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# Agricultural Migrants and Their Educational Problems

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**AGRICULTURAL MIGRANTS AND THEIR  
EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS**

by

Jocelyn L. Butler

**A Graduate Paper Prepared Under Plan II and Submitted in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree  
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School of the  
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## INTRODUCTION

In this paper an attempt has been made to study the agricultural migrant in his natural setting and to determine the effect of his mobile way of life upon the educational possibilities for his children. It was believed that a careful examination of the migrant's mode of living might yield a definite pattern of associated characteristics. This pattern might in turn be used to portray certain needs of migrant workers' children which could then be related to educational planning and opportunity.

Such efforts as have been made to solve this problem, the objectives which were thought important, the types of plans followed--all were considered. Finally an attempt was made to draw educational implications from the available evidence.

## THE YAKIMA VALLEY BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

Local environment. The town of Mabton has been supported by a productive farm area for many years. Previous to the 1930's, crops such as alfalfa, potatoes, and grain were prevalent. Farms were operated, to a large extent, by their owners. Forty to eighty acre units were typical. Population was, in general, quite constant.

In 1934, when the Yakima Chief Ranches, Inc., were brought into existence by Lloyd Hughes, 400 acres were planted to hops in Mabton and 300 more acres were planted in the Satus district. Thus, a new era of large scale farming, with problems which were commensurate with its size, developed on the local scene. That the development of the hop industry was important to this area can be judged by making an examination of the following newspaper article:

### VALLEY RANCH OUTSTANDING

Yakima Chief Ranches, Inc., Mabton, holds two distinguishing features that make it one of the outstanding hop growing organizations of its kind in the world.

First, it is owned by one man, George H. Gannon. Secondly, the firm operates the largest hop drying and processing plant in the world. For good measure, people in the Yakima Valley can also claim Yakima Chief as the largest overall hop operation in the world, on the basis of unit acres in one section. Other organizations such as the John I. Haas interests are larger but scattered.

The present operation was started in the early 1930's when the late Lloyd Hughes set out about 200 acres of hops in the Satus district and another 400 acres in Mabton.

In 1943, Gannon, then a resident of Yakima, went into partnership with Hughes, and with the death of Hughes, Gannon and W. Prater, Jr., formed a second partnership to buy out the Hughes interest. In 1948 Gannon purchased Prater's interest.

At present Gannon has increased the acreage to approximately 800, including 256 leased, and processes another 200 acres for other growers.

The firm employs around 40 persons on a year around basis with the number running between 350 and 375 during the growing season and reaching 500 during harvest. Annual payroll hits close to a half million dollars, most of which is returned to retail channels in the Yakima Valley.

The entire production of Yakima Chief Ranches for the past three years has been sold to the John I. Haas Company. Louis O. Gannon, brother of George, said the annual production of processed hops totals about 1½ million pounds.<sup>1</sup>

In addition to the Big Chief holdings, several other hop ranches were developed in the Mabton area. The need for agricultural workers was felt by growers of other crops. Hand labor was needed in asparagus fields, mint acreages, and grape vineyards. While local labor was utilized largely for year round employment in the early years of hopyard development, wide advertising was required to attract an adequate harvest crew. The labor shortage of the World War II period aggravated this situation. It became evident that some solution to the problem was required.

Migrant labor contracts. Early in the spring of 1943, it was rumored that laborers of Mexican descent were being employed by the Big Chief Ranch. Soon the first group of Spanish-speaking migrant

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<sup>1</sup>The Yakima (Washington) Morning Herald, February 14, 1952.



laborers was present on the local landscape. Great was the amazement of the local people when the trucks from Texas unloaded their closely packed human cargo. It was hard to believe that such a large number were able to exist for so long a trip under extremely crowded conditions.

Local school enrollment. On Monday, March 8, 1943, eighteen of these children of Mexican migrants were entered in school. Later the number was increased to about forty. The greater share of this first group were in the primary grades. This entrance of migrant children was the first imprint in a design which was destined to become standard each spring and fall. Increasing number was to become the outstanding characteristic of seasonal enrollment.

For the past several years, an estimated eighty to ninety children of migrant workers were added to the elementary school enrollment each year between February and April. About forty of these children, who were of Texas origin, have become permanent residents. When an examination of the peak enrollment was made, it was found that from one quarter to one-third of the total elementary school group was composed of children of Mexican descent. The fall attendance, based on number, was always below that of the spring. Very few of these children were found in the secondary school.

