational Training

The relationship between training and the positions held indicates that most of the employees may not have been well served by high schools, thereby depicting a pattern which is often discussed in the literature. For example, only two employees (one from each ethnic group) were trained for office work on the high school level and were utilizing this training in their positions with a Beaumont bank and a Dallas utility company. Also, most employees in Retail Trade entered positions without training in distributive or office education on the high school level. Only two indicated having received previous training in salesmanship, but most who were in sales or office work had received on-the-job training in their department stores. Those with business school training utilized their training in positions on the managerial level of department stores.

Technical training, on the other hand, was utilized by employees in two industries, Finance and Utilities. Systems programmers, for example, utilized training received in data processing programs offered either in an evening school or in the armed services. Employees who were managerial representatives in utilities companies utilized their college or technical school training in hydrochemistry and in engineering (electrical, natural gas, and corrosive). Many positions, e.g., engineering, require college training, of course, but the

majority of the positions in this study could have utilized and benefited from the instruction provided by office and distributive education programs on the high school level. While most of the employees were provided with the type of training needed for their white-collar positions on the post high school level, very few of them were provided with this type of training on the high school level.

Influences on Choice of Work

More responses were provided by subjects than by the coworkers concerning the major influences in their choice of work. "Interest in work" and "training and education" were basic influences for both ethnic groups and comprised the majority of their responses. Influences classified as "other" indicated varying degrees of emphasis on the part of individual employees. One subject in a Houston utility company, for example, placed heavy emphasis on intrinsic desire and "drive," as he described it. One coworker described the influence of "exchanging with others"; he attributed his choice of work to the assistance given him by people who were experienced in his field of engineering. In both ethnic groups, multiple responses were provided by more female employees than by male employees.

Socioeconomic Influences.--A major difference between the two ethnic groups was revealed by their emphasis on certain socioeconomic factors. For example, when the factors of "financial aspects" and "security and stability" were taken into consideration, it was found that more subjects placed emphasis on these two factors than did the coworkers. The tendency for the Mexican-Americans in this study to indicate concern over the economic security offered by their positions depicts a characteristic of the Spanish-speaking population indicated in the literature on disadvantaged youth.

Parental Influences.--The role of parents and their influence on the employees' choices of work revealed a marked difference in the emphasis given by the two ethnic groups. More subjects (9) than coworkers (1) attributed their choice of work to their parents. Parental influence received more emphasis by the subjects residing away from the border than by those residing close to the border. In only one case was parental influence described relative to the socioeconomic status of the parents. In this case, a female subject in a Corpus Christi bank indicated that her major reasons for needing to work and for being concerned about a job with financial security were due to her responsibility for her parents. This particular case illustrates the tradition-bound responsibility experienced by members in Mexican-American homes which is described

in the literature on the Spanish-speaking population. At the same time, it points out the departure from the tradition of this responsibility for contributing to the financial support of parents by most of the Mexican-Americans in this sample.

Employment Backgrounds

The employment backgrounds of the employees are comprised of factors depicting job functions, employment experience, salary, job tenure, and advancement and promotion. The characteristics of the subjects in this study relative to these factors are shown in Table 5.

Job Functions

The employees performed office and clerical functions which, in some cases, showed an overlap in occupational levels. The types of functions performed by an employee on a managerial level, for instance, overlapped with those performed on professional and technical levels. Four employees¹ were either department store managers or heads of departments, positions which required technical

¹In the initial stages of the study, five employees were selected to represent a managerial level. However, in one case the coworkers were reluctant to participate in an ethnic group study unless management pressured them to do so. One employee declined with the statement, "only if you (management) force me to." The data derived from interviews which had been held with the fifth managerial representative and other company personnel in this particular area were removed from the study.

knowledge. The professional level also encompassed managerial functions for two college graduates who were heads of their engineering departments. Another college graduate, one of three in the study, was in an "office" level which was representative of her position as bilingual secretary.²

The combination of office and clerical levels was represented in each industry. Office and clerical positions were found primarily in banks and represented the only level for the six employees in one city, Dallas. Included in the office and clerical levels were secretaries and stenographers (4), accounting clerks (4), and secretarial-bookkeeping clerks (10). Most of the employees in this study were in office and clerical levels, with functions of a clerical-bookkeeping nature rather than of a secretarial level.

Employment Experience

As shown in Table 5, the coworkers had a few more years of employment experience than did the subjects. There was an aspect of longevity in the employment of both ethnic groups. Employment averages indicated that the subjects

²Four bilingual secretaries were initially selected, but only two were kept in the study. One of the bilingual secretaries, as a result of a serious illness, was unable to return to work after the interviewing had been completed with the other company personnel. Therefore, the data derived from interviewing the third bilingual secretary and several executives in the company were removed from the study.

had been with their companies approximately one year longer than the coworkers. Nevertheless, the employees in this study represented a sample of white-collar positions which had occupational stability as a major characteristic regardless of ethnic identity.

Salary

Salary ranges were comparable for all the sampled white-collar employees, with approximately half of the employees indicating salary ranges of over \$5,000. The coworkers, as an older and more experienced group, received an annual average differential of \$650 more than did the subjects; on a monthly basis, the coworkers averaged about \$55 more than did the subjects. The highest salaries were earned by two subjects and three coworkers whose technical or professional positions with banks and utility companies required post-high school training on either technical or college levels. The highest salaries were over \$10,000 and were earned by two of the three college graduates in the study. The third college graduate, a bilingual secretary, received one of the highest salaries paid a female employee. Her type of position was the only one in the study which compensated for her bilingualism as a requirement for the job.

Studies indicate that the Spanish-speaking abilities of Mexican-Americans are utilized without any monetary compensation for their bilingualism. Also, studies

indicate that many Mexican-American students, unable to go to college, graduate from high school with plans for direct entry into the job market. The bilingual secretary's position has not been adequately promoted as a means of incentive for students to develop a dual language characteristic under the auspices of a high school program and to utilize their bilingualism in an occupation which would compensate their language abilities. One of the bilingual secretaries included in the study, for example, described her apprehension over meeting a high, competitive market for bilingual secretarial positions in Texas, a state which she knew had a high Spanish-speaking population. Having been a bilingual secretary in New York, she relocated in Dallas where she found, to her amazement, that there was little competition from Mexican-Americans in this job market.

The two ethnic groups were comparable regarding the number of persons supported by their salaries. The majority of the employees had less than four dependents. No dependents were listed by 40 per cent of the employees, all of whom were females. No female employee had more than two dependents, and only one, a subject in a bank close to the border, was a major contributor to her parents' income. Only one employee indicated a large family; this one was comprised of eight children, or a total of nine dependents.

Job Tenure, Advancement,
and Promotion

Analysis of job tenure and years spent in the occupational position held at the time of the study indicated a factor of mobility in the occupational positions of eleven of the thirty employees. The mobility factor applied to most employees in Utilities and to one-third of the employees, all females, in Finance.

All subjects, but only two coworkers, showed changes in their occupational positions with utility companies. One coworker's initial position was that of meter reader for a period of fifteen years. His advancement to an office-clerical level had been comparatively recent. Another advancement from a field crew job was noted for a subject who was on a managerial level as head of a department.

The only females in Utilities indicated having had opportunities for additional promotions which they had been reluctant to accept. Advancement from the positions they were holding would have resulted in transfers to other departments, whereas when their preferences were to continue working for the same administrators.

No mobility or change in occupational positions was indicated for the majority of employees in Retail Trade. Only one female subject residing close to the border indicated mobility from an initial position of sales clerk to a managerial level position. She was one of the two

subjects in the study whose occupational mobility applied to both position and level. Yet, she was the employee whose language rating by the coworker was lowest. This suggests that a background of Spanish, perceived by the subject to be her strongest ability, was an asset in promotional mobility. In this particular case, the employee compensated for her weak English background with a strong Spanish background, which in a neighborhood store evidently took precedence over English.

All employees were considered promotable from their present "adjustment" phase of employment, and most regarded their chances for advancement as "good" or "very good." Two major factors which influenced views on advancement were salary increments and the company's organizational structure. In most cases, favorable views on advancement were based on salary increments rather than upward mobility from the position held at that time. The company's organizational structure was a major factor given by those who viewed advancement possibilities as "poor" or "not very good."

Upward mobility was, of course, contingent upon the opportunities afforded by the company and the individual employee's interest as well as his age. Some companies offered limited opportunities in their organizational structure unless the employee had an interest or an incentive to move up the occupational ladder into an entirely different line of work. Some employees declared

a strong interest in advancement relative to both salary and organizational structure and clarified their opportunities for advancement with such statements as "Not at present, but eventually," or described a position as a ". . . stepping stone to supervisory position."

A negro female coworker who had undergone a recent change in positions differed from her colleagues when she described her views on the advancement opportunities offered by her banking firm in Houston. She affirmed promotion possibilities for the bank's employees and placed emphasis on individual initiative and determination by stating, "If you work, if you work."

On the other hand, some workers disclosed strong reactions to a promotion that would move them into a different line of work. Upward mobility in a bank, for example, would mean a secretarial position for a bookkeeping clerk who clearly indicated that "secretarial work (was) not of interest. . . ." In other cases, a promotion would have meant moving into an administrative position which the employee either regarded as a remote possibility or which he viewed with disinterest. The remoteness of an administrative position usually resulted from the employee's feeling of inadequacy or the recognition that his qualifications or age were deterring factors.

Language Backgrounds

Language Readiness

The language of the subjects and their parents before entering school was predominately one, as shown in Tables 6 and 7; they all spoke Spanish. The few subjects who could read Spanish prior to starting school came from homes where one or both parents were born in a foreign country. The ability of these subjects to read Spanish was a result of their having been "taught it by Mother," as a subject in a Dallas department store indicated, or as a result of having been "tutored by a relative who was a teacher," as explained by a subject in a department store in San Antonio. In another case, the subject clarified that his reading ability consisted of "simple words like casa."

Language abilities in English, on the other hand, showed a marked contrast for most of the subjects and their parents. As shown in Tables 6 and 7, very few of the fifteen subjects and their thirty parents had English skills before entering school. It was a rare case for a parent from a generation older than the subjects in this study to have a speaking ability in English prior to entering school.³ There was one such case in the study

³In one case excluded from the study, the mother of a subject in a Beaumont utility company had only an English-speaking ability with no language ability in Spanish as a result of having been reared in Louisiana.

TABLE 6.--Language Patterns of Parents of Employees.

Case Study	Study of Language	Language Usage History									
		Pre-School				Adult				Family Language Usage	
		English		Spanish		English		Spanish		Mother With	Father With
		Rd.	Sp.	Rd.	Sp.	Rd.	Sp.	Rd.	Sp.		
1	M					P	P	P	P	B	S
2	M					P	P	P	P	B	B
3	P					P	P	P	P	S	S
4	F			M		P	P	P	P	S	S
5	P					P	M	P	P	S	S
6	P					P	P	P	P	S	S
7	P					P	P	P	P	B	B
8	P					P	P	P	P	S	S
9	M					P	P	P	P	S	S
10	P			P		P	P	P	P	B	B
11	F					P	P	P	P	S	S
12	F		F			F	F	F	F	S	S
13	P					P	P	P	P	B	B
14	P					P	P	P	P	S	S
15	P					P	P	P	P	B	B

Note: M = Mother; F = Father; P = Both Parents; S = Spanish; B = Both English and Spanish; E = English.

TABLE 7.--Subjects' Language Patterns.

	Pre-School Language Usage						Adult Usage		Language Usage With				
	English Usage		Spanish Usage		Spanish Usage		Spouse	Children	Siblings	Mother	Father		
	Read	Speak	Read	Speak	Read	Speak							
1				x			E	-	E	E	E		
2				x	x	x	B	B	B	B	B		
3				x	x	x	E	B	B	B	S		
4				x	x	x	-	-	S	S	S		
5			x	x	x	x	-	B	S	S	S		
6				x	x	x	E	B	B	S	S		
7	x	x		x			E	E	-	E	E		
8				x	x	x	B	E	-	S	S		
9		x	x	x	x	x	E	E	-	B	B		
10	x	x		x		x	B	B	B	B	B		
11			x	x	x	x	-	-	S	S	S		
12			x	x	x	x	B	B	S	S	S		
13	x	x		x		x	-	-	B	B	B		
14			x	x	x	x	B	B	B	S	S		
15	x	x		x	x	x	B	E	B	S	S		

Note: B = English and Spanish; S = Spanish;
E = English; - = Not Applicable.

where the father spoke English prior to starting school. This English-speaking ability had been the result of his having been reared by a German-speaking family in San Antonio. Accordingly, the father acquired a speaking ability in German instead of Spanish before he entered school.

One generation later, as shown in Table 7, a gain in English-speaking abilities was revealed by five subjects who entered school with some ability to speak the English language. All but one of the five subjects resided in cities away from the border. It is also interesting to note that three of these subjects, employed in Beaumont, Dallas, and Houston department stores, were the three subjects who dropped out of school. Two of them lacked a year or a semester for completing high school, and the other left school in the eighth grade. The other two subjects who entered school with an English-speaking ability were employed in utility companies in Dallas and San Antonio.

Some of these subjects clarified their description of English-reading abilities at the time of school entry. Two of them explained that they either had learned "simple words taught by Mother" (subject in a Houston department store) or "probably had a reading ability" (subject in a Dallas utility company). Only one of the five subjects

with English-speaking abilities indicated that she definitely could not read English (subject in a Dallas department store).⁴

It may warrant re-emphasis, nevertheless, that one-third of the subjects in this study had varying English-speaking abilities before entering school and thereby differed from their parents in the acquisition of this ability. These preschool abilities may suggest influences on their current language performance. With regard to the factor of location, most of these subjects were reared in cities where the Spanish-speaking population was relatively smaller, so their residence may have been a factor influencing their language readiness. Yet, unlike what might be expected, their language readiness may not have influenced their staying in school, for there was a tendency, at least for the subjects in this study, to drop out of school despite language abilities. Analysis with respect to the parents' nativity showed that three of these subjects came from homes where the fathers were natives of Mexico. Lastly, it was found that the majority of the subjects with an English ability prior to entering school were in retail trade or utilities industries.

⁴She was the only one whose third language ability differed from the other four subjects who, prior to entering school, had three of four abilities in the two languages.

Parents' Language Training
and Usage

As shown in Table 6, there is a striking comparison between the number of parents who, upon entering school, had training in one language but not in the other. The subjects' parents with Spanish training (9) were fewer in number than those with English training (21). The amount of training in either English or Spanish, or in both languages, did not indicate major differences for the parents relative to the nativity. For example, of the twenty-one subjects' parents who had English training, eleven were born in this country and five were born in Mexico. The remaining five received formal training in both languages. Very few of the subjects' parents had training in Spanish only (4), or no training in either language (5).

Influence of Language Training.--Formal training in English neither promotes an ability to speak and read it nor, for that matter, does it promote the usage of that language. This was true, at least, in the case of the subjects' parents. The relationship between their training and their abilities revealed that the proportionately few parents without formal training in English still had an ability to read or speak it, and the greater number of parents without Spanish training nevertheless could read it.

The greatest difference was shown by the relationship between training in and usage of a language. In the case of the subjects' parents, their usage of Spanish was in no way influenced by their lack of training in the language. Most of the subjects' parents (21) had not had formal training in Spanish, yet 20 could read it and only 10 remained illiterate in this language. All, of course, spoke Spanish. If the abilities to communicate and to use a language are not influenced by language training, one might ask what additional factors have an influential role.

Influence of Other Factors.--Residence and occupational roles, rather than language training alone, may exert an influence on abilities to use a language. The factor of residence showed differences, first, in the language training and, secondly, in the language abilities of the subjects' parents. Of the very few parents with formal training in Spanish, for example, most resided in cities close to the border. In contrast, a major characteristic of the parents farthest from the border was that they had more training in the English language. In cities away from the border, more mothers than fathers had English training. The reverse was true in cities close to the border, where mothers were not only the majority (4 of 6) of those without any English training but also those who could neither read nor write English.

Other parents without formal training in English nevertheless could speak and read the language, particularly those residing away from the border. A subject in a Beaumont bank, for example, indicated that her father had an ability to read and speak English without having completed any formal education and without having had any training in English. In one case close to the border, a father could read and speak English ". . . a little," although his schooling took place in Mexico (subject in a Brownsville utility company).

These fathers, both of whom were born in Mexico, exemplified the necessity of knowing the English language in order to function in their work, regardless of their lack of training, nativity, or residence. One of the factors, residence, would indicate a much greater degree of English usage for the first than for the second father. The Beaumont father spoke and used English primarily with his family. Spanish was primarily used by the Brownsville father in similar circumstances.

The fathers needed English mostly in their occupational roles, but the mother's role as a housewife did not discount the need to learn and attempt to use the language. In a Corpus Christi bank, for example, a subject described her mother's abilities with the English language as consisting of a reading ability resulting from self-teaching, since the mother was reared in Mexico and had no

English training. Her speaking ability was described as being able to ". . . deal with a person."

A point of reemphasis is that lack of training in English did not necessarily mean that the parent could not read or speak English. Nor, for that matter, did formal training in English ensure that the person could read or speak English. Of the fathers with English training, for example, some had "no" or "some" reading ability or "some" speaking ability (subjects in Brownsville and Dallas banks). The language abilities of the parents served as reminders that their ability to speak or read a language could result from incidental learning or from the necessity to use a language rather than through formal training.

Subjects' Language Training and Usage

The language training of the subjects differed from that of their parents in that they had more English training. In addition, the subjects had more training in Spanish than that indicated for the parents, with over half of the subjects having had some formal training in Spanish. Five of these nine subjects had one to two years, the least amount of training in Spanish indicated for the group. Subjects with as much as four to ten years of Spanish training were found in each industry regardless of location.

The subjects showing the most training in Spanish had certain characteristics in common. Two female subjects with training of ten and six years were employed in a Dallas bank and a San Antonio department store, respectively. Both were born in another country and were recipients of Spanish training as well as bilingual instruction. The subject in the Dallas bank indicated that "English was required for years" in her native country of Cuba. Equipped with a background in English, this subject graduated from a prep school in this country and then remained to work as a bilingual secretary for several years, her position at the time of the study. The other subject was born in Mexico and attended her first three years of school there. She was instructed in English the next four years in Texas schools and then, upon her graduation, she returned to Mexico to attend a business school which offered bilingual instruction.

An additional common bond between these employees was that they were both in occupational levels wherein Spanish was essential to their performance on the job. Interestingly, they both emphasized the importance of accenting a Spanish word properly for accurate translation.

The other two subjects who had the most training in Spanish were both natives of this country, and both had their Spanish training on a high school level. The Spanish language training of the female subject in a Corpus Christi bank, however, resulted from a program offered by

a parochial elementary school where she received three of her five years of Spanish instruction. The male subject in a Houston utilities company received two of his four years of Spanish training on the college level. Other characteristics in common were that both were lifetime residents in their respective areas of Corpus Christi and Houston and that their parents were either born in or spent early childhood years in Mexico (only one of the four parents was born and reared in this country).

Influence of Language Training.--The relationship between the training received and the abilities to read and speak Spanish showed a variance for the subjects in six cases and a similarity to the results noted for the parents. Like their parents, most of the subjects without formal training in Spanish were not limited in their abilities to read and speak Spanish. Of six subjects without formal training in Spanish, only two could not read or speak the language. Their only ability prior to entering school was Spanish, which one described as being able to ". . . pick words only . . . (and to) understand but . . . not carry a conversation." During the interview, she pointed out the need to "use it only with Father," since English was used most often in her family. In this particular case, any communication involving her father resulted in the usage of both languages or English only--but not Spanish only. Another subject (from a Houston

department store) with neither formal instruction nor an ability to read Spanish except on the basis that she could "make out words" strongly pointed out that she spoke "good Spanish." The use of Spanish with her parents was not exclusive of English. According to the subject, "Both English and Spanish are used . . . but mainly English. Everybody in the family speaks English . . . we 'mix it up.'" On the other hand, a subject with formal training who nevertheless was limited and had to "work hard" in her reading ability could speak Spanish and used it with her family.

Exclusive Use of a Language.--The extent to which one language was used exclusively depended largely upon the family member with whom the subject was communicating. As shown in Table 7, Spanish was used almost 100 per cent of the time by the subjects as a form of communication with their parents and grandparents. Exclusive use of Spanish was the practice of half of the subjects and their parents when they communicated with each other and of all of the subjects when they communicated with grandparents, as shown in Table 6. In eight cases, Spanish was used exclusively in deference to one or both parents not speaking English. This practice suggested conformity to tradition for, as succinctly described by one subject, to do otherwise would have been a case of falta de respeto (disrespect). A marked departure from the language

pattern followed by the parents became apparent, however, in that none of the subjects used only Spanish as the language of communication with spouse and children.

Use of Dual Language.--The subjects, with more language training than their parents but with abilities in Spanish somewhat similar to those of their parents, always used English communicating with their spouses and children. It is important to note, however, that the exclusive use of English was rare when their parents were involved and, for that matter, even when only the spouse and children were involved. English was used in all cases with spouses and children, but, when used, it tended to be combined with Spanish. Two families in Beaumont, however, deviated from this pattern. In one case, the subject's mother used only English with her children, and this subject was the only one of the fifteen cases who used only English with her siblings. In the other case, English was also used with the grandparents, who lived in Dallas.

The use of English to the exclusion of Spanish in at least three cases could be attributed to the fact that the female subjects were married to non-Spanish-surnamed husbands, none of whom spoke Spanish. On the other hand, the use of English to the exclusion of Spanish by husbands who were Mexican-Americans was rarer and was perhaps attributable to the factor of residence, as in the two Beaumont cases.

It is significant to note that English, when used, was frequently combined with Spanish in at least half of the cases. Use of both languages was on a "mixed-up" basis. When the languages were combined, there was a tendency for the subjects to use "mainly English" in their communications with members of their family, e.g., parents, siblings, spouse, and children. The precedence of English over Spanish was more characteristic of cities away from the border, particularly the Beaumont-Houston area.

Coworkers' Language Training and Usage

Few coworkers had formal training in Spanish, and, if they did, it consisted of one year at the most. Use of the Spanish language, of course, was more frequent for those coworkers living close to rather than away from the border. Yet, all but one of the six coworkers who had Spanish training lived away from the border. The one exception was employed in a utility company in San Antonio.

With the exception of a female subject in the international department of a Dallas bank who indicated that she was "taking a course in conversational Spanish," most indicated that they could not communicate in Spanish. The only two coworkers in the study who indicated that they could communicate in Spanish had no training. Both, by means of incidental learning, used Spanish since they

lived close to the border. One was a manager in a San Antonio department store and used Spanish in his job; the other was employed in a Brownsville bank.

The language ability of the coworker managing the department store in San Antonio had been influenced in several important ways. First, his ability with the Spanish language consisted of being able to communicate and deal directly with customers. Secondly, his own residency in the Valley and Mexico City, as well as his son's residence and business in Mexico City, had provided him with the contact and opportunity to use Spanish. Moreover, this coworker elaborated very impressively on his comparisons of various languages. His analytical approach in attempting to view languages with historical perspective perhaps stemmed from such factors as training in high school Latin, experience in using Spanish in different regions, awareness of cultural influences (e.g., history of Mexico), and wife's language background. He indicated with pride that his wife, whose father was a tool and diemaker and worked with oil companies abroad, spoke five languages: English, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and German.

During the course of the interview, the coworker spoke a few words in Spanish which, although not distinctly pronounced, were understandable. Unfortunately, there was not much exchange in Spanish, but the subject in this

particular case verified the coworker's ability to converse in Spanish. This department store manager was the only coworker in the study who was non-Spanish-surnamed, yet bilingual.

Summary of Chapter Findings

Parents of both ethnic groups shared some factors in common with respect to educational and occupational backgrounds. Generational gaps resulted between the parents and employees in both ethnic groups when the latter surpassed the educational and occupational status of their parents. A distinct difference between the parents of the two ethnic groups was the factor of nativity. Half of the subjects' parents were born in a foreign country, whereas all of the coworkers' parents were natives of this country. Certain background factors with respect to age, occupational experience, and especially educational background were also common to the two ethnic groups.

The most distinct difference between the two ethnic groups was evident in the analysis of their language backgrounds and language usage. The language used by the subjects with their family members, particularly with their parents, whose language usage was confined to Spanish, revealed a distinct difference between the home environments of the two ethnic groups.

The language training, abilities, and usage patterns help provide additional perspective on certain socioeconomic, educational, and occupational factors in the backgrounds of the employees in both ethnic groups. With these perspectives in mind, the employees' English language performance is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

THE FINDINGS, PART B: PERCEIVED ENGLISH LANGUAGE PERFORMANCE ABILITIES OF EMPLOYEES

This research focused on Mexican-Americans who had the dual language characteristic of varying proficiencies in the English and the Spanish languages. The primary purpose was to determine differences between the English language abilities of these Mexican-Americans and of their non-Mexican-American occupational peers whose only basic language was English. The findings on the English language performance of the employees as determined by self-, peer-, and management-ratings and the differences between the perceived language abilities of the two ethnic groups relative to the factor of their residence are reported. The differences for the performance of each ethnic group on each language factor are also presented.

Comparative Language Ratings

The English language abilities of the two ethnic groups are comparable, as determined by a comparative

analysis of self-, peer-, and management-ratings for all cases. Table 8 shows that the images held of the English language abilities of the subjects ranged from 86.47 to 90.57, compared with a range from 90.35 to 93.64 for the coworkers.

TABLE 8.--Comparative Ratings of Perceived English Language Proficiency.

Type of Rating	Persons Rated		Difference*
	Subjects	Coworkers	
Self-perceptions	89.61	90.35	-0.74
Peer-perceptions	86.47	92.00	-5.53
Management-perceptions	90.57	93.64	-3.07
Outer-perceptions#	88.52	92.82	-4.30
All perceptions	88.90	91.98	-3.08

*Rating for subjects minus rating for coworkers.

#Outer-perceptions = Peer-perceptions + Manager-perceptions.

The English language abilities of the subjects are ranked highest by management and lowest by peers, with self-ratings falling between the two. The highest-ranking images held of the coworkers' English language abilities were those of management, followed by peer- and self-ratings in that order. Hence, the English language abilities of both ethnic groups were highest as perceived

by management, although the images held by management showed small differences in favor of the coworkers.

Differences are small between the two ethnic groups in the percentage of time that they "almost always" perform certain language factors. These differences between the language performance of the two groups are shown in Table 8 and in Figure 1. The comparative analysis of each type of rating for the two ethnic groups resulted in the largest differential (5.53) for peer-ratings, based as ratings of 86.47 for subjects and 92.00 for coworkers. The second largest differential (3.07) was for ratings by management (subjects, 90.57; coworkers, 93.64).

Contrary to expectations, the self-images of each ethnic group were comparable, as shown in Table 8. A differential of 0.74 between the self-perceptions represents the smallest difference. Hence, when each type of rating was compared against the same type of rating (i.e., peer-versus peer-ratings, self- versus self-ratings, and management- versus management-ratings), the language abilities of the two ethnic groups were comparable with only very small differences in favor of the coworkers.

Self-Images Versus Other-Images

Some of the differences between the English language performance of the two ethnic groups became particularly apparent when their self-images were compared against other perceptions, as shown in Table 9.

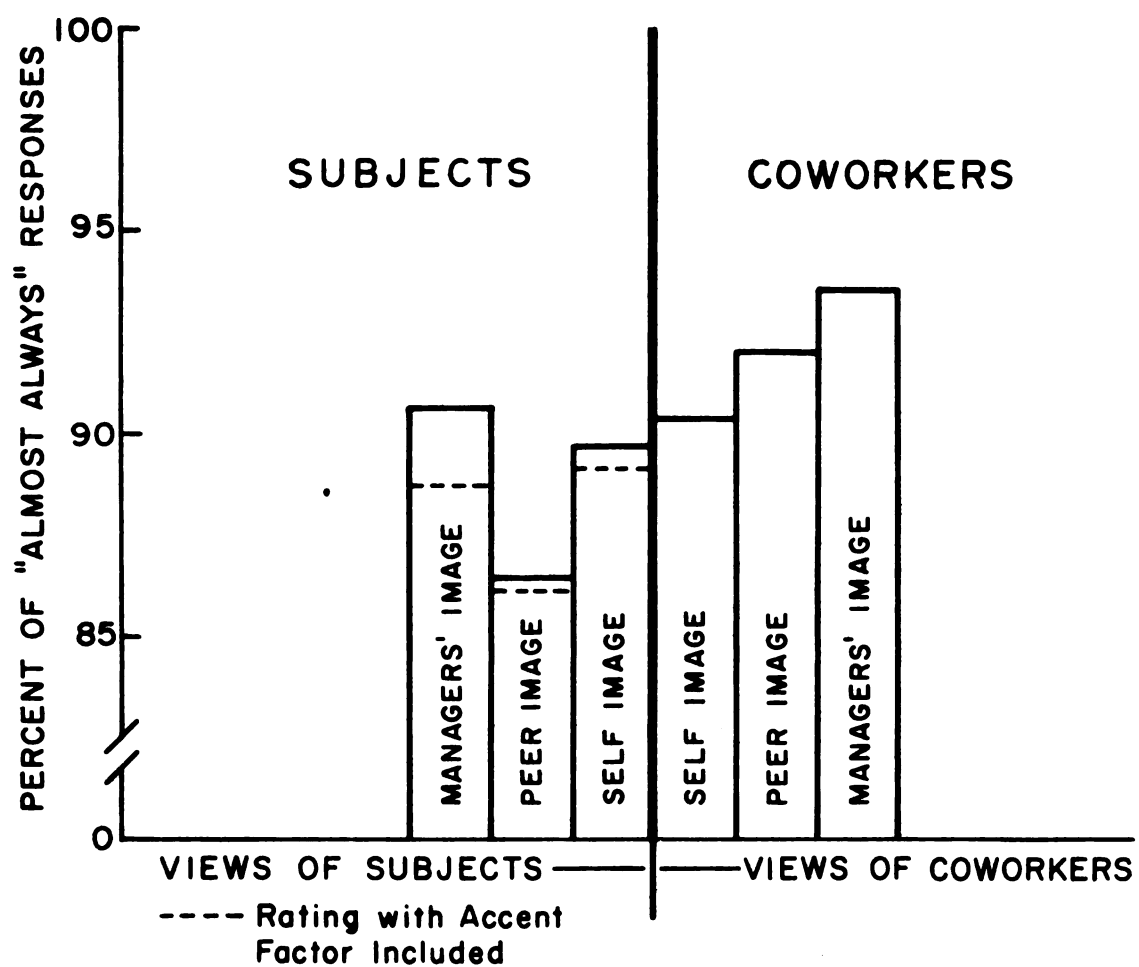


Figure 1. Language performance ratings (all cases and all ratings)

TABLE 9.--Self-Perceptions of English Language Proficiency
Contrasted with Perceptions of Others.

Differences Between* And	Subjects' Self-Perceptions (89.61)	Coworkers' Self-Perceptions (90.35)
Coworkers' perceptions of subjects (86.47)	+3.14	+3.88
Subjects' perceptions of coworkers (92.00)	-2.39	-1.65
Managers' perceptions of subjects (90.57)	-0.96	-0.22
Managers' perceptions of coworkers (93.64)	-4.03	-3.29
Outer-perceptions of subjects (88.52)	+1.09	+1.83
Outer-perceptions of coworkers (92.82)	-3.21	-2.47

*Based on self-perceptions.

Self-images, first compared with each other, were comparable for each ethnic group, as shown in Table 8.

Nevertheless, these data revealed that changes depended largely on the images with which they were compared (outer-perceptions of peers and management, perceptions of peers only, or perceptions of management only).

Self- Versus Outer-Images.--A comparison of self-images against outer-images held by both peers and management revealed interesting differences for the two ethnic groups. Although the two groups had comparable self-images, the subjects' self-images were the highest and the coworkers' self-images were the lowest of all views held of their respective English language abilities. To illustrate with the data presented in Table 9, the subjects' self-image of 89.61 was higher (differential of +1.09) than the ratings by the coworkers and management of the subjects' language abilities (88.52). On the other hand, the coworkers' self-image of 90.35 was lower (differential of -2.47) than the ratings by the subjects and management of the coworkers' language abilities (92.82). In summary, the subjects had high self-images and the coworkers had low self-images in comparison with the way they were viewed by others (peers and management).

Self-Ratings Versus Ratings Received from Peers.--The major differences between self- and other-images are shown in a comparison of self-images with images held by

peers. Table 9 shows a major contrast between the self-images and the peer-images for each ethnic group. As previously indicated, the subjects' English language abilities were highest on the basis of their self-images; the lowest images of their English language abilities were held by their peers, the coworkers. Conversely, the coworkers' self-images were lower than the perceptions held by the subjects of the coworkers' English language abilities. For example, the subjects' self-image of 89.61 was higher (differential of +3.14) than the peer-image of 86.47, which represented the way their peers (coworkers) viewed the subjects' English language abilities. On the other hand, the coworkers' self-image of 90.35 was lower (differential of -1.65) than the 92.00 peer-image which their peers (the subjects) held of the coworkers' English language abilities.

Self-Ratings Versus Ratings Given to Peers.--A

reversal was noted for the two ethnic groups when self-images were compared, not with how others viewed them, but with how they viewed others. In this instance, the coworkers' self-images, originally the lowest of their images, became higher in comparison to their views of the subjects. The subjects' self-images, originally the highest of their images, became lower in comparison to their views of the coworkers' language abilities. For example, the coworkers' self-image of 90.35 was higher

(differential of +3.88) than the image of 86.47 which they held for the subjects' English language abilities. The subjects' self-image of 89.61 was lower (differential of -2.39) than their image of 92.00 for the coworkers' language abilities. Thus, the subjects disclosed a high image of their own language abilities, but they lowered their self-images in relation to their views of the language abilities of their peers. By contrast, the coworkers disclosed a low image of their own language abilities, but they raised their self-images in relation to their views of the language abilities of the subjects.

Self- Versus Management-Images.--A similar comparison of self-images with the images of management disclosed small differences in favor of the coworkers. A very small difference was shown when the subjects' self-perceptions were compared with images by management of their language abilities. For example, Table 9 shows that the subjects' self-image of 89.61 and management's image of 90.57 differed by -0.96, a small differential. In the case of the coworkers, however, a greater difference (-3.29) was disclosed between their self-image of 90.35 and management's image of 93.64.

This difference between self- and management-images raised a question of whether the coworkers had an unusually low self-image or whether management had an unusually high image of their English language abilities. The

self-perceptions of both ethnic groups were the most comparable of all the images measured, as indicated by the smallest differential (-0.74) shown in Table 8. It appeared reasonable, therefore, to assume that the language abilities of the coworkers were perceived slightly higher by management, particularly after management's ratings were compared with the self-images of either ethnic group. Moreover, the exclusion of "Accent" as a language factor from Tables 8 and 9 and Figure 1 resulted in higher views by management of the subjects' English language abilities. Otherwise, the subjects' self-images would have been highest of three images of their English language abilities.

Location

The data for each type of rating (self, peer, and management) and all ratings combined indicated that the language abilities of the subjects, an ethnic group, were comparable to those of the coworkers, with only very small differences. With few exceptions, this was true for both ethnic groups regardless of their location. Any deviations for either the subjects or the coworkers were slight.

Comparative Ratings.--As shown in Table 10, there were somewhat greater differences between the two ethnic groups on the basis of residence. These differences were greatest for the people who lived close to the border.

TABLE 10.--Comparative Ratings of English Language Proficiency in Relation to Proximity of Mexican Border.

Type of Rating	Close to Border		Away From Border	
	Persons Rated		Persons Rated	
	Subjects	Coworkers Differences*	Subjects	Coworkers Differences*
Self-perceptions	92.15	92.45 -0.30	87.97	88.85 -0.88
Peer-perceptions	82.22	97.44 -15.22	88.96	91.19 -2.23
Management-perceptions	92.64	96.42 -3.78	89.08	91.78 -2.11
Outer-perceptions+	87.76	96.93 -9.17	89.02	91.49 -2.47
All perceptions	89.28	95.19 -5.91	88.65	90.59 -1.94

*Rating for subjects minus rating for coworkers.

+Outer-perceptions = Peer-perceptions + Manager-perceptions.

Table 10, for example, shows that all ratings for the subjects and coworkers who lived close to the border averaged 89.28 and 95.19 respectively. On the other hand, the subjects and coworkers who lived away from the border showed averages of 88.65 and 90.59 respectively. Hence, the factor of residence indicated relatively larger differences between the subjects and the coworkers who resided close to the border (-5.91) than between the subjects and coworkers who resided away from the border (-1.94).

Outer-Images.--A comparison of outer perceptions for both ethnic groups showed additional differences between the employees in relation to their residence. The views of management coupled with those held by peers showed that the English language abilities of the subjects (87.76) were comparatively lower than those of the coworkers (96.93), a differential of -9.17 for residents close to the border. A smaller differential of -2.47, however, indicated that outer-perceptions of the English language abilities of both ethnic groups were more comparable when they lived away from the border. Of the two images comprising outer-perceptions, peer-perception exerted more influence relative to the factor of location than did the perception of management.

Peer-Images.--A distinct characteristic for the subjects as an ethnic group was that they viewed their peers

(the coworkers) as having higher English language abilities than the coworkers viewed the subject's English language abilities. This difference in views, one of the most pronounced differences throughout the study, was highlighted by the peer-ratings which applied to the subjects close to the border. For example, peer perceptions of 82.22 and 97.44 for the subjects and the coworkers, respectively, who lived close to the border showed a differential of -15.22. On the other hand, averages of 88.96 and 91.19 for the subjects and coworkers, respectively, who lived away from the border showed a lesser differential (-2.23). Hence, a greater differential was noted between peer-ratings of both ethnic groups whose residence was close to the border. The subjects' English language abilities were below the percentage with which the coworkers "almost always" performed the language factors (differential of -15.22).

Management-Images.--Ratings by management, previously indicated as the highest of the three types of ratings for both ethnic groups, averaged higher for the two ethnic groups residing close to the border than for the employees residing away from the border. Ratings by management close to the border were 92.64 and 96.42 for the subjects and coworkers respectively and showed a higher differential (-3.78) in favor of the coworkers. Away from the border, however, a lesser differential (-2.11) existed

between the management ratings for the subjects (89.08) and the coworkers (91.78). Hence, higher images of both ethnic groups were held by management for workers close to the border; management's ratings were slightly higher for the coworkers regardless of location.

Self-Images Versus Other-Images.--A comparison of self-ratings, previously shown to be comparable for the two ethnic groups, showed that both the subjects and coworkers residing close to the border had relatively higher self-perceptions with smaller differentials than the employees living away from the border. Further contrasts of self-ratings, however, with outer-perceptions held by management and peers, with peer ratings received from and given to a peer, and with management ratings, showed variations for each ethnic group in relation to the factor of their residence. Contrasts drawn between outer-perceptions and self-perceptions, for example, previously indicated that the self-images of the subjects were higher and the self-images of the coworkers were lower. In this instance, there was a deviation by the subjects living away from the border, whose self-images (87.97) were lower than their outer-perceptions (89.02) resulting in a differential of -1.05.

Self-Ratings Versus Ratings Received from Peers.--In the comparative analysis between self-images and peer-images, the factor of residence accounted for slight

deviations from the generalizations made for the subjects and coworkers based on their ethnic groups. The differences previously reported between the two ethnic groups were based, in one instance, on a comparison between self- and peer-ratings received from a peer. It was reported that the subjects' self-images were higher than the images reported by their peers for the subjects' language abilities. With regard to the factor of residence, for example, Table 10 shows that when the subjects' self-image of 92.15 was compared with their peer-image of 82.22 there was a difference of +9.93; hence, the rating received from the coworkers indicated a perception of the subjects' English language abilities which was 9.93 less than what the subjects themselves perceived for their English language abilities.

Deviating from this ethnic group pattern, however, were the subjects who lived away from the border. Their peer-image, or the coworkers' view of the subjects' English language abilities (88.96), was higher by .99 than the subjects' self-image (87.97). Hence, the English language abilities of the subjects living away from the border were higher as perceived by the coworkers than were the ratings for subjects who lived near the border. The differential of .99 is very small and perhaps insufficient to negate the generalization for the entire ethnic group that the subjects' self-images were higher than the images held by their peers. The difference, however, is a reminder that

the factor of residence disclosed some differences for the subjects within their own ethnic group.

Also, the comparison of self-ratings with ratings received from a peer indicated that the coworkers' self-images were lower than the ratings they received from the subjects. This generalization was true for the coworkers as an ethnic group regardless of their location.

Self-Ratings Versus Ratings Given to Peers.--

Several generalizations were made for each ethnic group by the comparison of self-ratings with ratings given to a peer. First, the subjects' self-images were lower than the ratings they gave to the coworkers. Table 10 shows that the differentials between the subjects' self-images and the ratings they gave the coworkers were larger for the subjects living close to the border. For example, their self-image of 92.15 is less (differential of -5.29) than the ratings they gave their peers (the coworkers). Analysis of the entire ethnic group showed that the subjects' self-images were lower than the ratings they gave to the coworkers, regardless of location.

Secondly, a contrast between the coworkers' self-ratings and the ratings they gave to peers (the subjects) showed that they rated themselves higher. Table 10 shows a deviation from this pattern for the coworkers as an ethnic group. That is, the coworkers living away from the border viewed the English language abilities of their

peers (the subjects) higher than their own. Their self-image (88.85) was .11 lower than their image of the subjects' English language abilities (88.96). For both the subjects and the coworkers, peer-images appeared to be on a more reciprocal basis for those employees who lived away from the border. Hence, the pattern of the coworkers having higher self-images than the peer-ratings they gave to the subjects was characteristic only for the coworkers who lived close to the border, rather than for the coworkers as an ethnic group.

Individual Language Factors

The abilities of the subjects and the coworkers were analyzed for each language factor. Comparisons were made to show perceived relative strengths and weaknesses of the two ethnic groups in each of the ten language factors.