Migrant labor in the Yakima Valley. If this problem were the sole concern of a single area, then it would be a limited problem. An article, written in the Yakima Herald on August 20, 1952, was quite enlightening. It stated that there were about 2,000 permanent

Mexican residents in the Yakima Valley. Migrating Mexicans were thought to bring this total to about 6,000 during the summer and fall seasons. Toppenish was credited with being the hub of Mexican population.<sup>2</sup>

In an article by Herman Kramer<sup>3</sup> and others, something of the size of the migrant group was revealed. It was estimated that 30,000 transient laborers were needed to harvest valley crops. These people were traced through the annual harvests beginning with the asparagus picking and ending with the beets. Then, it was stated, they were ready to return south. In the same article<sup>4</sup> it was said that out of the 2400 pupils in the Wapato Schools, there was a yearly turnover of 25% in the pupil population. It was cited that the entire personnel of a single class was likely to change within a year.

Characteristics of migrant children. The children of the migrants have been the victims of their mobile way of life. Chambers<sup>5</sup> was quite forceful in stating that their suffering was due to lack of schooling, forced labor, inadequate housing, bad sanitation, absence of health facilities, and poor social protection.

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<sup>2</sup>The Yakima (Washington) Morning Herald, August 20, 1952.

<sup>3</sup>Herman Kramer, Gordon Rutherford, and Dave Willis, "Teacher Education Experiments in Community Services", School and Society, 72:360, December 2, 1950.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 360-1.

<sup>5</sup>M. M. Chambers, "In Behalf of Rural Youth," Educational Record, 29:60, January, 1948.

Following ten years of experience in working with Mexican migrant children, it was believed by the experimenter that the following points were significant:

1. Migrant children were found to have interests corresponding to their age groups.
2. Enthusiasm in both work and play was pronounced.
3. Appearance and health standards were found to cover a wide range.
4. Manners and respect were generally above average.
5. Very few children were bothered greatly by changing language.
6. It was indicated that the skills of reading were dependent upon both school attendance and language understanding.
7. Children, who had become permanent residents, were making normal progress in school.
8. Children having language difficulties were likely to play with younger children.
9. Differences in abilities were apparent.
10. Eagerness to learn American ways was strongly evidenced.

#### THE MIGRANT WORKER IN NATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

The labor of the migrant was credited with a rating of "economic necessity" by Louisa Shotwell.<sup>6</sup> This phrase recognized labor skills that were developed highly and the value which should be placed upon those skills in the American economic structure. The fact that forty of the forty-eight states were found recruiting the

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<sup>6</sup> Louisa R. Shotwell, "Young Migrants in School, Survey, 85:269, May, 1949.

labor of the migrant gives force to this contention.

Significance in number. It was estimated by Shotwell<sup>7</sup> that there were probably two and one-half million agricultural migrants in the nation. In terms of education, these figures were interpreted to mean that there were nearly a million children in the United States who were able to have little regular schooling.

Shotwell's<sup>8</sup> summary was quite meaningful. It was stated that the migrant problem was not a concern for any one community or section of the country because it reached from coast to coast and crossed state lines. It was cited that the problem belonged to all who ate fruit and vegetables which were harvested by the migrant and to all who were in favor of public education.

#### DEFINITION OF TERMS

A migrant was considered as one who has gone from one country, region, or abode to settle in another.

An agricultural migrant was differentiated by the idea that he was to pass periodically from one region to another.

A migratory movement was established as a number or body of persons or animals migrating together.

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<sup>7</sup>Loc. Cit.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p. 276.

## ANNUAL MIGRATION MOVEMENTS

It was apparent in the literature that agricultural migration movements were not haphazard, unplanned, or subject to radical changes in pattern. A definite seasonal plan with three main trends was indicated. It was interesting to note that these migration movements were assembled in the southernmost tier of states and were directed toward the north and back to the south on a seasonal basis.

The main trends. The general course followed by each trend was discussed in considerable detail by M. M. Chambers:<sup>9</sup>

1. One stream was designated as beginning in California. This group was composed largely of native Americans. Its route was traced up the Pacific coast with branches into every fertile valley until it was spread over Washington State.

2. A second stream, whose composition was largely Spanish American, was traced from the farms of the Rio Grande Valley, through the cotton fields of North Texas, and out into the states of Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Minnesota, the Dakotas, Montana, Colorado, Wyoming, and Nebraska.