Scores on Each Language Factor

The employees' mean score for nine individual language factors was 90.6, an average which also represents the mode and median in this case. Table 11 shows each score for the employees. Only two language factors for the subjects were above the average score for the total group of employees. Reading and Spelling, both written factors, were the two highest-ranking abilities of the subjects. On the other hand, the two lowest-ranking factors for the coworkers were their Conveyance and

TABLE 11.--Comparative Rankings of Individual Language Factors.

Overall Rank	Subjects			Coworkers		
	Group Rank	Rating#	Factor	Group Rank	Rating#	Factor
1				1	95.3	Reading
2				2	94.9	Written Grammar
3				3	94.3	Fluency
4				4	92.8	Spoken Grammar
5	1	92.6	Reading	5	92.5	Composing
6						
7	2	92.3	Spelling			
8	3	90.6	Spoken Grammar	6	91.7	Vocabulary
9.5*				7	90.6	Understanding
9.5*	4	90.0	Understanding			
11	5	89.9	Written Grammar			
12	6	89.2	Conveyance			
13						
14						
15						
16	7	87.1	Composing	8	89.0	Conveyance
17	8	86.7	Fluency	9 ^a	87.5	Spelling
18	9	85.2	Vocabulary			
19	10 ^a	79.2	Accent			

^aWithout "Accent," coworkers had only nine language factor ratings. Subjects' "Accent" rating, therefore, had no comparative nature, but was included for reference in relation to bilingualism.

*Tied rankings.

#The arithmetic mean of the ratings for 18 comparable ranks was 90.6. This also represented the other two measures of central tendency, the median and the mode, for the 18 ranks of the nine comparable language factor pairs. Mean score for the nine comparable factors for Subjects was 89.2 and for Coworkers was 92.0. Range for the total group on the nine comparable factors was 10.1; for Subjects' scores the range was 7.4, and for Coworkers' scores the range was 7.8.

Spelling abilities. There were six "below average" abilities for the subjects. Most ratings for this ethnic group were below the group mean of 90.6, and most coworkers' ratings were above 90.6 in their individual English language abilities.

The ranges of scores, however, for both the subjects and the coworkers on the individual language factors were relatively close, as shown in Table 11. The percentage with which they "almost always" performed an individual language factor ranged from 85.2 to 92.6 for subjects and from 87.5 to 95.3 for coworkers. These intervals of 7.4 for the subjects and 7.8 for the coworkers illustrate the closeness in the ranges of scores for each of nine language factors. Including "Accent" in the analysis of individual language factors resulted in a lowering from 85.2 to 79.2 of the range of scores for the subjects. Vocabulary, with a score of 85.2, was the lowest of the nine comparable factors for the subjects but "Accent," with a score of 79.2, was lower. In either instance, the lowest score was for a verbal language factor.

The ranking of all language factors reveals a similar pattern between the groups of employees for the verbal and written categories of language factors. Of the top three language factors shown in Table 11, for example, the first two ranks for each ethnic group revealed language abilities which were classified as written, and

the third rank was for a language ability classified as verbal. Both the subjects and coworkers ranked highest in their reading abilities. The language factors which ranked second highest were Spelling (for the subjects) and Written Grammar (for the coworkers), both of which were classified as written factors. Although the language factors differed under the classifications of either verbal or written in the ranking, the classifications remained the same for the two ethnic groups until the seventh and ninth ranks.

Differences for Each Language Factor

Analysis of individual language factors revealed differences between the two ethnic groups. Table 12 shows the percentage points of difference between the two groups for each language factor. It is interesting to note that relative ranks and ratings differentials were not very well matched. This situation occurred because of the basic closeness of all the individual language factor ratings, resulting in the previously described narrow range.

The factors of Reading and Understanding illustrate the effect of this narrow range. Reading, as Table 11 shows, was the language factor which ranked first for both the subjects and the coworkers. However, as highlighted in Table 12, the subjects were 2.7 percentage points lower in their perceived reading abilities than the coworkers. On the other hand, Table 12 shows that the subjects' composite

TABLE 12.--Comparative Ratings for Individual Language Factors.

Language Factor	Composite Ratings		Differences*
	Subjects	Coworkers	
Grammar	90.6	92.8	-2.2
Vocabulary	85.2	91.7	-6.5
Fluency	86.7	94.3	-7.6
Conveyance	89.2	89.0	+0.2
Understanding	90.0	90.6	-0.6
Spelling	92.3	87.5	+4.8
Reading	92.6	95.3	-2.7
Written Grammar	89.9	94.9	-5.0
Composing	87.1	92.5	-5.4
Accent	79.2

*Subjects' rating minus coworkers' rating.

rating on Understanding was only 0.6 percentage points lower than that for the coworkers. According to the ranked abilities (shown in Table 11), the factor of Understanding was seventh in the ranking for coworkers, whereas it was only fourth from the top rating for subjects.

Fluency.--The ranges between the top and bottom ratings indicated that there was little overall difference in the perceived English language abilities on a factor by factor basis between the two ethnic groups. The subjects were relatively somewhat lower on all but two language factors, as indicated by the positive values in column three of Table 12. The lowest English language ability of the subjects was the factor of Fluency. Of the nine comparable language factors, Fluency, probably more than any other, could be affected by the bilingual characteristic of the subjects. However, although the subjects had a 7.6 percentage point lower rating than the coworkers in Fluency, their absolute rating was 86.7 per cent of "almost always" speaking fluently. The subjects' lowest comparable factor rating, 85.2 per cent for Vocabulary, was still in the solid mid-eighties.

Vocabulary.--The language factors of Vocabulary and Fluency were functionally related, in that being highly fluent in a language almost certainly involves the use of a well-developed vocabulary. In this sense, at least, the perceptions of the three groups of raters were consistent

when all the ratings on all the cases were summarized, resulting in very close average ratings for the subjects on fluency and the closely associated factor of vocabulary. That people with the dual language heritage and practice would have been considered to be less adequate with their vocabulary substantiates conclusions from the general literature. Having to use two languages in regular communications can pressure toward the development of each language as its own special communication tool rather than as a refined art with embellishments and subtleties resulting from extensive vocabularies developed through the constant use of one language. Thus, to the extent that vocabularies are limited, so may be the ability to be fluent. In this study, at least, the combined self-, peer-, and management-ratings indicated that the Spanish-speaking people were considered to be the weakest in their vocabulary usage and next weakest in their fluency in the English language.

Focusing on relative strengths, Figure 2 shows graphically the two language factors in which the abilities of the subjects were perceived to be greater than those of the coworkers. The center line in Figure 2 indicates the point at which there would have been no difference in the ratings for the two ethnic groups. Bars to the right of the center line show the factors in which the subjects ranked higher than the coworkers and the amount of this difference. Bars to the left of the center line indicate

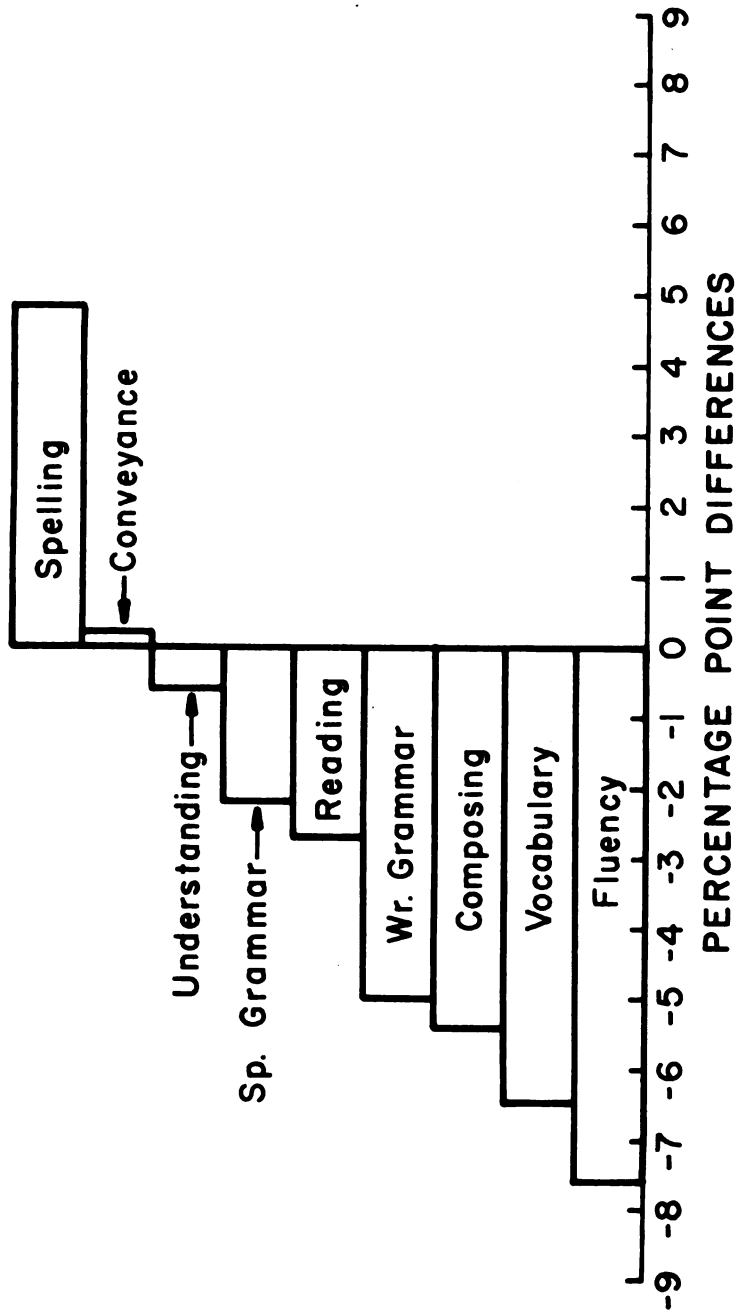


Figure 2. Differences in subjects' language factors — Ratings from coworkers: total scores

the language factors in which the subjects rated lower than the coworkers and the percentage point differences between these ratings. The language factors are listed in Figure 2 according to the declining relative strengths of the subjects. For example, the top bar, Spelling, represents the language factor in which the subjects had the greatest relative strength, and the bottom bar, Fluency, represents the language factor in which the subjects were relatively the weakest.

Spelling and Conveyance.--Only in the factors of Spelling and Conveyance were the subjects given higher ratings than the coworkers. However, as Figure 2 indicates, the subjects were less than one percentage point behind the coworkers in the ratings for Understanding and less than three percentage points behind them in the ratings for Spoken Grammar and Reading. In the factors of Written Grammar, Composing, Vocabulary, and Fluency, the subjects were five or more percentage points behind the coworkers in their average ratings.

As indicated by the language background factors of the subjects, every one of them spoke Spanish prior to entering school, but only a few also spoke English. Because of these conditions, English was definitely the second language for the subjects. Further, the speech or language usage patterns of their parents suggested that the subjects tended to learn their English in the school

setting rather than in the home and community environments. As a consequence, very likely the learning of the English language was closely interwoven with learning to spell, a mechanical operation which is set over time. Since English words were heard less often, perhaps their way of learning a word was through the recognition of its spelling and through the writing of the words. Repetition in writing may have been a principal means by which the subjects learned the language. In addition, because English was learned as the second language and afforded fewer opportunities to be used in daily conversations, the spelling of each word may have been symbolic in itself and lessened confusion caused by hearing other "sound alike" words which were not necessarily spelled alike. Though there may be other explanations, the fact was that the composite average rating for the language factor of Spelling was nearly 5 per cent higher for the subjects than for the coworkers.

The ratings for the factor of Conveyance differed by only 0.2 percentage points in favor of the subjects. Conveyance was defined as language abilities associated with giving clear instructions and explanations for things associated with the job function. In this factor, there was some logic in the subjects' showing of equal or slightly better abilities than their purely English-speaking coworkers. The majority of the subjects clearly used English for certain communications and Spanish for

others. Many of the subjects spoke Spanish with their parents as well as their spouses, possibly limiting their Spanish-speaking abilities to family, household, and more personal communications. On the other hand, the personal interviews revealed that English was the language used in job situations. Consistent use of English for that which had a degree of familiarity, their jobs, may have been instrumental to the subjects' developing an ability to verbalize more adequately in this specific area.

Verbal and Written Language Factors

Verbal Language Factors.--Language factors in the verbal category showed both the greatest and least differences between the language performance of the two groups. The two language factors, both verbal, which showed the largest difference between the two ethnic groups were Fluency and Vocabulary. The language factor showing the highest differential between the two groups of employees and, therefore, ranking first in points of difference was Fluency. The coworkers, with 7.6 points of difference were perceived to be more fluent in their verbal communications than the subjects. Vocabulary, although a language factor in the bottom five ranks for both groups, showed the second highest difference between the language abilities of the two groups of employees. The smallest differences in the language performance of the two ethnic groups

applied to either verbal factors comprised of Conveyance, Understanding, and Grammar, or to written factors consisting of Reading and Spelling.

Written Language Factors.--Written language factors followed verbal factors in terms of differences between the language performance of the subjects and the coworkers. The greatest differences in written language factors were shown between the two ethnic groups for Written Grammar and Composing, with percentage points of 5.0 and 5.4 in favor of the coworkers.

The differences disclosed for written language factors may not be due as much to a lack of ability by the employees as it is to their lack of opportunities for writing in their current positions. Some positions entailed a high percentage of written communications, e.g., engineers with utilities companies where their abilities to write reports were of high importance. These positions were few, however, compared to those which did not require written communications. In many cases, the employees' abilities in Composing were designated as "unknown" by one or all persons submitting a rating. In four cases, for example, the use of the term "unknown" was used by all personnel. The rating "not applicable" would have been more appropriate for designating the employee's nonuse of composition skills.

Whether written or verbal, the language factors characterized by an aspect of variability rather than constancy of use appeared to make a difference in the language performance of the subjects. A possible explanation underlying the verbal factors which showed the largest differentials, Vocabulary and Fluency, is that the two factors have fluctuating characteristics which would have a major role in an extemporaneous rather than a fixed conversation. In contrast, the verbal factors which showed the least difference for the two ethnic groups were Conveyance and Understanding. Both factors, although verbal, are characteristic of a more steadfast, constant, or nonchanging type of conversation. For example, Conveyance and Understanding involved verbal instructions which pertained to certain job aspects. Moreover, the written factor of Spelling serves to illustrate a steadfast, nonchanging factor which apparently was best performed by the subjects.

Summary of Chapter Findings

In analysis of the English language performance ratings, it was found that the English language abilities of both ethnic groups were comparable, with very small differences. Self-ratings provided interesting insights with respect to the two ethnic groups. Self-images were higher than might be expected for the subjects. Contrasts drawn between self-ratings and other-ratings, however,

showed that the subjects' self-images changed relative to peer-images. The most meaningful difference between the two ethnic groups was shown by peer-images, where the coworkers' images of the subjects' English language abilities were lower than the subjects' images of the coworkers' English language abilities.

The application of these findings to an entire ethnic group required some modification on the basis of the factor of residence. The employees' residence pointed out differences for both the subjects and the coworkers within their respective ethnic groups. For example, a low peer-image of the subjects' English language abilities was more characteristic of the coworkers who resided close to the border.

The dual language characteristic shown by the background data did not appear to affect the English language performance of the subjects as indicated by their perceived abilities for each language factor. Some specific language factors, in both written or verbal categories, warrant the attention of vocational educators relative to the differences between the performance of each ethnic group on each language factor.

CHAPTER VI

THE FINDINGS, PART C: HOW LANGUAGE IS USED IN EMPLOYMENT

The previously discussed language performance abilities have an instrumental role in the employment progress of a white-collar worker. The findings in this chapter indicate the use of language abilities in employment. The first section of the chapter discusses the importance with which the participants viewed their abilities for their white-collar employment. The importance of each language factor for job placement, job adjustment, and job promotion illustrates how language factors affect employment progress. The final section of the chapter is devoted to findings which indicate the degree to which bilingualism is currently utilized in white-collar employment.

Language Factors Affecting Employment Progress

All three categories of participants indicated which of the language factors they considered important for

different phases in the employment process. The forty-five participants indicated whether a factor would be important for getting hired for the positions held by the subjects and coworkers, for making satisfactory adjustments to the positions, and for achieving promotion or advancement in those positions or to higher level jobs. The results of these judgments are shown in Table 13 for each factor and employment phase. The factors are listed under each phase according to the declining order of percentage of "yes" responses.

The first column in Table 13 shows the overall rank of the language factors in relation to all the employment phases and the percentage of affirmative responses which the corresponding factor received. Ability in Understanding was considered important for purposes of promotion by 88.8 per cent of the forty-five participants. No other factor for any other phase received more affirmative responses than did Understanding in relation to Promotion, so it was given the first rank. Vocabulary, Fluency, and Understanding relative to Placement all received 62.2 per cent affirmative responses, as did Written Grammar relative to Adjustment. Thus, these four factors in conjunction with the two phases were tied for the fourteenth through seventeenth ranks.

Table 13 presents a comparison between those factors considered most important to each employment phase, listed in order from most to least emphasis for each.

TABLE 13.--Relative Importance of Language Factors to Each Employment Phase.

Overall Rank	Percentage of Possible Marks [#]	Placement Phase		Adjustment Phase		Promotion Phase	
		Rank	Factor	Rank	Factor	Rank	Factor
1	88.8					1	Understanding
2.5*	84.4					2.5*	Reading
2.5*	84.4					2.5*	Vocabulary
4	82.2					4	Spoken Grammar
5.5*	77.8	1	Spoken Grammar				
5.5*	77.8					5	Written Grammar
7	75.5					6	Spelling
8	73.3					7	Fluency
9	71.1	2	Reading				
10.5*	68.8					8.5*	Conveyance
10.5*	68.8					8.5*	Composing
12	66.6			1	Understanding		
13	64.4			1	Reading		
15.5*	62.2			3	Written Grammar		
15.5*	62.2	4*	Vocabulary				
15.5*	62.2	4*	Fluency				
15.5*	62.2	4*	Understanding				
18.5*	60.0	6	Spelling				
18.5*	60.0			4	Fluency		
21*	55.6	7	Conveyance				
21*	55.6			5.5	Vocabulary		
21	55.6			5.5	Conveyance		
23	51.1			7	Spoken Grammar		
24	46.6			8	Spelling		
25	44.4			9	Composing		
26	42.2	8	Written Grammar				
27.5*	40.0	9	Accent				
27.5*	40.0					10	Accent
29	31.1	10	Accent				
30	26.6			10	Accent		

*Tied rankings.

[#]Maximum possible marks for each factor under each phase was forty-five.

For instance, Accent was found for the first time in the thirty overall ranks tied for the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth ranks, with 40.0 per cent affirmative responses for both Placement and Promotion. Composing, as a factor for initial hiring, received 31.1 per cent affirmative responses, and Accent, in relation to Adjustment, was the least emphasized of all factors for any phase.

Importance of All Language
Factors to Each Phase
of Employment

Importance for Job Placement.--The maximum potential value for language factor ratings for any employment phase was 450. This would result if every one of the forty-five participants had considered each of the ten language factors important for that employment phase, giving a total of 450 affirmative responses for that phase (forty-five people marking ten factors = $45 \times 10 = 450$). The Placement employment phase received a total of 254 marks, meaning that the participants gave the package of language factors 56.4 per cent of the potential affirmative responses. The subjects gave the group of factors 42 per cent of all the affirmative responses received; the co-workers added 33 per cent; and management contributed the remaining 25 per cent of the total positive responses.

The subjects apparently considered abilities in the language factors to be more vital in order to get

placed in their jobs than did their coworkers and the managers. Management, by contributing only one-fourth of the affirmative responses to the factors relative to Placement, did not seem to consider these abilities particularly crucial for job entry purposes. Only for Fluency did managers give a greater emphasis to any factor than did coworkers, and for no factor did managers give even as much emphasis as did the subjects.

The individual responses for each factor are shown in Figure 3 by participant categories in relation to the Placement phase. Bars illustrate the number of subjects (first), coworkers (second), and managers (third) who responded affirmatively to each language factor. For instance, twelve subjects and thirteen coworkers thought Grammar was an important language ability to possess in order to get hired. Ten managers agreed. The fourth listed factor, Fluency, was considered by eleven subjects, eight coworkers, and nine managers to be an important ability for Placement.

More subjects marked every factor except two affirmatively than did coworkers and managers. One more coworker than subject marked Reading and Grammar. For the factor of Composing, the number of positive responses reduced by half from subjects to coworkers to managers. Only two managers thought Composing was important for being hired.

Placement markings: Total possible markings = $254 / 450 = 56.4$

Out of 254 markings, subjects gave 42 percent; coworkers, 33 percent; managers, 25 percent

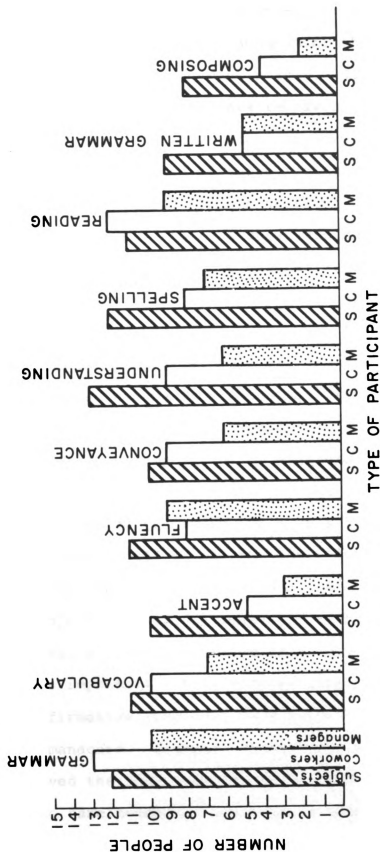


Figure 3. Language factors importance for placement

Importance for Job Adjustment.--The language factors were emphasized less for Adjustment than for either of the other two employment phases. Out of 450 possible responses, the ten factors received 240, or 53.3 per cent of the possible. Each category of employees gave approximately one-third of these ratings, with no special pattern of emphasis for the opinions of subjects, coworkers, or managers. Figure 4 shows the number of participants in each category who gave affirmative responses for each factor's importance for the Adjustment phase of employment.

The largest single emphasis for any factor for Adjustment purposes was on Understanding, with twelve coworkers indicating affirmative responses. The factor under Adjustment least emphasized by management was Accent, although two managers thought that the factor of Accent was important relative to making the proper adjustments for the jobs. About half of all the participants considered Spelling important. Accent was the only factor which more subjects marked affirmatively than did the other employees; a total of six subjects indicated that the factor was important. Five factors received equal numbers of affirmative responses from subjects and either coworkers or managers. Grammar, Vocabulary, and Written Grammar received the same emphasis from subjects and managers. The same number of subjects as coworkers

Adjustment markings: Total possible markings = $240/450 = 53.3$
 Out of 240 markings, subjects gave 33 percent; coworkers, 35 percent; managers, 32 percent

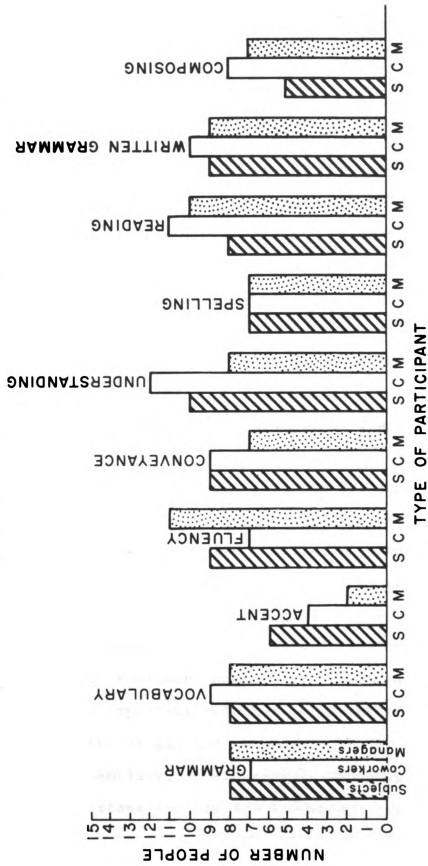


Figure 4. Language factors importance for adjustment

considered Conveyance important and seven people from each group marked the Spelling factor.

Importance for Job Promotion.--Far more emphasis was placed on the language factors relative to Promotion than for either Placement or Adjustment. A total of 339 affirmative responses were given to all the factors. This number was 75.1 per cent of all the marks which could have been given. Subjects and managers each gave 31 per cent of the total and the coworkers gave 38 per cent. Figure 5 shows the various distributions for the factors as emphasized by the different categories of employees.

As shown in Figure 5, the number of coworkers marking each factor was not exceeded by either of the other two groups for any factor, although for some factors there was an equal number of subjects or managers responding affirmatively. For two factors, Vocabulary and Reading, every coworker in the study indicated the factors to be important for Promotion. All but one worker thought that Spelling and Understanding were important for this employment phase. Fourteen managers also thought that Understanding was important relative to Promotion.

Four-fifths of all the subjects (twelve) indicated that Grammar, Vocabulary, Understanding, Spelling, and Reading were important factors for Promotion. No factor received more than twelve positive responses from the

Promotion markings: Total possible markings = $339/450 = 75.1$

Out of 339 markings, subjects gave 31 percent; coworkers, 38 percent; managers, 31 percent

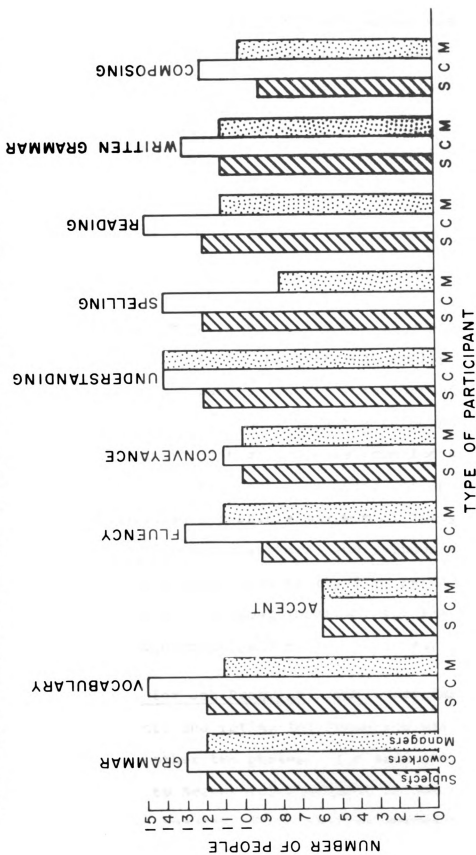


Figure 5. Language factors importance for promotion

subjects. Twelve managers thought that Grammar was important and, as already indicated, fourteen marked Understanding. These two factors received the largest number of management responses. Six people from each group marked Accent as a factor of importance for Promotion; no other factor received as few endorsers under this phase.

Importance of Each Language
Factor to All Phases
of Employment

Figure 6 shows the varying degrees of emphasis given each factor relative to the different employment phases by each group of participants. Three bars for each language factor were used to delineate the three phases of employment. The participant groups were compiled within each employment phase bar. Thus, the number of people marking each factor had a possible maximum of forty-five (fifteen subjects, fifteen coworkers, and fifteen managers). For example, Figure 6 shows that thirty-five participants considered the factor of Grammar important for Placement, twenty-three for Adjustment, and thirty-seven for Promotion.

Importance for Job Progress.--For every language factor except Accent, the rating for Promotion was higher than those for the other two phases. The same amount of emphasis was given to Accent for Placement as was given for Promotion. The results of the ratings seemed to indicate that the participants considered most of the

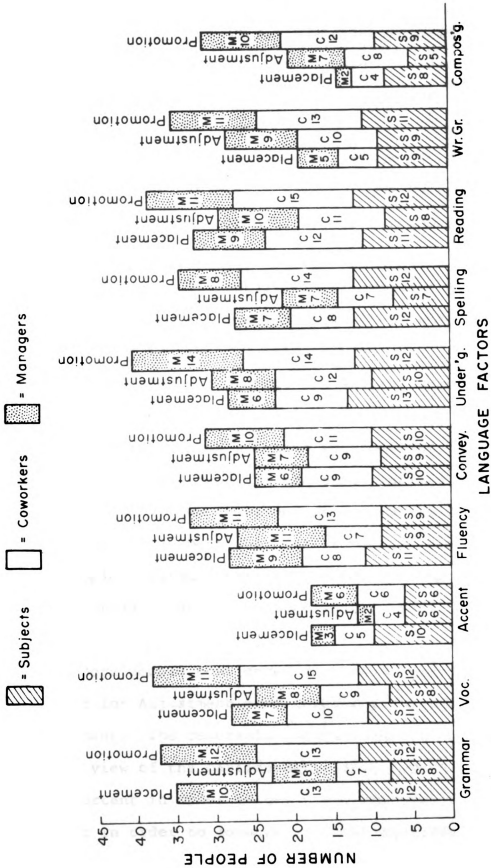


Figure 6. Comparative language factors emphasis for employment phases

language factors to be fairly important in order to get the jobs, not so important for purposes of adjusting to the work situations, and far more crucial for obtaining advancements and promotions.

Figure 7 illustrates a comparison of the emphases for the different employment phases. The factor of Understanding received more affirmative responses in relation to Promotion than any other factor for any other employment phase. The corresponding emphases given this factor relative to Placement (broken line) and to Adjustment (solid line) are also shown.

The factors of Grammar and Written Grammar reflect some interesting contrasts. They were given fourth and fifth ranks of emphasis relative to Promotion, but for Placement and Adjustment the emphasis rankings reversed themselves. Only two fewer people considered Grammar important for Placement than for Promotion, but sixteen fewer people considered Written Grammar of importance for Placement than those who thought it important for Promotion.

More people considered Written Grammar to be important for Adjustment than considered spoken Grammar to be important. The reversals suggested that, from the point of view of the participants, good spoken grammar was very important in order to get a job and then even more important in order to advance in their employment. Ability to speak with correct grammar was not perceived as

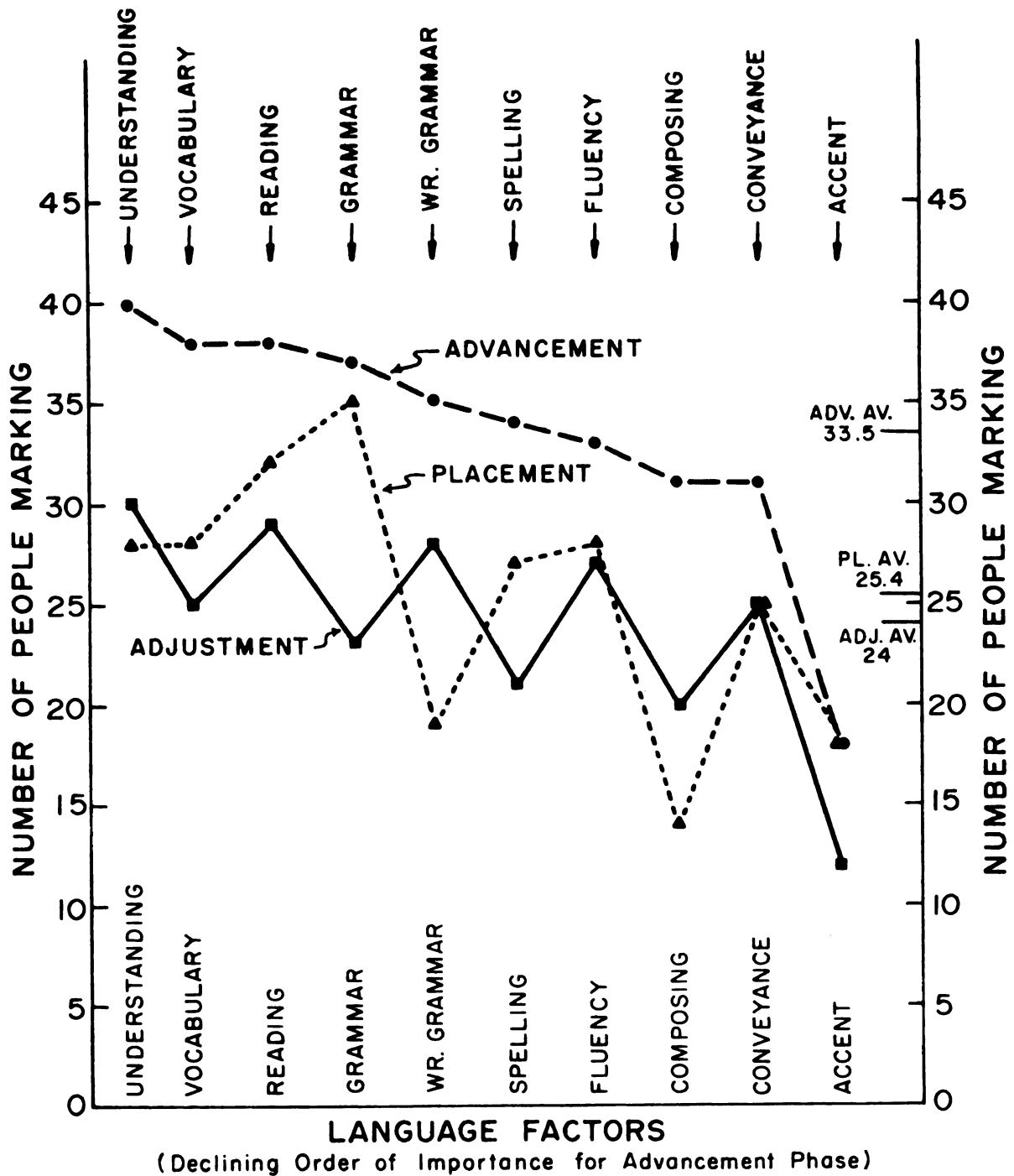


Figure 7. Comparative employment phases — language factors emphasis

aiding the job adjustment process appreciably, but the adjustment process was thought to be helped if the employee had abilities in writing with good grammar. Writing properly did not have much to do with success in obtaining a job; however, its greatest importance was in being able to advance in a job.

The least emphasis was given to the factor of Composing for the Placement phase. The Accent factor received next to the least emphasis regarding its importance for Placement and the least emphasis for the other two employment phases.

Importance Throughout Employment.--Because language factors would not be developed by people only for immediate needs posed by their particular employment phases, the analysis of the factors and their respective phase emphases included a consolidated approach. Each language factor was viewed as a continuing skill and ranked according to its total emphasis. Affirmative responses for Placement, Adjustment, and Promotion were combined, therefore, to get an indication of the overall importance of the factors for successful employment experiences. Table 14 shows the results for this analysis.

If, for any factor, the forty-five people had given affirmative responses relative to that factor's importance for all three employment phases, that factor's rating across the three employment phases would have been 135 ($45 \times 3 = 135$). Table 14 shows the factors listed

TABLE 14.--Importance of Language Factors Relative to All Phases of Employment.

Rank	Factor	Total Rating**	Percentage of Maximum Possible Rating
1	Reading	99	73.3
2	Understanding	98	72.6
3	Spoken Grammar	95	70.3
4	Vocabulary	91	67.4
5	Fluency	88	65.1
6.5*	Spelling	82	60.7
6.5*	Written Grammar	82	60.7
8	Conveyance	81	60.0
9	Composing	65	48.1
10	Accent	48	35.5

*Tied rankings.

**Maximum possible rating = 135.

according to the percentages of the 135 maximum responses which each received. The factor of Reading received the highest overall percentage of affirmative responses, or 73.3 per cent of the maximum possible. The factor of Understanding received only 0.7 per cent fewer marks than did Reading.

Importance of Language Factors to Prospective Applicant

The positions of the language factors varied between their ranks for each employment phase and their overall ranks for all phases of employment. For example, Reading ranked first as a language factor relative to all employment phases, but this factor ranked second in emphasis for each of the individual employment phases. Verbal grammar, third highest of all language factors for all employment phases, was highest for Job Entry. Hence, in addition to the four language factors which were most important for all stages of employment, a prospective applicant would be concerned with factors such as Fluency in order to enter a position and, together with Written Grammar, to adjust in a position. Advancement from a position, however, was not thought to require particular language abilities other than the initial four.

The ranked positions of language factors also varied according to the importance with which the personnel viewed their roles within the specific employment phases. The language factors which were regarded as most important

for all stages of employment by the subjects, coworkers, and management respectively were Understanding, Reading, and Fluency. Figure 6 shows that the subjects gave no other language factor more emphasis than the thirty-five affirmative responses given to the role of Understanding for the three phases. It also shows that all personnel regarded an ability in Understanding as most significant, differing only in the emphasis for the employment phase.

The percentage of responses given by all personnel shows that the phase which received the most emphasis, Advancement, was chosen more often by the coworkers than by the subjects or managers. The phase which received the next most emphasis was Job Entry, which was particularly emphasized by the subjects. Hence, the subjects viewed satisfactory performance on the ten language factors as most important for job entry purposes, while coworkers viewed the language factors as most important for advancement purposes.

It may be reasonable to assume that the lesser emphasis given by the personnel to the Adjustment phase of employment had an added dimension of preventive measures. Employees entering a position with an ability to perform most of the language factors satisfactorily would very likely be better equipped to perform these abilities satisfactorily in their second stage of employment, adjustment in their positions. Further, the employee who aspires to advance from his position would be the one who

would find the requirement for language abilities to be most essential. The sample in this study, however, was comprised of positions where opportunities for advancement are based largely on salary increments rather than on promotions to higher positions in the organizational structure of the companies.

The importance of the language factors for the various phases of employment provides guidelines in setting up priorities for teaching. Whether language factors were considered important for a specific phase or for all phases of a job, it is apparent that Reading, Understanding, Verbal Grammar, and Vocabulary all warrant attention by prospective job applicants, particularly as they apply for white-collar jobs of the type included in this study. With the recognition that the satisfactory performance of the language factors is basic to the prospective or aspiring white-collar employee, a major consideration would be determining which language factors could be considered more and less critical.

Three verbal factors, Vocabulary, Fluency, and Accent, were identified as critical areas for the subjects. This evaluation was based on the ranked differences between the employees' abilities on these factors and also on the ranked importance of these language factors for the three phases of white-collar employment.

Vocabulary.--The Vocabulary language factor was considered of high importance for Advancement and for Placement purposes and was thus judged to be a critical area for the subjects. The factor would appear to warrant the special attention of educators as an area for possible improvement, as it represents the second highest differential between the subjects and the coworkers and is considered highly important for entering and advancing in a white-collar position.

Fluency.--The other two verbal language factors, Fluency and Accent, were judged to be less critical than Vocabulary. Despite substantially large differences between the subjects and coworkers or the low scores for the subjects, the roles of these language factors in any of the three employment stages were viewed as having lesser importance. The language factor representing the largest difference between the subjects and the coworkers, Fluency, ranked fourth in importance for Job Entry but had lesser importance for the other two employment phases. The differences between the employees for this factor apparently did not adversely influence the job performance of the subjects in the sample of this study. Fluency nevertheless may warrant attention as an area of improvement with regard to the training of prospective Mexican-Americans for white-collar positions. The need for objectives aimed at promoting Fluency is based primarily on its importance

for Job Entry purposes, and especially on the performance by a group of subjects who, with strong educational and employment backgrounds, nevertheless showed a greater weakness in this ability than did the coworkers.

Accent.--The Accent language factor had limited comparative aspects in that the "accent" of monolingual employees unquestionably differed from that of bilingual employees. Separate analysis of the Accent factor, based not on its comparative aspects but on the major objectives of this study, disclosed interesting views held regarding the accent of the subjects in this study.

Allegations in the past have directed attention to the Mexican-American's accent as a factor in employment. The views disclosed by the sample of this study substantiated that selected Mexican-Americans employed in white-collar positions spoke English with an accent and also repudiated the importance of an accent-free English-speaking ability for entering, adjusting, and advancing in a white-collar position. An accent in the English speech of the subjects, as indicated by both separate and joint analysis, represented the lowest of the ten scores; it was a significant characteristic in the subjects' speech particularly as viewed by management. The role of an accent, viewed as one of minor importance for both placement and advancement purposes, ranked as the lowest in importance of the ten language factors within each of the three

employment phases. The subjects appeared to direct more attention to the factor of Accent for Job Entry purposes, while management, with few responses, focused more attention on its importance for advancement purposes. Accordingly, a Mexican-American's accent was perceived to be neither a problem nor a factor of great importance in the white-collar positions. From an educational point of view, a Mexican-American's accent may represent an area warranting continued attention in formulating objectives for the refinement of speech patterns. This recommendation is based on their major role in vocational classroom activities and a recognition that the views with which an accent is held pose attitudinal overtones.

Most employees interviewed in the study appeared reticent to discuss accent as a special characteristic. Many were hesitant to indicate an absence of an accent in the subjects' spoken English. The lowest score throughout the study, however, was for Accent. This low score indicated an awareness by most personnel that the subjects spoke English with an accent. More hesitancy was shown for making a commitment on the importance of the accent factor in employment. One management representative clearly indicated that an accent was "no problem." On the other hand, management representatives in one industry (utilities) would not commit themselves with a definite response in answer to the question on the importance of an accent, steadfastly omitting the question.

Written Grammar and Composing.--The factors of Written Grammar and Composing, both categorized as written factors, showed relatively large differentials in the abilities of the employees, but they were of only average importance within each of the employment phases. As previously mentioned, only Utilities regarded an ability to compose as essential for its employees to adjust and advance from a position. It was viewed as particularly essential for employees whose major job function was report writing, e.g., engineers and other department heads. Hence, the minimal importance given Composing may be attributable to the fact that it was not a major job function for most of the employees in the study.

Reading, Verbal Grammar, and Understanding.--Some factors were not considered critical, since the differentials for the employees were small and the subjects showed a lead over the coworkers. However, the factors of Reading, Verbal Grammar, and Understanding, were seen as highly important to several phases of the white-collar positions represented in this study. Reading, despite a small differential, was the highest-ranking ability for either ethnic group. Moreover, its role in a white-collar position was noted by its rank (second highest in importance) for job entry, adjustment, and advancement phases of employment. Verbal Grammar, on the other hand, ranked first in importance for job entry. The language factor

showing the smallest differential was Understanding, which not only ranked high in importance for job entry but its importance also became progressively greater in subsequent phases of employment. Understanding was judged to be extremely important, as noted from its highest-ranking position, for an employee to adjust and advance from a position.