3. The third stream was given its starting base in Florida, and it was followed up the Atlantic Coast until it ended in the fruit and truck farms of New Jersey. This last group was largely of Negro composition.

Problems created by migration movements. That problems were created by the annual entrance and exodus of large numbers of people seemed evident. The types of problems and something of the nature of

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<sup>9</sup>M. M. Chambers. "In Behalf of Rural Youth", Educational Record, 29:54, January, 1948.

these problems was thought to have value for this study. "Here today and gone tomorrow" was an apt description of migrant labor, an unstable element in any community.<sup>10</sup>

The following problems were selected as significant. In many cases conclusions were drawn from the total reading background rather than from a single source.

1. Seasonal demands for labor were found to vary. Labor supply was not found to be closely related to needs.

2. Many migrants were found to be destitute on arrival.

3. In order to be certain that labor supply was sufficient, the tendency was to "lure in" an oversupply.

4. Huge family groups were found living in one or two room cabins.

5. Health facilities were generally poor and inadequate for large numbers.

6. Because the migrant was not "a belonging citizen", relief, medical aid, pensions, and voting were denied to him.<sup>11</sup>

7. During the height of the harvest season, the schools in the rural areas were found to be extremely crowded. When the post season exodus was over, fifty percent of the enrollment was likely to have moved.<sup>12</sup>

8. It was indicated that because of this instability, absorption into the community does not occur. An illustration was given that on one day not a single migrant would be present in the community.

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<sup>10</sup>Amber Arthur Warburton, "Children and Youth in Rural Industrial Areas," School Life, 30:12, January, 1948.

<sup>11</sup>John Blanchard, Caravans to the Northwest, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.)pp. 32-33.

<sup>12</sup>Carey McWilliams, Factories in the Field. (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1942.) p. 7

On the very next day, it was possible, that several hundred migrant families had arrived.<sup>13</sup>

9. Children of the migrant were needed to help make the family living.

10. The isolation, that was the result of the migrant's low economic and social status, was found to be perpetuated by his continued low status.<sup>14</sup>

Thus the picture was found to be full of problems for the migrant, for the community which must expand and contract rapidly, and for the children who were carried with the moving tide.

It was indicated that one problem area was sufficiently important to be given individual attention. Statements were found to the effect that people were afraid to see the migrants return because they were afraid of the diseases which were prevalent with them. By judging the disease, as if it were a cause, it was, of course, possible to attach the blame to the migrants rather than to conditions of marginal existence, which were the actual causes. In certain areas of Michigan, it was found that tuberculosis tended to be more active among the Mexicans than among the general population. Malaria was considered dangerous for the duration of the migration.<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Carey McWilliams, Ill Fares The Land. (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1942.) p. 7

<sup>14</sup>Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Forces Affecting American Education. 1953 Yearbook, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1953) pp. 29-30.

<sup>15</sup>Carey McWilliams, Ill Fares The Land, (Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1942) pp. 273-277.

On the Yakima Valley scene great interest was shown in vaccinating and inoculating by the Mexican migrants. Small children were "herded in" when preschool children were allowed inoculations. The migrants explained their desire for such medical attention as a necessity when people were living in camps.

Contrasting problem solving of "internal" and "seasonal" migrants. Within recent years, three internal migrations of considerable size were observed. They were those of the dust bowl refugees, the tenants displaced by technological development, and the youth following World War II. From many sources, it was possible to draw certain conclusions. Problems of the two types of migrants were attacked in a different way.<sup>16</sup>

1. These internal migrants were able to make their plight conspicuous. (There was no "slipping in" the outskirts.)

2. Internal migrants were intending to make new homes. (Seasonal migrants were not expecting more than status subsistence.)

3. Displaced persons were not without voice. (Vocalization was unknown to one group.)

4. The new migrants were of higher economic status. (The old migrants were accepting fate.)

5. Internal migrants were able to become absorbed in groups. (Seasonal migrants were not attempting to become absorbed.)

6. The newly displaced were expecting the rights of citizens. (Temporary and permanent relief was unknown to the seasonal migrant.)

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<sup>16</sup>Ibid. pp. 1-16



7. Internal migrants were able to find champions and legislation was secured. (Such processes were unknown to many seasonal migrants.)

8. Large groups were demanding something. (Seasonal migrants were never organized to gain advantages.)

It is indicated that size was not the sole answer. Each internal migration group was able to make itself felt. The force of 2½ million seasonal migrant people was not a size to be considered insignificant. These people were not being given equal opportunity to learn and think and do. If education was the means of helping their children to feel that they belonged, then education would serve the purpose for which it was intended.

#### THE CHILDREN OF AGRICULTURAL MIGRANTS

Needs of these children. Data concerning the needs of seasonal migrant agricultural workers, based on reports of teachers and supervisors, was reported as follows by Rita M. Hanson:<sup>17</sup>

##### Physical Needs

1. Adequate nutrition.
2. Better housing.
3. Sanitary conditions.
4. Medical care.
5. Dental care.
6. Sufficient sleep.

##### Intellectual Needs

1. Regular attendance.
2. Educational enrichment in home.
3. Encouragement in home.
4. Remedial instruction.

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<sup>17</sup>Rita M. Hansen, "Educating Elementary School Children of Seasonal-Migrant Agricultural Workers in San Joaquin Valley" Doctoral Dissertation (Unpublished), Stanford University, September, 1949.

Social Needs

1. Social participation.
2. Friendliness of peers.
3. Play space and equipment.

Emotional Needs

1. Personal security.
2. Control of anger.
3. Freedom from superstition.

Basic subject skills required. An attempt was made by the author to plan an instructional program for a small group of retarded migrant children. Relating school instruction to the needs of the group was a definite goal. There were ten Mexican migrant children involved in the plan. These children, who were in the second grade, ranged in age from nine to thirteen years.

This group represented both the source of information and the subjects upon whom the results would be applied. The method required information on learnings desired in each subject matter area. The definiteness of some pupil goals was surprising. For example, one child wanted a paper stating that school was finished. Inability to select objectives indicated lack of experience in other cases.

The migrant children, who had objectives, offered the following subject matter purposes:

Language needs were:

1. To carry on a conversation.
2. To ask for a job.
3. To talk to a storekeeper.
4. To know what words mean.

Arithmetic needs were:

1. To count up bills.
2. To figure paychecks.
3. To be able to do problems.

Writing needs were:

1. To write names well.
2. To write letters.

Reading needs were:

1. To read letters.
2. To read books and magazines.
3. To read signs.
4. To read directions.

Social Studies needs were:

1. To learn what people do.
2. To find out about places.
3. To go and see things.
4. To make pictures of things we see.

Music needs were:

1. To dance to music.
2. To sing many songs.

Art needs were:

1. To use many colors.
2. To make things that were seen around school.
3. To make things with clay.
4. To make pretty pictures.

Living conditions for migrant children. Living conditions varied widely. Overcrowding was evident even where better living provisions had been made.

Housing, in general, was labeled poor. When Helen Hungerford<sup>18</sup> was visiting the homes of the migrants in Freehold, New Jersey, the conditions under which those people were found to be living were accepted as a challenge. Some of the families were found living in one room shacks, some in renovated chicken houses, and some in

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<sup>18</sup>Louisa R. Shotwell, "Young Migrants in School," Survey, 85:268, May, 1949.

haylofts. Such handicaps, as were witnessed by Hungerford, were a source of great surprise. The fact that these migrant mothers were faced with managing the sleeping, cooking, washing, and ironing for six, eight, or ten individuals in one makeshift room was the basis for a migrant model home project in the summer school.

Food and clothing were apparently related quite closely to the migrant's income status. In Mount Pleasant, Michigan, collection of warm clothing was a part of each year's preparation for the migrant.<sup>19</sup> The migrants in Yakima Valley were in attendance at every rummage sale. When a party dress was obtained, it was promptly worn to school. The Mexican migrant was likely to use tortillas and beans for basic foods, but it was noted that other foods were added when income was regular.

Nearly all sources were agreed that health facilities were usually poor and inadequate for the number who were expected to use them. Playground and recreation facilities were not standard equipment.

The economic implications were low wages and intermittent employment. Family income was low, generally speaking.<sup>20</sup> It was not possible for migrant children to have as much in worldly goods, nor was it possible for these children to attend school regularly. The additional income from child labor was needed badly.

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<sup>19</sup>Francis Martin, "Spring and the Migrants," Educational Leadership, 8:395-96, April, 1951.

<sup>20</sup>Nels Anderson, Men on the Move. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1940.) p. 291.