Spelling and Conveyance.--The only two language factors for which the subjects showed a lead over the coworkers, Spelling and Conveyance, were considered of lesser importance for most levels of employment. Spelling, which usually receives major emphasis in a classroom training situation, was viewed as having minor importance for placement purposes by the employees in this study. The importance of Spelling within an employment phase was lower than average, although its importance for certain positions should not be minimized. As indicated by one management representative, a payroll clerk needs spelling to be accurate "because of names" that are involved in handling payroll checks.

An interesting disclosure on the part of several employees was their approach to counteracting a deficiency in spelling. A management executive, for example, relied on his secretary, whom he described as "a better speller than I am." Those faced with the responsibility of effective spelling stressed use of a dictionary to insure

accurate spelling of words which might pose problems, though dictionary usage probably was not so frequent that it in itself posed a problem for an employee. The prevailing attitude expressed by employees in most positions in the study appeared to be that spelling was neither a problem nor an area which warranted much concern for any phase of employment.

Use of Spanish in Employment

Questions were also asked regarding the use of Spanish in employment. The responses revealed a recognition of the need for, value of, and actual usage of bilingual employees in white-collar positions and employment settings.

Requirement for Employment

As shown in Table 15 Spanish was a requirement for some jobs in the study. Bilingual secretaries, for example, were required to use both languages on a verbal as well as a written basis. Spanish as a formal requirement, however, was thought to be stipulated by only a few companies, about three or four of the fifteen. The remaining companies, while not listing Spanish as a formal requirement, appeared to consider it "helpful." Table 15 shows the views of the employees with regard to the use of Spanish in employment.

TABLE 15.--Perceptions of the Use of Spanish in Employment.

Spanish Usage in Employment	Subjects			Coworkers		
	Close to Border (N=6)	Away from Border (N=9)	Total (N=15)	Close to Border (N=6)	Away from Border (N=9)	Total (N=15)
Required for Employment	1	3	4	0	3	3
Not Required, but Helpful	5	6	11	4	5	9
Used in Employment by Bilinguals	6	6	12	5	5	10
Used in Written Communications	2	4	6	0	2	2

Nonrequirement for Employment

The majority of companies viewing Spanish as "helpful" meant that Spanish was used in employment. For example, in a neighborhood department store where the clientele included a large number of Mexican-Americans, both the subject and the Spanish-speaking coworker believed that their jobs, which were managerial, could not be performed satisfactorily without an ability to speak Spanish. Nevertheless, both said that Spanish was not listed formally as a job requirement. Positions such as these were the type which led some of the employees to indicate that "both languages were necessary, if not required," for the jobs they held. Accordingly, from the point of view of the subjects, whereas only four companies required Spanish for their jobs, the remaining eleven companies had situations wherein Spanish was considered "helpful" and was put to actual use.

Use in Employment

Most of the employees, as well as management, agreed about the usage of Spanish on the job. With few exceptions, there was also agreement between the subject and his coworker in a given company relative to the use of Spanish in employment. However, there were some cases where agreement was lacking between the employees' views on the usage of the language in employment, i.e., the subject indicated usage and the coworker indicated that

Spanish was not used on the job. In these cases, there were special reasons to which the lack of agreement may be attributed.

Nonuse in Employment

Spanish was not used by the Mexican-Americans in three companies, as indicated by employees in both ethnic groups. The employees attributed the nonusage of Spanish in their positions to an absence of a Spanish-speaking clientele. No agreement existed between four employees in two companies, where the coworkers indicated that Spanish was not used and the subjects reported that they used Spanish on the job. Hence, on the basis of the subjects' reports which were substantiated by coworkers and management, nonusage of Spanish existed in not more than three companies.

Factor of Location.--The nonusage of Spanish was indicated by employees in banking firms and utility companies located far from the border. In only one case close to the border, a Brownsville utilities company, was there a lack of agreement between the subject and the coworker. In the Brownsville case, the coworker considered Spanish to be unnecessary for a departmental head position.

The factor of location, since nonusage of Spanish was indicated primarily by employees residing away from the border, tended to suggest that Spanish was not used or considered necessary in cities or companies located far

from the border. It is significant to note, however, that usage of Spanish was nevertheless reported by others in these cities, e.g., Houston and Beaumont. This conflicting pattern gave support to attributing the nonusage of Spanish to the nature of the position rather than the minimal concentration of the Spanish-speaking population. The types of positions held by employees in both ethnic groups in some banking firms and utility companies were of such nature that there was no contact with Spanish-speaking clientele, e.g., systems programmers in Beaumont, secretaries in a black neighborhood of Houston, and engineers in Houston.

Factor of Unawareness.--Nonusage of Spanish indicated only by coworkers may be attributed to their own lack of awareness. In the case of one coworker who did not realize there was an occasional need to use Spanish in a Beaumont bank as a result of port trade in the city, this lack of awareness might be attributable to the fact that she was a relatively new employee. The rapport between the subject and the coworker in this particular case was one where certain significant factors should be noted. The subject was the only one in the study who did not use Spanish with her family, except with her father occasionally. She was, however, requested to serve as interpreter with customers from South American countries. This subject demonstrated a degree of reservation over management's

choice of the coworker, expressing strong concern over the failure to select another coworker who not only had worked with her longer but who also might have had more knowledge of her employment background. Regardless of the lack of agreement between their views on the occasional use of Spanish on the job, it appeared that the subject and the coworker in this case had not worked together long enough to have developed an awareness of each other's backgrounds. Even if the coworker was aware of the "port trade," she may have been unaware that the subject spoke some Spanish and was called on to translate under these circumstances.

An expectancy that a Mexican-American spoke Spanish or had a fluency in the language indicated that there was an apparent relationship with the factor of location. Expectancies for the language abilities of the subjects differed according to geographical regions of Texas. In some cities away from the border, such as Beaumont, an impression was given from the reticence found to conclude that a person spoke Spanish even if he was Mexican-American. For that matter, a reticence was sometimes encountered to admit that a person was of Mexican-American heritage. These conclusions were based on the process of deduction and observations which revealed interesting differences with regard to the factor of location.

Such factors as physical appearance, a Spanish-surname, or a Spanish-speaking ability were analyzed by many in an attempt to derive "clues" to a person's

cultural heritage and language abilities. Research on the physical features of Mexican-Americans with regard to views held of Mexican-Americans has been discussed in the literature. Physical features nevertheless can fail to provide effective clues on ethnic identity. Physical features of Mexican-Americans were less distinguishable in a city such as Beaumont, where the population was rich in French and Italian heritages. A mixture of ethnic groups is apt to contain people with physical features which, at best, are hazy guidelines and result in inaccurate classifications.

Instead, surnames were used by some executives as a basis for determining ethnic classifications. One bank executive, for example, a former resident of a region with a high Spanish-speaking population, still had difficulty in his ethnic classifications in Beaumont. He described his hesitancy to conclude that a person was a Mexican-American since it was a case of "appearance not offering any particular clues." He volunteered his reliance on using surnames as a method of identification stating, "If you had not been introduced as (a Spanish surname), I would have had no clue."

Another bank executive strongly insisted that one of the secretaries might not even be bilingual. He said, "In fact, she is married to . . . (Pause) . . . well, her married name is not a Spanish surname." Yet,

the same executive was observed to classify another employee as bilingual without any hesitation.

In cities away from the border, the classification of Mexican-Americans brought to light the additional factor of their percentage of total population. Most Beaumont executives, for example, commented on the city's small Spanish-speaking population. Some executives, having lived in other regions in Texas, drew similar contrasts with the Mexican-American population of Beaumont. All of them expressed uncertainty with regard to their employees having a Spanish-speaking ability. They disclosed an awareness of "Cajuns" and their bilingualism on the job, i.e., French in combination with English. The prevalent uncertainty over an employee having an ability to speak Spanish as well as English was indicated by such statements as "Some may not speak the language," or "I don't know if (the employee) even speaks Spanish."

This tendency toward uncertainty about a person's bilingualism was a marked contrast from the expectancies observed to be held by those living in South Texas. The classification of Mexican-Americans in South Texas, where there is a dense Spanish-speaking population, did not appear to pose the problems faced by those living among the smaller concentrations of Spanish-speaking populations in cities away from the border. With regard to language abilities, in South Texas being a Mexican-American was associated synonymously with a Spanish-speaking ability.

Another case in which the nonusage of Spanish was indicated by the coworker only occurred in a utility company in Brownsville. The subject said that Spanish was useful and the coworker said it was not, but in this case the coworker's response may have been based on his position per se. He, of course, was not expected to use Spanish and he was not aware of the extent to which the subject was expected to use Spanish despite their comparable positions as heads of departments. The subject, for example, might have been faced with an expectancy from his employees, who were largely Mexican-Americans, that he use Spanish when addressing them and also with a need for ensuring effective communication between himself and them. Whether the employees expected the subject to use Spanish or whether he was reluctant to do otherwise in an area where the use of Spanish was frequently expected was not as significant as the results gained through effective communication. The subject's statement that he could "make them work" may have been attributable to his use of Spanish, which unequivocally could have resulted in more effective communication with his men who were not as well fluent in English.

Verbal Communications

The use of Spanish on the job was for the primary purpose of verbal communications. As shown in Table 15, the verbal use of Spanish in employment was indicated by

twenty-two of the thirty employees for direct communication with customers. Employees in both ethnic groups described the verbal usage of Spanish by indicating that many "customers spoke Spanish only" as a result of Mexican trade "from across."¹ This statement, made by a coworker in a Brownsville bank, pointed out the high frequency of Spanish usage in cities close to the border. A subject in a Dallas department store who indicated that "on a few occasions (she translated) for customers from Mexico" undoubtedly spoke Spanish less frequently as a result of living in a city away from the border. Nevertheless, there is a high level of agreement among the employees that Spanish was used on the job in most cities, regardless of their proximity to the border.

Written Communications

Use of Spanish for the purpose of written communications on the job occurred less often than verbal communications. It was in the area of written communications that more coworkers tended to be unaware that the subjects used Spanish. Their lack of awareness was probably justified, given the infrequency with which some subjects were requested to handle written communications in Spanish. For example, a letter written in Spanish

¹A Spanish expression, del otro lado (from across), is common usage for Mexican-Americans to describe a person who comes from Mexico, or "from across" the border.

"sometimes" or "once" by a subject in a San Antonio utility company was understandably not known to the coworker. Yet in another case, a higher frequency of written communications performed by the subject was not known by the coworker. In this Dallas utility company, a secretary, whose Spanish-speaking ability was utilized in her position and recognized by her coworker, also performed written communications of which the coworker had no knowledge. Aided by an English-Spanish dictionary which she kept on her desk, the subject occasionally composed a letter in Spanish or translated a customer's letter written in Spanish.

Mailed Questionnaire Returns

Spanish usage for oral and written purposes on the job was studied for additional companies not included in the case study analyses. Table 16 shows that the use of Spanish on the job was reported by thirty-one, or 66 per cent, of the forty-seven companies responding to the mailed questionnaire. Moreover, these companies reported a continued and continuing need for the use of Spanish by their employees. The use of Spanish was reported by firms in each industry included in the study. However, the use was more prevalent in banks and department stores than in utilities companies, as Table 16 shows. The responses of the companies further indicated the usage of Spanish at that time and projected future need,

TABLE 16.--Spanish Usage in Industries Not Included in Case Studies.

Type of Firm	Number of Firms Which Responded	Number of Firms Which Employed Mexican-Americans	Number of Firms Which Used Spanish in Job Situations
Banks	26	21	19
Utilities	10	5	2
Department Stores	11	11	10
Total	47	37	31

regardless of company location in proximity to or distance from the border. Another interesting point, also illustrated by Table 16, was that only six of the responding companies which employed Mexican-Americans did not use Spanish in job situations. Thirty-seven of the responding companies employed Mexican-Americans, and thirty-one of these indicated that Spanish was used in certain employment situations.

The data obtained in the survey by means of the questionnaire and by telephone and personal interviews with personnel whose companies were not included in the case studies substantiated the views of the employees whose companies comprised the sample of this study. A Spanish-speaking ability was determined to be utilized in industry. Therein lies the existence of a potential special job market which has implications which cannot be ignored by

vocational education and educators concerned with the educational and occupational development of that group of "disadvantaged youth," the Mexican-Americans, by providing for a better utilization of their dual language characteristic.

Summary of Chapter Findings

Certain English language abilities were perceived as playing an important role in employment progress. These language abilities were highly important first for job promotion, then for job entry, and finally for job adjustment purposes. Throughout his employment, however, the prospective applicant for white-collar positions would appear to need to develop certain English language abilities. These include the abilities to comprehend what he reads, to understand instructions, to use correct grammar in his verbal communications, and to develop a varied, selective, and relevant vocabulary.

Some specific language factors warrant attention with regard to the differences in the abilities of the employees and the importance of these abilities for job progress. For example, the subjects' English, relative weaknesses in chosen vocabulary, fluent language usage, and accented speech warrant attention on the part of educators.

Certain language factors were not seen as instrumental for progress in the type of white-collar positions

included in this study. A writing ability and speaking with an accent had lesser importance for employment.

Actual use of Spanish in employment involved both written and verbal communications, although the usage was mostly for verbal purposes. Use of Spanish on the job suggests a possible job market regardless of proximity to the border. The dual language characteristic as it is utilized in industry and as a potential occupational training area needs further exploration on the part of distributive and office educators.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A major reason for this research stemmed both from allegations that Mexican-Americans are faced with language problems in employment situations and assertions that language is a problem for Mexican-Americans in their educational setting. However, there is a literary gap with regard to the language problems which Mexican-Americans may encounter in their employment setting. Consequently, virtually nothing is known about whether bilingualism does in fact impose problems for the employed Mexican-American white-collar worker. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to determine the language problems and to compare the language abilities of Mexican-American white-collar employees with those of non-Mexican-American white-collar employees.

A basic purpose of this research was to determine implications from the findings which would be of value to programs in both bilingual and vocational education. The problems of disadvantaged youth, such as the language problems of Mexican-American students, are of concern to

both of these areas of education. Accordingly, important implications might be derived from determining a labor market which would place the bilingualism of Mexican-Americans in an asset rather than a liability column. Implications derived from employment research may provide insights for educators concerned with the improvement of occupational skills, knowledge, and assimilation of Mexican-Americans, particularly with respect to their language skills and employment.

Procedures for the Study

A case-study approach was selected for this investigation, using a population of white-collar employees within major industries in Texas. Finance, Retail Trade, and Utilities were the three selected industries. Factors of size, labor force characteristics, and geographical distribution were instrumental to the selection of the industries. Six metropolitan areas in Texas served as sites for conducting the field research. Beaumont, Dallas, and Houston were the cities located farthest from the Mexican border; Brownsville, Corpus Christi, and San Antonio were located closest to the Mexican border.

Questionnaires were mailed to 165 companies in the selected cities. The questionnaire was the means by which the field research was initiated. This provided the basis for selecting the companies and employees for the sample

and for scheduling personal interviews in order to collect the data on the employees.

Fifteen companies were selected from the different cities. The finance industry was represented by six banking firms; retail trade by five department stores; and the utilities industry by four firms. Every firm was represented by three employees.

Sample

Forty-five employees in white-collar positions were selected from the companies. Of the forty-five white-collar employees, thirty were employees equally divided between the two ethnic groups, and the remaining fifteen represented management who supervised the employees. The study's participants were of three types: Mexican-Americans, their occupational peers, and the supervisors of these two types. The particular Mexican-Americans, occupational peers, and supervisors who were the subjects of this research were selected on the basis of carefully prescribed characteristics. Mexican-Americans were ones who had a dual language heritage and characteristic, who were employed in white-collar occupations wherein the use of English in one or more of its communication forms was a requisite of the job, and who were at some appreciable level of employment experience or tenure. The occupational peers were ones who were not Mexican-American, who possessed neither a dual language heritage nor a dual

language characteristic, and who were employed in a job situation similar to that of the Mexican-American. Management representatives were employees who were in supervisory capacities over both the Mexican-Americans and their occupational peers.

Collection of Data

The field investigation focused on three categories of data. First, the perceived English language performance abilities of the employees were determined. Second, information was obtained on the importance of the English language abilities relative to the different phases of employment in a white-collar position: placement, adjustment, and advancement. Third, questions on socio-economic, educational, occupational, and language factors were asked for comparative information on the backgrounds of the employees.

Categories of Language Performance.--The different categories of data were collected by a field instrument used in the personal interviews with the participants. The first part, "Language Factors Rating Sheet," included ten language factors which were rated by the participants.

The factors were stated in the following terms:

1. Grammar--Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his oral communications.
2. Vocabulary--Employee utilizes a varied vocabulary which is well chosen and pertinent to his oral communication.

3. Accent--Employee speaks without a noticeable accent.
There is no accent which "sounds different from English."
4. Fluency--Employee gives evidence of being fluent in the use of his English.
5. Conveyance--Employee expresses himself well when giving instructions.
6. Understanding--Employee clearly understands instructions.
7. Spelling--Employee gives evidence of an ability to spell.
8. Reading--Employee demonstrates an ability to comprehend what he reads.
9. Written Grammar--Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his written communications.
10. Composing--Employee has an ability to compose a letter or report which is well organized and coherent.

The data provided by the first part of the instrument were referred to as "perceived English language performance abilities."

The second part of the field instrument was modified to represent "Language Factors Relative to Employment." Each participant was asked first to indicate which of the ten language abilities he considered important

for a person to have in the employment phases of a white-collar position, i.e., which language abilities were considered important in order for a person to enter the particular job held by either the subject or the coworker. Second, the employees were asked to indicate which abilities were important for a person to have in order to be more successful in adjusting to the job and performing the duties of that job. Finally, the abilities which were perceived to be important for a person to have in order to get the best consideration for advancement within or from the particular job were indicated.

Employees' Backgrounds.--The third part of the field instrument, "Data on Employees," was used to obtain information about the background of each employee. Data were obtained with regard to the individual's employment, socioeconomic, cultural, and educational background factors. Under the employment section, for example, questions were asked with regard to occupational level, position, title, work experience, salary, number of dependents, and views on advancement. Questions on age; nativity; residence; and parents' nativity, occupation, and education were included in the socioeconomic-cultural section. The instrument's section on education included questions on the years of school completed, special training, type of work trained for and influence in choice of work, college training, and language training.

Additional questions were asked in the interviews held with Mexican-Americans in order to determine their particular language background and heritage. The data obtained from the third part of the field instrument were referred to as "Background Factors."

Classification of Data in Case Studies

The results of the field investigation were recorded in Case Studies numbered 1 through 15, as found in Appendix C. Each case study contains the tabulated and classified data obtained for the English language performance ratings given on the ten language factors, the emphasis placed on each language factor relative to three different phases of employment, and the personal background factors for each employee.

Language Performance.--Each participant completed two "Language Factors Ratings Sheets" for a total of six ratings in each case study. Each subject rated himself and his coworker, each coworker rated himself and the subject, and the manager rated the subject and the coworker. These data were tabulated and classified to determine how the subjects and the coworkers viewed their respective English language abilities. These ratings were referred to as Self-Images. Ratings were also classified according to how each employee viewed another employee's English language abilities. These ratings were referred to as Peer-Images.

The remaining ratings were grouped to determine how the supervisors perceived each ethnic group's English language abilities. These ratings were referred to as Management-Images.

From this information, comparisons were made between the different points of view for the two groups, the subjects and the coworkers. The language ratings were analyzed as they applied to each ethnic group. Self-images of all subjects, for example, were contrasted with the self-images of all coworkers.

Each language factor was analyzed in terms of each group's performance of that language factor. The opinions of the three participants were combined for each language factor: Self- plus Peer- plus Management-Images. The subjects' perceived performance on each language factor was compared with the coworkers' perceived performance on that language factor. Again, the analysis applied to each ethnic group.

Each language factor also was analyzed relative to its importance for the three different phases of employment. Each participant indicated the importance of the language factor relative to placement, adjustment, and promotion in a job situation. The responses given each language factor were ranked under the corresponding employment phase. The total responses for the language factors were combined to determine their importance for all employment phases.

Employees' Backgrounds.--The employment, socio-economic, and educational data provided a comparative profile on the employees participating in the study. The different factors were grouped and used as descriptive dimensions for each ethnic group.

Language background data were obtained during the personal interviews held with the subjects. Information was obtained on their use of Spanish and English in different settings, and the data were classified with regard to the language patterns of the subjects and their families. All participants in the case studies also provided additional data with regard to the subjects' use of Spanish in employment.

Additional data were obtained by a mailed questionnaire which was sent to companies not participating in the case studies. The questionnaire responses were classified and analyzed relative to the reported use of Spanish in employment.

Findings

The findings were divided into four major categories. These are Background Factors, Perceived English Language Abilities, Importance of Language Factors in Employment, and Use of Spanish in Employment.

Background Factors

Central to the discussion of the language performance data were the insights on the background factors

of the employed Mexican-American white-collar workers with a dual language heritage. Some of these characteristics of each group provided important explanations with regard to the relatively high English language performance ratings of the subjects.