While the social position of the adult was found to be largely one of isolation within the migrant group, the position of the migrant child in school was found to be more favorable. In some schools, children of migrants were welcomed by the non-migrant group. In other schools, the acceptance of the seasonal-migrant was dependent on factors such as cleanliness, skills, or personality. Social lines were not pronounced as long as pupils conformed. Mexican girls and negro girls were noted in separate clusters. It was indicated that attitudes were more democratic in the primary grades. Class consciousness was more noticeable in the upper intermediate grades. Acceptance was apparently aided by efforts of schools to build cultural understanding. Quarreling and tattling were attributed to jealousy and class differences.<sup>21</sup>

#### EDUCATION AS RELATED TO AGRICULTURAL MIGRANTS

Educational opportunity. It was thought proper to scrutinize the positive educational opportunities for migrant children before considering negative viewpoints. Positive factors were felt to be few in number since available library materials stressed only lack of opportunity. By reversing some negative findings, a few positive points were indicated.

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<sup>21</sup>Rita M. Hanson, "Educating Elementary School Children of Seasonal-Migrant Agricultural Workers in the San Joaquin Valley," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Stanford University, 1949.

These data were as follows:

1. Public schools were available in almost any area.
2. All children were entitled to attend these schools.
3. There were child labor laws to protect the child from forced labor.
4. Compulsory school attendance laws were available to aid children in securing an education.
5. Where the desire was sufficiently strong, learning was possible even under adverse conditions.
6. When a problem was once recognized, improvement, although it was slow, usually was continuous.
7. The varied experiences of the roving migrant were thought to have educational value.
8. Children of seasonal migrants were considered to have abilities and talents so that educational progress and contributions to the group was assured.
9. It was believed that the child could gain value by carrying ideas from school to home.
10. If travel days were the only days of non-attendance other than the ones on which the child was actually ill, a fair number of school days were believed to be available for salvage.

Educational difficulties. Nearly any single source of migrant information could provide most of the negative viewpoints on educational opportunity. Findings from many sources indicated the following:

1. By the use of a selected group of migrant children, Rita Hanson was able to determine that two to four schools were attended by these children in a single year. Only one of the group was able to claim no change during the school term. Average length of attendance was three months.<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Rita Hanson "Educating Elementary School Children of Seasonal-Migrant Workers in San Joaquin Valley," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Stanford University, September, 1949.

2. Large classes were unavoidable on a temporary basis for seasonal migrants because large classes had to enter school before adjustments were made.<sup>23</sup>

3. Regularly certified teachers were reluctant to accept employment that was uncertain, brief, difficult and often unpleasant.<sup>24</sup>

4. Formalized school programs were thought to be unable to furnish the enrichment required to offset life outside of school.<sup>25</sup>

5. Continuity in progress was impeded by lack of reports to accompany children on the move.<sup>26</sup>

6. It was said that many migrant laborers were not sending the children to school because they had not learned the values of education.<sup>27</sup>

7. Retardation was found to be common among the Mexican migrants attending school in Colorado. It was stated that practically no Mexican children were found to have progressed beyond eighth grade.<sup>28</sup>

8. The education of the migrant child in Florida was described as negligible. It was said that in one school the enrollment had increased from 280 to 503 when the negroes arrived. When the bean harvest was at hand, the enrollment changed again from 485 to 20 in a week. The children were working in the fields.<sup>29</sup>

9. Compulsory school attendance law was not enforced for migratory laborers in Texas.<sup>30</sup>

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<sup>23</sup>Ibid., p. 40.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 107.

<sup>25</sup>Ibid., p. 107.

<sup>26</sup>Ibid., p. 112.

<sup>27</sup>Carey McWilliams, Ill Fares the Land. (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1942.) p. 354.

<sup>28</sup>Ibid., p. 118.

<sup>29</sup>Ibid., p. 173.

<sup>30</sup>Ibid., p. 245.

10. Communities were not willing to have poverty-stricken wanderers settle down and become a drain on taxed school, health and welfare services.<sup>31</sup>

In summary, the following difficulties were considered as factors that lessened educational opportunities for agricultural migrant children: (1) changing schools, (2) overcrowding classrooms, (3) poorly qualified teachers, (4) unsuitable curriculum, (5) no continuity in studies, (6) lack of understanding by parents, (7) failure to enforce attendance by school, (8) retardation, (9) language handicap, (10) need for income of children's labor by parents, and (11) not "belonging" anywhere.

Regular instructional practices for educating children of agricultural migrants. The existence of numerous difficulties made apparent the need to appraise regular instructional practices. The following procedures were considered on the basis of their effect upon the problems mentioned previously:

1. Grade promotion based on subject matter achievement. Retardation appeared to be related, basically, to this plan. Lack of opportunity was seen as the reason why older children were placed with younger children. Materials were not adapted to the interests of older children. Regular classroom procedures, with little or no concern for social and emotional needs, seemed descriptive of this promotional scheme.

2. Social promotion. This procedure was concerned with the placement of children in their own age group regardless of subject

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<sup>31</sup>John Blanchard, Caravans to the Northwest. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.) p.36.



matter achievement. With this plan, some form of grouping was found necessary in order to care for wide ranges in ability. Sometimes "mere sitting" in a classroom was the result.

A variation of this second plan was found in some Yakima valley schools. A homeroom was selected for the child with his developmental stage receiving first consideration. Basic subjects were provided in grades where achievement levels were indicated. For example, a fourth grade child was provided with reading instruction in first grade, spelling in second grade, numbers in third grade, and the remaining subjects in the home room. A changing plan of this kind was believed to add to the child's instability in some cases.

Kramer<sup>32</sup> was concerned with the inadequateness of such methods in relation to migrant children in the Wapato School System. Because these methods were not producing satisfactory results, a new plan was placed on trial. This plan and the results of the experiment will be discussed on page 21 under the heading of "Special Schools".

3. Overflow rooms. The overflow room was felt to represent a situation in which some place was designated to hold the situation in check until migration removed its load of obligation. This type, in general, was characterized by the following conditions: (1) inadequate materials, (2) poor rooms, (3) below average teachers, (4) overloaded classrooms, (5) several grade levels in a single room, and (6) brief duration.

4. Segregated schools. The Spanish American schools were considered to be good examples of this type. It was claimed that by segregation more individual instruction, better training for citizenship, special health programs, and better teaching of retarded children could be accomplished. Actually, poor buildings, poorer quality teachers in terms of professional preparation, heavier load of pupils per teacher, poorer health facilities, and isolation from the general public resulted from this plan. In Texas and California, segregation was found to be unsatisfactory. Both states directed effort toward improvement in this area.

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<sup>32</sup>Herman Kramer, Gordon Rutherford, and Dave Willis, "Teacher Education Experiments in Community Services," School and Society, 72:360-1, December, 1950.

Special schools. It was found that the problem of educating agricultural migrants had been attacked in several areas with different programs other than the typical school situation.

1. A special summer school for the children of Negro migrant workers was held in Freehold, New Jersey in 1947. Some objectives of the summer school were: (1) a special school for migrants, (2) expert teaching, (3) curriculum shaped to migrant needs, and (4) sessions operating at the peak of the harvest season. Community organizations and agencies provided building, equipment, services, and personnel.

Special reading methods were used and materials were selected on a basis of a core vocabulary of 785 words. Writing and arithmetic were planned on a basis of need. The daily routine included: (1) meals, (2) play and rest, (3) visits to the store, library, and a new house, (4) picnics, (5) serving as reporter or corporal, (6) being sole possessors of a playground, except when guests were invited to share, (7) having health services, and (8) living together.

A model migrant home was put in a classroom. In it, there was a bed, an oil stove, orange crate chairs, and a packing box table. The model home stressed the arrangement of furniture to secure the best heat and light and ways to improve the appearance of a room with table cover, cushions, and curtains.

The five teachers who taught in the Freehold Summer School summarize the following high points of their experience:

1. Children came eagerly.
2. Each child worked at his own level.
3. Living together was emphasized.
4. Every experience became a vehicle of learning.
5. Attitudes were built.
6. Children's fears disappeared.<sup>33</sup>

2. A summer school program in Mt. Pleasant, Michigan, was basically of the same type as that in Freehold, New Jersey. One feature, a nursery school supported by public donations, was unique.

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<sup>33</sup>Louisa R. Shotwell "Young Migrants in School," Survey, 85:267-270, May, 1949.