Parents' Backgrounds.--The socioeconomic and cultural factors showed that certain parental characteristics, such as similarities in the nativity and occupational and educational backgrounds of the parents, were common to the employees in the two ethnic groups. Approximately half of the parents in each ethnic group migrated to Texas from other states or countries. All but five subjects came from homes where at least one parent was born in another country. Most employees come from homes where the mothers were not employed outside their homes. With few exceptions, the fathers were in blue-collar occupations. Some of the subjects' fathers, however, were employed as laborers, a level which was not shown for any of the coworkers' parents.

The majority of the parents completed no more than eight years of school. Certain educational levels, e.g., high school level, revealed differences between the employees' parents. Twice as many parents of coworkers as of subjects entered high school. Interestingly, most of the subjects' parents entering high school were those born in another country. Regardless of ethnic identity,

however, the few parents who entered high school completed their work at this level.

Employees' Backgrounds.--For the employees themselves, similar mutual characteristics were found in their educational and occupational backgrounds. The majority of the employees were high school graduates and had completed an average of thirteen years of school. Only three employees were college graduates, and there were four school dropouts. The few employees without special training were those who dropped out of school, all of whom were employed in Retail Trade. A high school diploma and special training were thus major characteristics in the educational backgrounds of the subjects and the coworkers. Training beyond high school was in special programs offered by business or technical schools rather than on the college level.

Most employees performed office and clerical functions in each industry. In some cases, their job functions overlapped their occupational levels. The types of functions performed on a managerial level, for example, overlapped those performed on a technical level. Nevertheless, most of the employees were in Office and Clerical levels, wherein the nature of their functions were primarily clerical-bookkeeping.

The subjects were a relatively younger group than the coworkers. The average age of the subjects was

thirty-four compared to an average age of thirty-nine for the coworkers. It was logical, therefore, that the coworkers had a few more years of employment experience than the subjects. Regardless of ethnic identity, however, a major characteristic of the employees in this sample of white-collar positions was their occupational stability.

The relationship between their training and the positions they held showed additional similarities between the employees. With few exceptions, the employees were in the type of work for which they were trained. Most of the employees had been provided with the type of training needed for their white-collar positions on the post-high school level. Only two of them had acquired office training in their high school programs.

Major influences in their choices of work were described by the employees. The influence of parents showed a marked contrast between the employees. The subjects placed more emphasis on socioeconomic factors such as financial aspects and the security and stability offered by the positions.

Salaries ranged closely for the two groups in the sample. The coworkers, an older and more experienced group, received an annual average differential of \$650 more than did the subjects. Those in positions which required technical or college training received the highest salaries. However, of the five employees whose salaries were over \$10,000, only two were college graduates. The third

college graduate received one of the highest salaries paid a female employee. Her position as bilingual secretary was the only one in the study which required and compensated for bilingual abilities.

The number of years spent in an occupational position with a company indicated a factor of mobility in the occupational positions of eleven out of thirty employees. Positions of greatest mobility were those of most employees in utilities and of one-third of the employees, all females, in finance. There was no mobility or change in the occupational positions for the majority of employees in Retail Trade.

The employees' views of advancement were influenced by several factors. In most cases, favorable views of advancement were based on salary increments rather than on upward mobility from the present position. The employee's interest and his age were other factors which influenced advancement. Some employees indicated a strong reaction to promotions that would move them into different lines of work. Moving into administrative positions was viewed by some employees as a remote possibility or with disinterest. Most recognized that their qualifications or age were limiting factors for line promotions.

Language Backgrounds.--Language patterns of training and usage were reported by the subjects and their parents. Both generations began school with the basic characteristic

of speaking Spanish. Although there were a few exceptions, neither generation had language abilities in English prior to entering school. Five subjects did, however, differ from their parents' generation by entering school with some ability to speak English. Most of these subjects lived in cities with a lower concentration of Spanish-speaking population, came from homes where the fathers were natives of Mexico, had dropped out of school, and were employed in Retail Trade. Hence, the one-third of the subjects who did enter school with some English-speaking ability revealed a pattern with regard to their location, parents' nativity, and employment positions.

The greatest difference between the two generations was shown by the relationship between their English language training and usage. The subjects, with more years of school completed, not only had more English but also more Spanish training than their parents. Most of the subjects' parents had more training in English than in Spanish. The few parents without English training nevertheless had some ability to read and speak English.

Residence and occupational roles, rather than language training alone, influenced the parents' use of English. The parents living away from the Mexican border, for example, used English to a greater extent than parents living close to the border. Regardless of the language training in the parents' backgrounds, their language usage pattern was one of adherence to the Spanish language.

Spanish was used exclusively in the homes of half of the subjects. Only Spanish was usually used when communicating with each other and was used in all cases when communicating with grandparents. Using Spanish exclusively was in deference to one of the parents not speaking English.

The extent to which English was used depended largely upon the family members involved in the verbal communications. The subjects differed from their parents by using English when communicating with their spouses and children. It is important to note, however, that their exclusive use of English with any family member was rare. English was used in all cases by the subjects with their spouses and children but it was generally combined with Spanish.

Perceived English Language Abilities

The perceived language performance abilities were relatively high for the two ethnic groups. The subjects, ranking somewhat lower, nevertheless were perceived as being capable of performing adequately the nine comparable language factors. The language abilities of the subjects and the coworkers were determined by a comparative analysis of self-, peer-, and management-ratings for all cases.

Differences between the two ethnic groups for the percentages with which they "almost always" performed the

language factors, are small. The English language performance of the two ethnic groups, as reflected by self-, peer-, and management-ratings, revealed the following differences:

1. The largest and most meaningful difference was shown by the peer-ratings. The lowest rating received by the subjects was that from their coworkers.
2. Management-ratings, the highest of all views held for each ethnic group, showed the second largest difference, again in favor of the coworkers.
3. Self-ratings were more comparable for subjects and coworkers than any other type of rating. Self-images showed the smallest difference between the English language abilities of the two groups.

In the comparisons made between each type of rating, i.e., management- versus management-ratings, peer- versus peer-ratings, and self- versus self-ratings, it was found that the English language abilities of the two ethnic groups were comparable, with very small differences in favor of the coworkers.

Self-Images.--When compared with the other perceptions in all cases, self-images provided additional insights on the two groups. The subjects' self-images of English language abilities revealed the following:

1. The employee's self-image compared to how management saw him showed little discrepancy between the two ratings for the subjects.
2. The employee's self-image compared to how his peer saw him showed that the subject's self-image was higher than the coworker's image of him.
3. The employee's self-image compared to how both management and peers saw him showed that the subject's self-image was higher than the other two ratings.

The coworkers' self-images of their English language abilities revealed the following:

1. The employee's self-image compared to how management saw him showed that the coworker's self-image was lower than the manager's image of him.
2. The employee's self-image compared to how his peer saw him showed that the coworker's self-image was lower than the subject's image held of him.
3. The employee's self-image compared to how both management and peers saw him showed that the coworker's self-image was lower than the other two ratings.

Self-images compared with ratings given to peers revealed the following:

1. The employee's self-image compared to how he saw his peer showed that the subject's self-image was lower than the image he had of his peer (coworker).
2. The employee's self-image compared to how he saw his peer showed that the coworker's self-image was higher than the image he had of his peer (subject).

Peer-Images.--With few exceptions, the comparability in English language abilities applied to the two ethnic groups regardless of their residence. However, the factor of residence showed a larger difference between the perceived English language abilities of those living close to the border. The major difference previously discussed with regard to the employees' views of each other's language abilities (Peer- versus Peer-Images) was highlighted by the peer-images of the subjects and coworkers living close to the border. Close to the border, the language abilities of the subjects were lower than the coworkers' English language performance ratings (differential of -15.22). Peer-images were more reciprocal, however, for employees living away from the border.

Another deviation was shown by the coworkers living away from the border when their self-ratings were compared with the ratings they gave to the subjects. The coworkers located farthest from the border did not perceive their own performances as higher than they perceived the performances of the subjects. Instead, these coworkers viewed the

language abilities of their peers, the subjects, as comparable to their own.

Individual Language Factors.--The perceived abilities for each language factor, in terms of average and range of scores, were relatively high and showed only minor differences. The employees' mean score for the nine comparable individual language factors was 90.6, an average which also represented the mode and median. A comparison of the two ethnic groups revealed that most subjects' ratings were below 90.6 and most coworkers' ratings were above 90.6 in their individual English language abilities. The range of scores, however, for both the subjects and the coworkers on the individual language factors were relatively close. The percentage of ratings on which the subjects "almost always" performed an individual language factor ranged from 85.2 to 92.6; the coworkers' range was from 87.5 to 95.3. The intervals of 7.4 for the subjects compared with 7.8 for the coworkers illustrate the comparability of scores which applied to each of nine language factors. However, in the analysis of individual language factors which included Accent, there was a lowering from 85.2 to 79.2 in the range of scores for the subjects. Vocabulary, for example, with a score of 85.2 was the lowest of the nine comparable factors for the subjects, but their Accent score of 79.2 was the lowest when all

ten factors were included. In either instance, the lowest score was for a verbal language factor.

The scores on each language factor were ranked for each ethnic group. Reading ranked highest, Spelling ranked second highest, and Grammar ranked third highest of the language factors for the subjects. The language factors for the coworkers showed Reading ranking highest, Written Grammar ranking second highest, and Fluency ranking third highest.

The percentage points of difference between each language factor showed some small differences between the abilities of each ethnic group. Reading, for example, was the language factor which ranked first for both the subjects and the coworkers. However, the subjects were 2.7 percentage points lower in their perceived reading abilities than the coworkers. The percentage points of difference thus showed that the subjects' relative strength in reading was less than that of their coworkers.

When the perceived English language abilities were compared on a factor by factor basis, the subjects were relatively lower on all but two language factors. Their lowest English language abilities were for the factors of Fluency and Vocabulary. However, even though the subjects were 7.6 percentage points lower than the coworkers in Fluency, they were rated as 86.7 per cent on "almost always" speaking fluently. Even the subjects' lowest comparable factor rating, 85.2 per cent received in

Vocabulary, was in the mid-eighties. The relative strengths of the subjects were Spelling and Conveyance, the only factors in which they were given higher ratings than their coworkers.

Importance of Language Factors in Employment

The participants evaluated each job stage for which the various language factors were considered important. The results were based on the percentage of the forty-five people who indicated positive responses for each factor in each employment phase. Out of 450 possible responses (forty-five people marking ten factors = $45 \times 10 = 450$), a total of 254 responses, or 56.4 per cent, were given for the Placement phase. The language factors received less emphasis relative to Adjustment than for either of the other two employment phases. The ten factors received 240 responses, or 53.3 per cent. The greatest emphasis was placed on the language factors relative to Promotion, with a total of 339 positive responses, or 75.1 per cent, given to all the factors.

The emphasis given each employment phase varied according to the categories of participants. The subjects considered language abilities to be more vital in order to get placed in their jobs than did their coworkers and the managers. In the Adjustment phases, no pattern was evident in the responses of the subjects, coworkers, and

managers. The coworkers placed relatively more emphasis on the language factors for the Promotion phase.

The participants emphasized the importance of each language factor for all employment phases. If the forty-five people had given positive responses relative to the importance of a language factor for Placement and Adjustment and Promotion, the total for that factor across the three employment phases would have been 135 ($45 \times 3 = 135$). The language factors were ranked according to percentages of responses which each received out of the 135 possible.

Four language factors were considered most important for all phases of employment: (1) Reading; (2) Understanding; (3) Grammar; and (4) Vocabulary. The factor of Reading received the highest overall percentage of responses with 73.3 per cent of the maximum possible. With the exception of Reading, the language factors receiving the most emphasis for all phases of employment were classified as verbal factors. Two language factors given the least emphasis for all phases of employment were Composing and Accent.

The ranked importance of the language factors varied between the analysis for all phases and separate analysis for each employment phase. Reading, for example, ranked first in importance in the overall analysis but second in importance for each employment phase. Verbal Grammar, third highest of all factors for the three phases together, was highest for Job Entry alone.

The emphasis given each language factor for all phases varied for each category of participant. The subjects placed more emphasis on Understanding, the coworkers on Reading, and management on Fluency for all phases of employment. Fluency, as emphasized by management, was the only one not included in the four most important language factors for all employment phases.

Use of Spanish in Employment

Responses to questions regarding the use of Spanish in employment revealed a need for, value in, and actual usage of bilingual employees in white-collar positions within different employment settings. Use of Spanish in employment was reported by companies included in the case studies and also by other companies not included in these analyses. The majority of the participants from the case study companies indicated that the subjects used Spanish in their white-collar positions. Also, use of Spanish on the job was reported by thirty-one, or 66 per cent, of the forty-seven companies responding to the mailed questionnaire. Of the fifty-two companies which employed Mexican-Americans, only nine indicated that Spanish was not used in job situations.

A Spanish-speaking ability was used in firms in each industry included in the study. However, the use was more prevalent in banks and department stores than in utilities companies. Spanish-speaking employees used the

language primarily for verbal communications with customers. Usage of Spanish at the time of the study and a projected need were indicated regardless of proximity to the Mexican border.

Conclusions

Background Factors

Underlying the life-time patterns of the employees were certain major characteristics which they had in common. More similarities than differences existed for the employees with regard to their age, education, and employment experience.

Both groups of employees showed some generation gaps between themselves and their parents. Generation gaps existed between the subjects and their parents with regard to education, occupations, nativity, language training, and to some extent language usage. Generation gaps existed between the coworkers and their parents with regard to education and occupations.

Certain occupational and educational background factors were characteristic of the employees' parents. Both groups of employees had surpassed the achievement of their parents. The occupational achievement of their parents also was surpassed by the employees. The span was wider for the subjects, however, than it was for the coworkers. The subjects' white-collar positions were a marked departure from the parents' employment, which clustered from the middle downward on the occupational

ladder. Hence, the subjects showed relatively greater occupational achievement than the coworkers. The subjects had been assimilated to a much greater extent in mainstream American culture than had their parents.

Underlying the life-time patterns of the employees were certain major characteristics which were not common to the employees in the two ethnic groups. A major contrast between the subjects and the coworkers was shown, for example, for the nativity of their parents. The coworkers in the study represented a second generation of native-born Americans. The subjects represented a generation which, unlike that of their parents, was a first native-born generation of Mexican-Americans.

The nativity element of parents was discussed in the literature in relation to occupational achievement. Higher occupational achievement has been shown by Mexican-Americans whose parents were born in another country than has been shown by Mexican-Americans whose parents were natives of this country. This study substantiated that the nativity element of the parents was an influential factor in the occupational achievement of the subjects.

The English language training and, in particular, the language usage patterns of the parents provided a major contrast between the subjects and the coworkers. The dual language heritage characterized the subjects and their parents in this study, with both generations maintaining their dual language characteristic.

Perceived English Language Abilities

The differences between the English language performance abilities of the two groups of employees were less than might have been expected. The coworkers, as practitioners of one language all their lives for personal and professional purposes, would have been expected to demonstrate a relatively high level of English abilities, and the perceptions of these abilities agreed with such an expectation. The language performance abilities demonstrated by the subjects were much greater than expected, however. The literature is replete with the academic underachievement, e.g., on tests and language, of Mexican-American students compared to the achievement of other students. The subjects, however, as practitioners of their inherited dual language characteristic, demonstrated considerably greater English language performance abilities than predicted from the literature.

One explanation for the comparably high English language performance of the two ethnic groups was based on their comparative profiles. Comparabilities in such background characteristics as age, education, and occupational experience provided factors to which their high performance of English language abilities may have been linked. These factors were remarkably close and depicted a picture of white-collar employees whose ethnic identities became almost indistinguishable.

The results of the analysis of the English language performance abilities of the subjects in this study cannot, of course, be interpreted as a general application for the entire Spanish-speaking population. The factor of location, for example, showed some variances in the general applications made for the ethnic groups included in this study. The literature also emphasizes the individual variances within the Spanish-speaking population.

Self-Images.--The pattern revealed by the self-images is unlike what was expected for each group of employees. The coworkers in this study had a relatively low self-image of their English language performance abilities. The subjects, however, viewed their English language performance abilities with a relatively high self-image.

The coworkers' low self-image compared to the subjects' high image raised the question of whether or not the self-image of these ethnic groups fell into employment-based norms. An employment pattern, for example, was reported by a personnel executive interviewed for the study. He reported on results of employment tests and other evaluative systems used in his company. It was a very large company in a city with a very small Spanish-speaking population. According to their statistical data, most employees rated themselves lower than management rated

them. The personnel executive indicated that the only time employees rated themselves higher was when their salary was involved. If the statistical data in this company is suggestive of a norm, the coworkers may fall within such an employment norm, while the subjects may vary from an employment norm. Accordingly, the implications are many with regard to continued research on self-images of employees at different occupational levels.

Self-images, on the other hand, provided a most meaningful piece of information about the subjects. The subjects' high self-image may be viewed as an unexpected image. A low image has been cited frequently as a characteristic of Mexican-Americans in the literature. Low images often receive treatment with regard to the language problems of Mexican-American students. If a low image is related to English language difficulties, it seems reasonable to assume that the subjects in this study were an assured group since their perceived English language abilities were relatively high.

Peer-Images.--The differences between the peer-images were much greater than was expected, particularly with regard to the factor of location. That the English language abilities of the subjects were viewed lowest by their peers was in accordance with expectations. That the co-workers' English language abilities were viewed highest

by their peers was also predictable. This pattern poses major questions, however. It is possible that the co-workers' image of the subjects was substantially valid and that there was indeed a language problem in the performance of the subjects. Certainly the attitudes and expectations of both groups need further conceptual development.

Individual Language Factors.--The dual language characteristic of the subjects did not affect their English language performance. Their performance on particular language factors, however, provided insight on how bilingualism can promote and mitigate problems for a bilingual employee.

Three verbal factors--Vocabulary, Fluency, and Accent--may be regarded as problem areas for the subjects. Their designation was based on the ranked differences between the employees' abilities on these factors and on the ranked importance of these language factors in the three phases of white-collar employment.

Vocabulary is an area for possible improvement because it was the second highest differential between the subjects and the coworkers and was considered highly important for entering and advancing in a white-collar position. The other two verbal language factors, Fluency and Accent, were considered less critical than Vocabulary. The subjects showed low scores in Fluency and Accent with substantially large differences in their abilities to

perform these factors compared to the coworkers' performance, but the roles of these language factors were seen as being of lesser importance in any employment phase.

Accent was perceived to be neither a problem nor a factor of importance in the white-collar positions. The selected Mexican-Americans employed in white-collar positions spoke English with an accent, but this did not impair their satisfactory job performance. However, the accent of the subjects may have contributed to the coworkers' low image of them.

Importance of Language Factors in Employment

Certain English language abilities were identified as being of major importance in order for an employee to perform his job satisfactorily. A student as a prospective job applicant is expected to have an ability to comprehend what he reads, to understand the instructions which he receives, to use correct grammar in his verbal conversations, and to use words which have variety, selectivity, and relevance to his verbal conversations.

In addition to the four most important language abilities for all stages of employment, an applicant should be concerned with an ability to use English fluently in order to enter a position and, along with an ability to write grammar correctly, in order to adjust in a position. Advancement from a position, however, would not tend to require additional abilities other than the initial four

most important ones. With the recognition that the satisfactory performance of the language factors is basic to the prospective as well as the aspiring white-collar employee, special consideration needs to be given the language factors for which an employee shows relative weakness.

Use of Spanish in Employment

Bilingualism had an important role in the employment setting of the Mexican-Americans. Bilingual employees were found to be needed and utilized in white-collar positions within different employment settings. If factors of language promoted problems in the employment of Mexican-Americans, it is significant to recognize that the dual language abilities nevertheless provided extra benefits for the firms who employed them.

Spanish was needed in certain positions included in this study in order for the subjects to perform those jobs satisfactorily. An ability to speak Spanish on the job had a more influential role than was expected for some of the positions in the study. An ability to speak Spanish practically took precedence over English language usage in department stores where the clientele was Spanish-speaking.

Salaries did not compensate the employees' use of Spanish on the job unless its use was specified as a requirement. Noncompensation for use of the language on the job has been substantiated by the literature. The

few companies specifying Spanish as a formal requirement for certain jobs, e.g., bilingual secretary, compensated for the use of two languages. Salaries were twice as high for such jobs in those firms which specified Spanish as a formal requirement.

The supply of qualified bilingual secretaries is very limited. Therefore, the need for a bilingual secretary poses recruitment problems for executives in firms located in cities farthest from the border. Mexican-Americans are not in the competitive market for bilingual secretarial positions. Some limiting factors are their lack of formal training in Spanish and the lack of properly-developed skills, particularly for purposes of written communications.

Recommendations and Implications

The importance of certain language factors for the satisfactory performance of a job suggests implications for teaching. Classroom objectives should be formulated and implemented first to develop language abilities which the students will use throughout their employment. Students need instruction which will develop their abilities in reading comprehension; understanding instructions; using correct grammar in verbal communications; and using words which provide a variety, selectivity, and relevancy to their verbal conversations.