It was thought that the nursery school would serve the purpose of releasing children from "baby sitting". Added enrollment was the result.<sup>34</sup>

3. In Rocky Ford, Colorado, it was the addition of a bi-lingual teacher of Spanish, together with home visitation, which served to raise both morale and attendance. Other Latin-American teachers were desired.<sup>35</sup>

4. In the Junior High School of Wapato, Washington, a "core program" was tried. Each child was given one-half day in his home-room, and the other half day was devoted to mathematics, art, music, and gym. No exact understanding of the meaning of "core" was established at first with the Wapato teaching staff. Much discussion with the teachers served to reduce that cause of difficulty. The situation was clarified, but it was realized that progress would be slow.<sup>36</sup>

5. Enriched classroom procedures were advocated to replace practices of segregation in both California and Texas.<sup>37</sup>

6. In New York, child care centers were found. These were under the state and growers' association. No formal education was involved, but well run nursery and play schools were in operation.<sup>38</sup>

7. The Home Missions Council was providing services in twenty-three states. Teachers were being added to its summer staff.<sup>39</sup>

A complete report was not intended in this section of the paper.

The purpose was to indicate the spread of effort, objectives, and variety of measures attempted in the United States.

<sup>34</sup>Francis Martin, "Spring and the Migrants," Educational Leadership, 8:394-8, April, 1951.

<sup>35</sup>William W. Wattenberg, "Education Is No Local Matter," School Executive, 68: 58-9, January, 1948.

<sup>36</sup>Herman Kramer, Gordon Rutherford, and Dave Willis, "Teacher Education Experiments in Community Services," School and Society, pp. 361-3, December, 1950.

<sup>37</sup>Louisa Shotwell, "Young Migrants in School," Survey, 85:269, May, 1949.

<sup>38</sup>Ibid., p. 270.

<sup>39</sup>Shotwell, Loc. Cit.

Special services. With each of the outstanding experiments, it was found that civic organizations, councils, and clubs were working hand in hand with school programs. Some contributions of these groups were: (1) health and recreation programs, (2) financing of nursery schools, (3) granting special services, and (4) working toward better citizenship. Public responsibility was definitely accepted.

### CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were reached from the study of library materials pertinent to agricultural migrants:

1. It was evident that the need to aid agricultural migrants was recognized by people in many areas of the United States.
2. Acceptance of individual and community responsibility was shown by the organizations which cooperated with special school programs.
3. Maintenance of health standards and housing requirements was indicated as a possible community responsibility.
4. General concern for keeping the number of seasonal migrants constant to meet the actual yearly labor needs of an agricultural area was expressed.
5. Public support (State and Federal) was considered essential to solving the problem.
6. Accordance of the rights of citizens to be a part and to participate in community and state affairs was thought to be necessary.
7. Control of migration to "level of need" and its redirection to "areas of need" was considered valuable.
8. The need for reeducation of the people of this nation to an understanding of the value of the labor of the migrant was shown.

## EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

General implications for America. The aspects of the study related to the needs of the children of the agricultural migrants have led to the following educational implications:

1. Education owes meaningful instruction to every child.
2. More need for experimentation was indicated. Successes, thus far, were considered hopeful signs.
3. Education was believed to be the agency by which the public could be led to see the responsibility it must shoulder.
4. Democracy "at work in the classroom" was thought to be the best plan for teaching the meaning of the term.
5. Planning for coordination in instruction, in school record transfers, and in other ways was thought advantageous to pupil progress.
6. Enforced school attendance was believed to be an important means of attacking the problem. The "customers" must first be assembled before a "bill of goods" can be sold.
7. Adult education seemed an avenue to smoother and more rapid progress in developing public relations between schools and agricultural migrants.
8. Children of regular citizens were in need of gaining valid concepts of group acceptance.

General implications for the local Yakima Valley scene. The implications which the author considered to have possible value for use in the schools of Yakima Valley were:

1. Each teacher of migrant children has an opportunity to experiment and possibly to add to some phase of knowledge related to the problem.
2. Segregation of these children was considered inadvisable unless a small group was isolated temporarily to be given as much help as possible in a particular area of need.

3. Discussing the situation with teachers in other schools was thought to be one way in which ideas might be exchanged to the mutual benefit of all concerned.

4. Special emphasis should be placed on building a background of Yakima Valley experiences for migrant children which could be utilized in learning situations.

5. The keeping of comprehensive cumulative records was thought to be a means of gaining a longitudinal picture over a period of years.

6. Home visitation by the teacher, with an interpreter if necessary, in cases of illness or serious problems was indicated as a method of establishing a bond of mutual interest.

7. The teacher's task was believed to be one of planning subject matter experiences so that each child could enjoy some measure of success.

8. The building of democratic attitudes was considered an important part of each day's work.

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