Secondly, classroom objectives should be formulated and implemented to develop language abilities which the students will use in certain levels of employment. The student needs to be fluent in the use of his English for entry level purposes. His fluency, together with an ability to write correct grammar, will be needed for satisfactory adjustment in the job.

Vocational educators need to conduct task analyses of positions for which the students are receiving their training. Classroom instruction should be based on the results of such task analyses. For example, the type of functions performed in most of the office and clerical positions which were included in this study do not offer very many opportunities for students to use their writing abilities. The ability to write and to spell would thus be of lesser importance for satisfactory job performance.

The implication is not that classroom teachers need to ignore the development of their students' writing and spelling abilities. Instead, the implication is that the appropriate emphasis needs to be placed on various classroom activities, particularly writing. Teachers need to recognize that a lack of writing abilities will not necessarily impair satisfactory job performance. In the overall occupational preparation of students, however, it is recommended that classroom objectives be developed to provide more emphasis on verbal communication abilities.

The subjects' performance on certain language factors provides insight on how bilingualism can promote and mitigate problems for a bilingual employee. There is need for an educational approach which enables the student to express himself verbally on that which is familiar to him first and then gradually on that which is unfamiliar to him. Occupational positions, i.e., receptionist, should be used as avenues to create more activities for extemporaneous speech.

Instruction should emphasize the relationship between fluency and vocabulary development. Activities should enable the students to develop fluent use of English and to analyze the variety, selectivity, and relevancy of the words they choose in their conversations. It is recommended that occupational training be designed to provide Mexican-American students with more opportunity to express themselves verbally.

The images of the subjects as viewed by their peers provide implications for business teacher education. Students' images of each others' abilities pose a responsibility for business teachers. There is need to recognize that peer influence, whether detrimental or favorable, has far more impact on students than teacher influence alone. Therefore, existing weaknesses of students, as determined by peers, should receive the attention of business teachers in their classroom instruction.

The conceptual and attitudinal development of students poses an additional responsibility for business teachers. Information about different cultures should be incorporated as an interdisciplinary approach in the business training of students. Human relations, a standard area of instruction in an office practice course, should be used as an avenue to introduce cross-cultural concepts and viewpoints.

The field investigation in this study revealed an underutilization of personnel who are actually employed in bilingual occupations. A need for bilingual employees warrants major consideration in the occupational training provided by vocational education programs. Instruction in a vocational education program is designed to provide students with necessary skills and knowledge which will prepare them for different occupations. English language training is a major component in the instructional program. If, however, the use of Spanish is needed to perform a large percentage of job activities, training in this language as well is important.

There is need to continue implementing bilingual education programs under the auspices of the business and distributive education fields. It is recommended that business educators enlist the aid of personnel who are experienced in combining language and business skills in their international business scenes.

There is a shortage of instructional materials designed for providing bilingual occupational training. It is recommended that task analysis and other occupational studies be conducted to determine the types of functions, problems skills, and knowledge needed in bilingual occupations. For example, a bilingual secretary's position should be analyzed to determine the necessary skills and knowledge, such as in shorthand and transcription. Positions such as those of a bilingual secretary or a sales clerk in a department store are but a few which offer research possibilities. The results derived from such research studies could be utilized for developing and designing materials for bilingual instruction.

Studies should be made in an employment setting to compare the language abilities of students from different ethnic groups. More information is needed on the language performance abilities of students who are on the job. It is recommended that vocational education students in cooperative training programs be considered as avenues for conducting research in an employment setting.

Finally, continued research is needed on the Spanish-speaking population with regard to their cultural characteristics as related to their occupational characteristics. The element of group unity or team effort often observed among members within an ethnic group raises questions for additional research on the Spanish-speaking culture. Research might focus on determining whether group

unity rather than individuality prevails in the work patterns of a minority group and whether members from a minority group help each other when completing tasks in an employment setting as they are often observed to help each other in a cultural setting.

Concluding Remarks

The Mexican-American shares with the American Indian the characteristic of a culturally imposed dual language characteristic. Within the broader definitional construct the Chicano is bilingual, as are the other subcultural Americans, e.g., German-Americans, Italian-Americans, French-Americans, and Norwegian-Americans. Regardless of ethnic identity, students with a dual language characteristic pose many challenges to education with regard to their occupational preparation.

The results derived from this pilot study can contribute to the development of a model for studying the language performance of other minority groups. The better utilization of the advantages of a student's dual heritage and particular bilingualism may be a very essential approach for educators to consider. The simultaneous development of language abilities may pave a student's way to greater occupational abilities. Occupational instruction which utilizes an existing dual language characteristic may well improve a student's ability to achieve more equitable economic fulfillment.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE SELECTION

1. Personnel Interviewed
2. Map of Texas
3. Letter Requesting Participation
4. Questionnaire

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE SELECTION

Personnel Interviewed

Educational Sources

Miss Lee Brown
Coordinator in
Office Education
Dallas Public Schools
Dallas, Texas

Mrs. Maxine Emory
State Representative--VOE
Texas Education Agency
Corpus Christi, Texas

Dr. Dennis B. Ford, Dean
School of Business
Administration
Texas A & I University
Kingsville, Texas

Mr. Everett Fuller
Director of VOE
Texas Education Agency
Austin, Texas

Dr. Severo Gomez*
Director of Bilingual
Education
Texas Education Agency
Austin, Texas

Dr. Herschel T. Manuel
Professor of Educational
Psychology
College of Education
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas

Dr. George I. Sanchez
Professor of Latin American
Education
College of Education
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas

Mr. Juan Rivera
Mrs. Marta Coteria
Bilingual Education Program
Southwest Educational Develop-
ment Corp.
Austin, Texas

Dr. J. G. Umstattd
Professor of Curriculum and
Instruction
College of Education
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas

*Telephone communication.

Employment Sources

Hector Garcia, M.D.
 Founder of GI Forum;
 Board of Directors
 (Operation SER)
 Ambassador to United Nations
 Corpus Christi, Texas

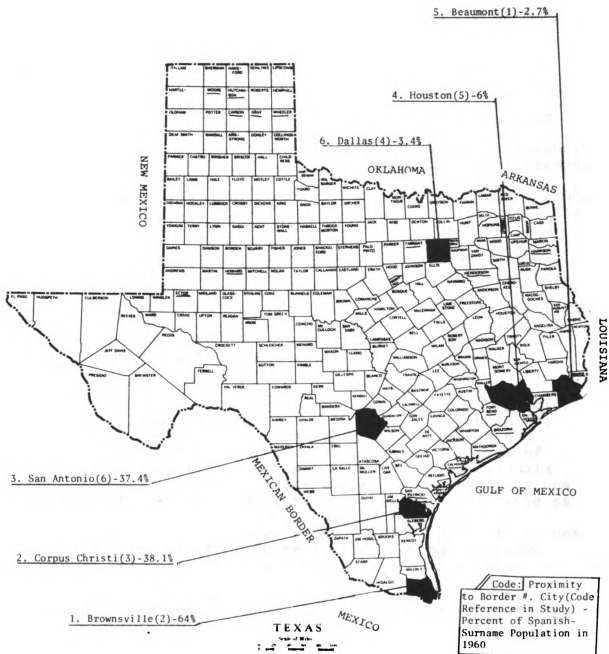
Miss Lydia Garza, Secretary
 Jobs for Progress
 (Operation SER)
 Corpus Christi, Texas

Mr. J. A. Gonzalez, Attorney
 Legal Aid
 Economic Opportunity Com-
 mission
 Corpus Christi, Texas

Dr. M. B. Hernandez
 Assistant Director
 Equal Employment Opportunity
 Commission
 Austin, Texas

Dr. Mietzl Miller, Director
 U.S. Government Research
 Project on Employment
 Patterns
 Lamar University
 Beaumont, Texas

Mr. Al Torrez
 Minority Groups Representative
 Texas Employment Commission
 Austin Texas



3296 Willowood Drive
Beaumont, Texas 77703
July 1, 1969

Dear Sirs:

Currently I am a candidate for the doctoral degree from Michigan State University completing research on my dissertation. My major area is in business and distributive education with particular emphasis on the bilingual person.

I should like to request your aid to participate in a study on language factors relative to the job performance of the white-collar employee who is bilingual. Management and employees will be asked to rate and determine specific factors in the English language which influence various stages of a white-collar job. The study includes several Texas cities located near to and away from the Texas-Mexico border. A major objective is to determine critical language factors, faced by the Spanish-surname bilingual employee residing in different parts of the state, which may provide guidelines in the teaching of bilingual students in future vocational education programs.

A certain number of employees will be selected to participate in the language study on the basis of criteria set for the study. Bilinguals who speak both English and Spanish will be selected for a comparative analysis of their language performance on the job with monolinguals who speak only English. Their white-collar positions and tenure with your organization, for example, will serve as criteria. Although the actual use of more than one language on the job will be given consideration, it is not necessarily a criterion in selecting a Spanish-surname employee to represent your organization and industry.

During July I will be in your city to try to set up interviews should your employees, if selected, be willing to participate in the study. During the interviews I am interested in seeing how you rate the language performance of both the bilingual employee and his co-worker; how your bilingual rates himself and his co-worker; and how his co-worker rates his own language situation as well as that of the bilingual employee.

It is my hope that you will be able to share some of your busy time with me for this research which can assist business educators in curriculum development. Since time is a factor of concern to you and also to me in my desire to complete the field work, I shall appreciate very much your returning the requested information in the stamped, self-addressed envelope. The return would be most helpful in my planning even if you do not check any, or only a few of the items. Thank you so much for the cooperation which you are able to offer.

Sincerely,

Nelda C. Garcia

Enclosures

Basic Information

(Please place a checkmark in the appropriate blanks.)

BUSINESS AND LOCATION

1. ☐ FINANCE: ☐ National; ☐ State; ☐ Other
2. ☐ RETAIL TRADE: ☐ Chain; ☐ Conventional; ☐ Other
3. ☐ UTILITY: ☐ Gas; ☐ Electric; ☐ Telephone; ☐ Other
4. ☐ Beaumont; ☐ Brownsville; ☐ Corpus Christi;
☐ Dallas; ☐ Houston; ☐ San Antonio

EMPLOYEES

5. Does your organization have any employees with a Spanish surname in white-collar jobs? ☐ Yes; ☐ No.

If "Yes," please check occupational category below and indicate, if possible, how many in each occupational category:

☐ Professional; ☐ Technical; ☐ Managers; ☐ Office and Clerical; ☐ Sales; ☐ Craftsmen; ☐ Operatives; ☐ Service Workers; ☐ Laborers; ☐ Other (Specify): _____

6. Do your employees have occasion to use their Spanish on the job? ☐ Yes; Reasons: ☐ For use with customers; ☐ For written communications. ☐ No.
7. Do you anticipate future need for employees to use Spanish on the job? ☐ Yes; Reasons: ☐ For use with customers; ☐ For written communications. ☐ No.

RESEARCH PARTICIPATION

8. Would your organization consent to brief personal interviews being held with the following personnel provided a time can be conveniently arranged?

A bilingual white-collar employee? ☐ Yes; ☐ No.

A monolingual co-worker of the bilingual employee?
☐ Yes; ☐ No.

A manager or supervisor of both the bilingual employee and his co-worker? ☐ Yes; ☐ No.

9. Would your organization be willing to obtain the consent of the bilingual employee and his co-worker to participate in the study? ___Yes; ___No.
10. Would you provide the name and title of the person whom I can contact in your organization?

(Name

(Position and Title)

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENTS

1. Language Factors Rating Sheet
2. Language Factors Relative to
Employment Phases
3. Data on Employees

APPENDIX B
INSTRUMENTS

Language Factors Rating Sheet

Language Factors	Yes			No
	Almost Always	Frequently	Occasionally	Rarely
1. <u>GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF ORAL COMMUNICATION</u> -- Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his oral communications.				
2. <u>APPROPRIATENESS OF VOCABULARY</u> --Employee utilizes a varied vocabulary which is well chosen and pertinent to his oral communication.				
3. <u>ACCENT</u> --Employee speaks without a noticeable accent. (There is no accent which "sounds different from English.")				
4. <u>FLUENCY IN ENGLISH</u> --Employee gives evidence of being fluent in the use of his English.				
5. <u>CLEAR CONVEYANCE OF INSTRUCTION</u> --Employee expresses himself well when giving instructions.				
6. <u>CLEAR UNDERSTANDING OF INSTRUCTION</u> --Employee expresses himself well when receiving instructions.				
7. <u>SPELLING</u> --Employee gives evidence of an ability to spell.				
8. <u>READING</u> --Employee demonstrates an ability to comprehend what he reads.				
9. <u>GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATIONS</u> -- Employee uses correct grammatical structure in his written communications.				
10. <u>COMPOSING A LETTER/REPORT</u> --Employee has an ability to compose a letter or report which is well organized and coherent.				

Language Factors Relative to Employment Phases

Which of the following language abilities do you feel a person should have in order to [(A), (B), (C)-?]
 (A) PLACEMENT--receive the best consideration to be employed initially for the job of a(n) _____?
 (B) ADJUSTMENT--be the most successful in his adjustments to the job and for the performances of the duties of a(n) _____?
 (C) ADVANCEMENT--get the best consideration for advancement (e.g., pay raises) in the job of a(n) _____ or for a
 promotion to a higher level position?

Language Abilities	Employment Phases		
	(A) PLACEMENT	(B) ADJUSTMENT	(C) ADVANCEMENT
1. Usage of correct grammar in oral communications.			
2. A varied, appropriate, and well chosen vocabulary in oral communications.			
3. A speaking ability in English which does not reflect an accent from another language.			
4. Fluency in the use of the English language.			
5. Clear expressions of instructions.			
6. Clear comprehension of instructions.			
7. Correct spelling.			
8. Good reading comprehension.			
9. Usage of correct grammatical structure in written communications.			
10. Ability to compose letters/reports that are clear, well organized, coherent.			

Data on Employee

Subject: Industry No. _____ Company No. _____ SMSA _____ Employee No. _____

Ethnic Group: Non-Spanish-surname: Male _____ Female _____
Spanish-surname: Male _____ Female _____

Employment Background

1. Occupational Level: Professional _____ Technical _____ Managerial _____ Clerical _____ Sales _____
2. Position and Title: _____
3. Area: Office Education _____ Distributive Education _____
Less than 3 months _____ From 3 months to 1 year _____ Over 1 year _____
From 1 to 2 years _____ From 3 to 4 years _____ Over 5 years _____
5. Experience (Cumulative):
In same type of position as one currently held:
Less than 6 months _____ From 6 months to 1 year _____ Over 1 year _____
From 1 to 2 years _____ From 3 to 4 years _____ Over 5 years _____
In previous positions different from one currently held:
Less than 6 months _____ From 6 months to 1 year _____ Over 1 year _____
From 1 to 2 years _____ From 3 to 4 years _____ Over 5 years _____
6. Employment Phase: Placement _____ Adjustment _____ Promotion _____
7. Salary: \$3,000-3,999 _____ \$4,000-4,999 _____ \$5,000-5,999 _____ \$6,000-6,999 _____ \$7,000 _____
8. Number of Persons Supported by Salary: 1-2 Persons _____ 3-4 Persons _____ 5-6 Persons _____ 7-8 Persons _____ 9 Persons _____
9. Chances for Advancement: Very Good _____ Good _____ Not Very Good _____ Poor _____

Socio-Economic-Cultural Background

1. Age:	25 and under	26-29	30-39	40-49	50 and over
2. Nativity:	Texas	U.S.	Mexico	Other	
3. Current Residence:	Less than 6 months	6 months to 1 year	From 1-5 years	From 6-10 years	10 years and over
4. Parents:	Nativity: Texas	U.S.	Mexico	Other	
Occupation:	Professional and Technical	Mother	Father		
	Managers				
	Office and Clerical				
	Sales				
	Craftsmen				
	Operatives				
	Service Workers				
	Laborers				
	Other (Specify)				
Education:	Years of School Completed:				
	0-4 years				
	5-8 years				
	9-11 years				
	12 years				
	13-15 years				
	16-18 years				
	High School Diploma				
	Technical School				
	Trade School				
	Armed Forces				
	Adult Evening Classes				
	Other (Specify)				
	College Degree: Formal Training Received				
	In English				
	In Spanish				

Educational Background

1. Years of School Completed: 5-8 years ___ 9-11 years ___ 12 years ___ 13-15 years ___ 16-18 years ___
2. High School Diploma: Yes ___ No ___
3. Special Training: Technical School ___ Trade School ___ Armed Forces ___ Adult Evening Classes ___ Other Specify) ___
4. Kind of Work Trained For: Professional ___ Technical ___ Managers ___ Office/Clerical ___ Sales ___
5. Major Influence in Choice of Life's Work: Financial Aspects ___ Social Prestige ___ Security and Stability ___ Interest in Work ___
Training and Education ___ Parents: Mother ___ Father ___
6. College Degree: Yes ___ No ___
Type: Associate ___ Bachelors ___ Masters ___ Doctorate ___
Major: Business ___ Liberal Arts ___ Other ___
7. Language Training: Formal Training Received in English:
Yes ___ No ___
Years: 2-4 ___ 4 and over ___
8. Language Training: Formal Training Received in Spanish:
Yes ___ No ___
Years: 1-2 ___ 3 and over ___

Employment Background (Con't.)

- SES Background (Con't.)

Parents at the present time have:

Employee's parents use Spanish:

With parents (Employee's grandparents)

Employee's parents use English:

With parents (See above)

[illegible]

APPENDIX C

CASE STUDY SUMMARIES

APPENDIX C

CASE STUDY SUMMARIES

Key to Case Studies

Language Performance

Ratings of Subject and of Coworker:

S = Rating by subject	4 = Almost Always
C = Rating by coworker	3 = Frequently
M = Rating by manager	2 = Occasionally
	1 = Rarely
	0 = Never
	U = Unknown*

Employment Phases

Ratings by Subject, Coworker, Manager, and Total (composite of all three):

A = Placement	1 = Factor rated as
B = Adjustment	important
C = Promotion	

*Language factor removed from total language factors.

CASE STUDY 1

Industry	Finance	City	Beaumont	Subject Reference	Case Study 1: F-1(1)	Employment Phases																	
						Language Performance						Employment Phases											
						Subject			Coworker			Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total		
						S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A
1.	Grammar	4	4	3	11	4	4	2	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	4	1	1	4	
2.	Vocabulary	2	4	4	10	3	4	2	9	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	0	1	4	1	1	4	
3.	Accent	4	4	4	12	[4]	[4]	[4]	[12]	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	1	3	0	1	3	
4.	Fluency	4	4	4	3	11	4	4	2	10	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	2	4	1	1	4	
5.	Conveyance	4	4	3	11	3	4	3	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	5	1	1	5	
6.	Understanding	4	4	4	12	4	4	2	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	5	1	1	5	
7.	Spelling	4	4	4	12	4	4	3	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	2	3	1	1	3	
8.	Reading	4	4	4	12	4	4	3	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	5	1	1	5	
9.	Written Grammar	3	U	U	3	U	U	U	U	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	
10.	Composing	2	U	U	2	U	U	U	U	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	2	0	0	2	
Totals		35	32	29	96	26	28	17	71	7	1	2	8	3	7	4	0	5	37	4	14	37	
Factors		10	8	8	26	7	7	7	21	10	10	10	8	8	8	9	9	9	27	27	27	27	
Rating		3.5	3.625	3.71	2.428	3.71	4.0	3.38															

Background:

Subject

Sex/Age F (40-49)
 Position C (Loan Clerk)
 Tenure 16 Years
 Parent's Origin Mexico (M) Texas (F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Company-spon. course
 Kind Training Bookkeeping; Clerical

Coworker

F (30-39)
 C (Note Teller)
 2 years
 Texas (M & F)
 High School Diploma

 Office/Clerical

CASE STUDY 2

Industry	Finance	City	Beaumont	Subject Reference	Case Study 2: F-1(2)													
Language Factors		Language Performance				Employment Phases												
		Subject		Coworker		Subject		Coworker		Manager		Total						
S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.	
1. Grammar	3	3	4	10	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8
2. Vocabulary	3	3	2	8	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6
3. Accent	3	4	1	8	[3]	[4]	[4]	[11]	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	1	1	2
4. Fluency	3	4	2	9	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6
5. Conveyance	3	3	3	9	2	3	4	9	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8
6. Understanding	3	3	3	9	2	4	4	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8
7. Spelling	3	4	4	11	3	3	4	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6
8. Reading	3	4	4	11	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8
9. Written Grammar	3	4	4	U	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	7
10. Composing	2	4	4	U	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6
Totals	29	36	23	88	25	34	36	95	9	9	9	1	5	9	3	10	10	65
Factors	10	10	8	28	9	9	9	27	9	9	9	9	9	9	10	10	10	28
Rating	2.9	2.875	2.778	4.0	3.6	3.143	3.778	3.519										

Background:

Subject

Sex/Age M (23)
 Position T (Sr. Systems Programmer)
 Tenure Less than 3 months
 Parent's Origin Texas (M & F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Technical School
 Kind Training Technical

Coworker

M (30-39)
 T (Programmer)
 Over 1 year
 U.S. (M & F)
 High School Diploma
 Technical School
 Technical

CASE STUDY 3

Industry Finance City Brownsville Subject Reference Case Study 3: F-2(3)

Language Factors	Language Performance				Employment Phases											
	Subject				Coworker				Subject				Coworker			
	S C M Tot.				S C M Tot.				A B C Tot.				A B C Tot.			
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	Tot.	A	B	C	Tot.
1. Grammar	3	3	4	10	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
2. Vocabulary	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
3. Accent	3	3	3	6	[]	[4]	[4]	[8]	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
4. Fluency	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
5. Conveyance	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
6. Understanding	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
7. Spelling	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
8. Reading	4	4	4	12	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
9. Written Grammar	4	3	U	7	4	4	4	8	1	1	1	3	1	1	1	3
10. Composing	4	U	U	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	31	32	31	94	32	31	28	91	9	9	9	27	8	8	8	24
Factors	8	9	8	25	8	8	7	23	9	9	9	27	8	8	8	24
Rating	3.875	3.875	3.875	4.0	4.0	3.875	4.0	3.957	3.875	3.875	3.875	3.875	3.875	3.875	3.875	3.875

Background:

Subject*

Coworker

Sex/Age F (30-39)
 Position O/C (Bookkeeping Payor)
 Tenure 13 years
 Parent's Origin Texas (M & F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Business School (1 Year)
 Kind Training Office/Clerical

F (26-29)
 O/C (Filing)
 3-4 years
 Texas
 High School Diploma
 Company-sponsored course
 General Job Training

*Non-Spanish-surname (married name).
 Spanish-surname (maiden name).

CASE STUDY 4

Industry Finance City Corpus Christi Subject Reference Case Study 4: F-3(4)

Language Factors	Language Performance										Employment Phases																			
	Subject					Coworker					Subject					Coworker					Manager					Total				
	S	C	M	Tot.		S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.		
1. Grammar	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	3	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8		
2. Vocabulary	3	3	3	6	4	4	4	3	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8		
3. Accent	0	2	3		[4]	[4]	[4]	[2]	[10]	1															1	1	2	4		
4. Fluency	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	4	12		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8		
5. Conveyance	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	4	12		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6		
6. Understanding	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	4	12		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	7		
7. Spelling	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9		
8. Reading	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	4	12		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8		
9. Written Grammar	3	4	4	11	3	4	4	4	11		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8		
10. Composing	2	3	4	9	2	4	4	4	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	5		
Totals	28	33	36	97	33	36	34	34	103	4	8	8	9	10	7	9	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	17	26	28	71		
Factors	8	10	10	28	9	9	9	9	27	9	9	9	9	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	29	29	29	29		
Rating	3.50	3.60	3.60	3.667	3.667	3.667	3.778	3.778	3.815																					
	3.3	3.3	3.464	3.464	4.0	4.0																								

Background:	Subject	Coworker
Sex/Age	F (30-39)	F (40-49)
Position	O/C (Trust Accounting)	O/C (Trust Accounting)
Tenure	2 1/2 years	14 years
Parent's Origin	Arizona (M)* Texas (F)	U.S. (M & F)
Education	High School Diploma	High School Diploma
Special Training	Business; Correspondence	Company-sponsored courses
Kind Training	Office	Office/Clerical

Background: Subject

Sex/Age F (30-39)
 Position O/C (Trust Accounting)
 Tenure 2 1/2 years
 Parent's Origin Arizona (M)* Texas (F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Business; Correspondence
 Kind Training Office

Coworker

F (40-49)
 O/C (Trust Accounting)
 14 years
 U.S. (M & F)
 High School Diploma
 Company-sponsored courses
 Office/Clerical

*Raised in Mexico.

CASE STUDY 5

Industry Finance City Dallas Subject Reference Case Study 5: F-4(5)

	Language Factors			Language Performance						Employment Phases											
	Subject			COWORKER						Subject			COWORKER			Manager			Total		
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
1. Grammar	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	3	7
2. Vocabulary	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	3	7
3. Accent	4	4	4	12	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	3
4. Fluency	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	3
5. Conveyance	4	3	3	10	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	3
6. Understanding	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	5
7. Spelling	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	3	7
8. Reading	4	3	3	10	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	5
9. Written Grammar	4	3	3	10	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	5
10. Composing	4	3	2	9	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	5
Totals	40	34	32	106	36	28	32	96	10	10	10	3	0	7	3	0	7	16	10	24	50
Factors	10	10	10	30	9	7	8	24	10	10	10	7	7	7	7	7	7	24	24	24	24
Rating	4.0	3.20			4.0		4.0	4.0													
	3.4			3.533	4.0																

Background:		Subject	Coworker
Sex/Age	F (38)	F (40-49)	
Position	O (Bilingual Secretary)	O (Exec. Secretary)	
Tenure	5 years	9 years	
Parent's Origin	Cuba (M & F)	U.S. (M & F)	
Education	College Degree*	High School Diploma	
Special Training	Prof. & Bus. School	Business School	
Kind Training	Teaching, Office	Office/Clerical	

*High School Diploma--U.S.A.
College Degree--University of Havana

CASE STUDY 6

Industry FinanceCity Houston

Subject Reference Case Study 6: F-5(6)

Language Factors	Language Performance										Employment Phases												
	Subject					Coworker					Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total			
	S	C	M	Tot.		S	C	M	Tot.		A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
1. Grammar	4	4	3	11	4	3	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	2	6			
2. Vocabulary	4	4	3	11	4	4	3	11	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8			
3. Accent	3	3	3	9	[4]	[U]	[3]	[7]			1						2	0	0	2			
4. Fluency	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	12		12	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	3	7			
5. Conveyance	4	4	4	12	3	4	4	11		11	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	7			
6. Understanding	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12		12	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9			
7. Spelling	4	4	4	12	3	0	4	7		7	1	1	1				2	0	1	3			
8. Reading	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12		12	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	2	6			
9. Written Grammar	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	12		12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6		
10. Composing	4	4	4	12	3	U	4	7		7	1			1	1	1	0	2	2	4			
Totals	39	39	35	113	33	27	35	95		95	7	5	8	9	7	6	22	14	22	58			
Factors	10	10	10	30	9	8	9	26		26	10	10	10	8	10	10	28	28	28	28			
Rating	3.9	3.9	3.5	3.767	3.667	3.375	3.889	3.654															
Background:	Subject*										Coworker												
Sex/Age	F (26)										F (26-29)												
Position	O/C (Accounts Clerk)										O/C (Gen'l Ledger Bookkeeper)												
Tenure	1 year										3 years												
Parent's Origin	Mexico (M) Texas (F)										La. (M) Texas (F)												
Education	High School Diploma										High School Diploma; College (2 years)												
Special Training	Business School (1 Year)										Business												
Kind Training	Office/Clerical										Office												

Background:

Subject*

Sex/Age F (26)
 Position O/C (Accounts Clerk)
 Tenure 1 year
 Parent's Origin Mexico (M) Texas (F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Business School (1 Year)
 Kind Training Office/Clerical

Coworker

F (26-29)
 O/C (Gen'l Ledger Bookkeeper)
 3 years
 La. (M) Texas (F)
 High School Diploma; College (2 years)
 Business Office

*Non-Spanish-surname (married name)
 Spanish-surname (maiden name)

Industry	Retail Trade	City	Beaumont	Subject	Reference	Case Study	7: RT-1(1)
Language Factors							
Language Performance				Employment Phases			
Subject		Coworker		Subject		Coworker	
S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.
4	4	3	11	4	3	3	10
4	3	4	11	4	3	4	11
1	4	4	9	1	4	4	9
4	3	4	11	4	3	4	11
4	4	4	12	4	4	3	11
4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12
4	4	4	8	4	4	3	11
4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12
4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12
4	4	4	8	4	4	4	12
37	38	31	106	32	31	30	93
10	10	8	28	8	9	8	25
3.7	3.875			4.0		3.75	
3.8	3.786			3.444		3.720	
Totals							
Factors							
Rating							
Background:							
Subject				Coworker			
Sex/Age	F (30-39)			F (30-39)			
Position	S (Sales Clerk)			S (Sales Clerk)			
Tenure	1 year			6 years			
Parent's Origin	Texas (M) Mexico (F)			Texas (M & F)			
Education	8 years			9 years			
Special Training	---			---			
Kind Training	---			---			

CASE STUDY 8

Industry Retail Trade City Corpus Christi Subject Reference Case Study 8: RT-3(2)

Language Factors	Language Performance								Employment Phases												
	Subject				Coworker				Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total			
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
1. Grammar	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12		1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	7		
2. Vocabulary	4	4	2	10	4	4	4	12		1	1	1	1	-	-	1	1	2	4		
3. Accent	3		0	3	[4]	[4]	[4]	[12]	1							1	0	1	2		
4. Fluency	3	3	4	10	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1		1	2	3	3	8		
5. Conveyance	4	U	4	8	4	3	4	11		1	1	1	1		1	2	1	1	3		
6. Understanding	4	4	3	11	4	4	4	12	1		1	1	1		1	2	1	3	6		
7. Spelling	4	U	4	8	4	4	4	12	1		1	1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8		
8. Reading	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1		1	1	1	1	1	0	2	2	4		
9. Written Grammar	4	U	4	8	3	4	U	7		1	1	-	-		1	1	1	2	4		
10. Composing	4	U	4	8	4	4	U	8		1		-	-		1	0	0	2	2		
Totals	38	19	33	90	35	35	28	98	5	2	9	6	3	5	8	14	13	23	50		
Factors	10	5	10	25	9	9	7	25	10	10	10	7	8	8	8	25	25	25	25		
Rating	3.8	3.8	3.3	3.6	3.889	3.889	4.0	3.920													

Background:

Sex/Age	M (50 and over)	Coworker	F (50 and over)
Position	S (Sales Clerk)		S (Sales Clerk)
Tenure	Over 35 years		3-4 years
Parent's Origin	Mexico (M & F)		U.S. (M & F)
Education	High School Diploma		High School Diploma
Special Training	College (1 semester)		Adult Evening Classes
Kind Training	Business (and sales)		Sales

Industry Retail Trade City Dallas CASE STUDY 9 Subject Reference Case Study 9: RT-4(3)

Language Factors	Language Performance										Employment Phases									
	Subject					Coworker					Subject					Coworker				
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
	Tot.					Tot.					Tot.					Tot.				
1. Grammar	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9
2. Vocabulary	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8
3. Accent	4	4	4	12	[4]	[4]	[4]	[12]	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	1	2	1	4
4. Fluency	4	3	4	11	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9
5. Conveyance	3	4	4	11	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9
6. Understanding	3	4	4	11	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9
7. Spelling	4	3	4	11	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9
8. Reading	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	9
9. Written Grammar	3	4	U	7	U	4	U	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	7
10. Composing	3	4	U	7	U	4	U	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	2	7
Totals	35	38	32	105	26	34	28	88	9	9	10	10	10	7	8	8	26	27	27	80
Factors	10	10	8	28	7	9	7	23	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	9	29	29	29	29
Rating	3.5	4.0	3.8	3.786	3.714	4.0	3.778	3.826												

Background: Subject* F (30-39) Coworker F (50 and over)
 Sex/Age O/C (Payroll Clerk)
 Position 14 years O/C (Payroll Clerk)
 Tenure Texas (M) Mexico (F) 35 years
 Parent's Origin 11 1/2 years Texas (M) U.S. (F)
 Education Company-spon. Exec. High School Diploma
 Special Training Office/Clerical Training Program
 Kind Training Company-spon. courses

*Non-Spanish-surname (married name)
 Spanish-surname (maiden name)

CASE STUDY 10

Industry Retail Trade City Houston Subject Reference Case Study 10: RT-5(4)

Language Factors	Language Performance								Employment Phases												
	Subject				Coworker				Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total			
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
1. Grammar	4	4	3	11	2	4	3	9	1		1			1				1	0	2	3
2. Vocabulary	4	3	2	9	2	3	2	7	1	1	1		1					1	2	2	5
3. Accent	4	3	2	9	[4]	[3]	[4]	[11]	1	1	1							1	1	2	4
4. Fluency	2	2	2	6	4	2	2	8	1				1	1				1	1	1	3
5. Conveyance	2	2	3	7	2	2	3	7	1	1	1		1	1				2	2	1	5
6. Understanding	2	2	3	7	2	2	3	7	1	1	1		1	1				2	2	2	6
7. Spelling	3	2	3	8	2	1	2	5		1			1	1				0	2	1	3
8. Reading	3	1	3	7	U	U	3	5		1			1	1				1	2	1	4
9. Written Grammar	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U		1			1	1				0	2	1	3
10. Composing	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U			1		1	1				0	1	2	3
Totals	24	19	21	64	14	16	18	48	6	7	5	3	8	10	0	0	0	9	15	15	39
Factors	8	8	8	24	6	7	7	20	10	10	10	10	10	10	0	0	0	20	20	20	20
Rating	3.0	2.625	2.75	2.333	2.571	2.286	2.4														

Background:

Sex/Age	F (22)	Coworker	F (under 25)
Position	C (Cashier)		C (Cashier)
Tenure	3 years		2 years
Parent's Origin	Texas (M & F)		Texas (M & F)
Education	11 years		High School Diploma
Special Training	---		---
Kind Training	---		Office/Clerical

CASE STUDY 11

Industry	Retail Trade	City	San Antonio	Subject Reference Case Study 11: RT-6(5)															
Language Factors				Language Performance					Employment Phases										
				Subject			Coworker		Subject		Coworker			Manager			Total		
				S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B
1.	Grammar	4	2	3	9	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	1	1	5
2.	Vocabulary	4	2	2	8	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	1	6
3.	Accent	4	3	2	9	[4]	[4]	[2]	[10]	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	0	1	4
4.	Fluency	3	2	2	7	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	5
5.	Conveyance	4	2	3	9	3	4	3	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	4
6.	Understanding	4	2	3	9	3	2	3	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	6
7.	Spelling	4	1	4	9	U	4	4	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
8.	Reading	4	1	3	8	U	4	4	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	5
9.	Written Grammar	4	1	4	9	U	4	4	8	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
10.	Composing	4	1	4	9	4	4	3	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	4
Totals		39	17	30	86	22	33	33	88	10	0	0	7	9	8	3	5	3	45
Factors		10	10	10	30	6	9	9	24	10	10	10	10	10	10	20	14	11	45
Rating		3.9	3.0	2.867	3.667	3.667	3.667	3.667	3.667	8	10	10	10	10	10	27	27	27	27

Background:

Subject

Sex/Age F (24)
 Position M (Store Manager)
 Tenure 7 years
 Parent's Origin Mexico (M & F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Business School*
 Kind Training Office/Clerical*

Coworker

M (50 and over)
 M (Store Manager)
 14 years
 U.S. (M & F)
 High School Diploma
 Business College (2 years)
 Management: Office/Clerical

*Kind of work trained for not used on job per employee.

CASE STUDY 12

Industry	Utilities	City	Brownsville	Subject Reference	Case Study 12: U-2(1)																		
						Language Performance						Employment Phases											
						Subject			Coworker			Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total		
						S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
1.	Grammar	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	12	1				1	1	1	1	2	0	2	4		
2.	Vocabulary	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1			1	1	1	1	2	1	3	6		
3.	Accent	4	3	3	10	[]	[4]	[4]	[8]	1						-	-	1	0	1	2		
4.	Fluency	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	12	1						1	1	2	1	2	5		
5.	Conveyance	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1				1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8		
6.	Understanding	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1				1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8		
7.	Spelling	3	4	4	11	4	3	4	11	1				1	1	1	-	2	1	2	5		
8.	Reading	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1				1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8		
9.	Written Grammar	3	3	4	10	4	4	4	12	1				1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8		
10.	Composing	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	12	1				1	1	1	1	3	2	3	8		
Totals						35	38	39	112	36	35	36	107	10	1	7	6	24	13	25	62		
Factors						10	10	10	30	9	9	9	27	10	10	10	10	28	28	28	28		
Rating						3.5	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0											

Background:

Subject

Coworker

Sex/Age	M (30-39)	M (40-49)
Position	M (Department Head)	M (Department Head)
Tenure	11 years	3-4 years
Parent's Origin	Texas (M) Mexico (F)	U.S. (M & F)
Education	High School Diploma	High School Diploma
Special Training	Special Correspondence Course	Technical School; Adult Evening Classes
Kind Training	Engineering, Technical	Utilities (Water)
		Electrical Engineering, Technical

CASE STUDY 13

Industry UtilitiesCity Dallas

Subject Reference Case Study 13: U-4(2)

Language Factors	Language Performance										Employment Phases																			
	Subject					Coworker					Subject					Coworker					Manager					Total				
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot			
	3	4	4	11	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7			
1. Grammar	2	4	4	10	3	3	4	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	7			
2. Vocabulary	3	2	4	9	[4]	[4]	[4]	[12]	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4			
3. Accent	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3			
4. Fluency	3	4	4	11	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	5			
5. Conveyance	2	4	4	10	2	4	4	10	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4			
6. Understanding	4	4	4	12	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	7			
7. Spelling	4	4	4	12	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	5			
8. Reading	3	4	4	11	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	5			
9. Written Grammar	2	4	4	6	3	4	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	5			
10. Composing	29	34	40	103	31	32	36	99	7	5	2	2	2	3	6	9	14	17	19	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	50			
Totals	10	9	10	29	9	9	9	27	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	29			
Factors	2.9	4.0	4.0	3.444	3.444	4.0	4.0	3.556	3.667																					
Rating	3.778	3.552	3.552	3.556	3.556	3.556	3.667																							

Background:

Subject

Sex/Age F (25)
 Position O (Stenographer)
 Tenure 3 years
 Parent's Origin Mexico (M) Texas (F)
 Education High School Diploma
 Special Training Business School (1 year)
 Kind Training Office/Clerical

Coworker

F (25)
 O (Stenographer)
 3 years
 Texas (M) U.S. (F)
 High School Diploma

 Stenographic Program (2 years in high school)

CASE STUDY 14

Industry Utilities City Houston Subject Reference Case Study 14: U-5(3)

	Language Factors			Language Performance						Employment Phases											
				Subject			Coworker			Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total		
				S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.
1. Grammar	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
2. Vocabulary	4	4	4	12	4	3	4	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
3. Accent	4	4	4	12	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[4]	[12]	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0
4. Fluency	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
5. Conveyance	4	3	4	11	4	3	4	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
6. Understanding	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
7. Spelling	4	3	4	11	4	4	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
8. Reading	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
9. Written Grammar	4	4	4	12	4	4	4	4	4	4	12	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
10. Composing	4	4	4	12	4	3	4	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3
Totals	40	36	40	116	36	33	36	105	9	9	27	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	69
Factors	10	10	10	30	9	9	9	27	9	9	27	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	28
Rating	4.0	3.6	4.0	3.867	4.0	3.667	4.0	3.889	4.0	4.0	4.0										

Background:

Subject

Sex/Age
Position
Tenure
Parent's Origin
Education
Special Training
Kind Training

M (40-49)
P (Engineer)
21 years
Mexico (M & F)
College Degree (Bachelor's)
Professional
Engineering

Coworker

M (42)
P (Engineer)
5 years
Texas (M & F)
College Degree (Bachelor's)
Professional
Engineering (Natural Gas)

CASE STUDY 15

Industry Utilities City San Antonio Subject Reference Case Study 15: U-6(4)

Language Factors	Language Performance										Employment Phases											
	Subject					Coworker					Subject			Coworker			Manager			Total		
	S	C	M	Tot.	S	C	M	Tot.	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	Tot.	
1. Grammar	3	4	4	11	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	2	7	
2. Vocabulary	3	3	4	10	4	4	4	12			1		1		1		1	0	1	3	4	
3. Accent	3	4	4	11	[4]	[4]	[4]	[12]	1	1	1	1	1	-	-			2	1	2	5	
4. Fluency	4	4	4	12	4	3	4	11		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	6	
5. Conveyance	4	3	4	11	4	3	4	11			1	1	1			1	1	1	1	3	5	
6. Understanding	4	3	4	11	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	2	6	
7. Spelling	3	U	4	7	4	2	4	10	1	1			1		1		1	1	2	4	4	
8. Reading	4	U	4	8	4	3	4	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	3	8	
9. Written Grammar	3	U	2	5	4	3	2	9		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	3	6	
10. Composing	U	U	U	U	U	2	U	2		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	5	
Totals	31	21	34	86	32	26	30	88	5	4	9	7	7	8	2	6	8	14	17	25	56	
Factors	9	6	9	24	8	9	8	25	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	9	9	29	29	29	29	
Rating	3.444	3.778	4.0	3.583	2.889	3.75	3.520															

Background:		Subject		Coworker	
Sex/Age	M	O/C (Customer Service Clerk)	M (36)	O/C (Customer Service Clerk)	M (36)
Position	O/C (Customer Service Clerk)	3 years	17 years	17 years	17 years
Tenure	3 years	Texas (M & F)	Texas (M & F)	Texas (M & F)	Texas (M & F)
Parent's Origin	High School Diploma	Adult Evening Classes	High School Diploma	High School Diploma	High School Diploma
Education	Special Training	Technical (High School)	---	---	---
Special Training	Kind Training		Office/Clerical	Office/Clerical	Office/Clerical

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