A Handbook on Latin America for Teachers: Methodology and Annotated Bibliography.

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A product of a 1968 Title III National Defense Education Act Pilot Workshop on Teaching Latin American Cultural Themes, this booklet is designed to (1) further the cause of Latin American understanding in Spanish, social studies, and elementary school classes, (2) to be used in future workshops, and (3) serve as a model for similar handbooks involving other cultures. Part 1 is composed of seven methodologically oriented articles in which developments in this area of study are anticipated. Topics treated are--(1) new instructional aims for social studies, (2) pertinency in Latin American studies, (3) the culture capsule and political simulation techniques, (4) guidelines for a well-articulated sociocultural understanding addition to existing language programs, (5) culture test item validation and measurement techniques, and (6) the rationale for measurement of acculturational abilities in individuals. Part 2 consists of a 200-item annotated bibliography on Latin America developed by 16 scholars representing seven academic disciplines. (AF)
A Handbook on Latin America for Teachers

METHODOLOGY AND ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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PREFACE

In-service teacher training workshops provide opportunities for teachers to maintain contact with other professionals to establish educational goals and devise methods and techniques leading to improvement of instruction. They are an extension of the colleges and universities in that they present the latest developments in academic research. Their structure relates to the school classroom by giving practical suggestions on the most effective ways to present facts and concepts, as well as to build skills, in the subject matter classes. It follows that workshops, sponsored by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, would be those requested by school personnel to meet their specific needs.

Foreign language instruction has occupied an important place in the curriculum of schools that offer quality educational programs. Teachers and administrators have been dissatisfied with the results that have often been obtained. The students have not always become fluent in the language studied. Many who attained fluency often lacked the cultural insights and cultural referents that should have been marked as prime goals of their foreign language study. Teachers have lacked the background necessary to present properly current cultural material. Many texts failed to furnish adequate cultural materials. A pilot workshop titled “Teaching Cultural Themes of Latin America” was designed, through the cooperation of the staff of Northern Illinois University and this Office, to give resourceful teachers an annotated bibliography, interdisciplinary concepts, and the methodology to further the cause of Latin American understanding in Spanish, social studies, and elementary classes. This handbook is designed to be used in future workshops and to serve as a model for handbooks involving other cultures.

Ray Page
Superintendent of Public Instruction
INTRODUCTION

This Handbook had its beginning in a Title III, NDEA Pilot Workshop on Teaching Cultural Themes of Latin America which was held at Northern Illinois University in the spring of 1968 for experienced teachers of social studies and Spanish. The Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois acted as an ideal padrino to its publication; while gracefully picking up the tab of expenses, it refrained from any and all forms of censorship. The opinions expressed here, then, obviously cannot pretend to reflect the opinions or policy of the Illinois Department of Public Instruction. As is always ultimately the case, the person who writes the opinion is the one responsible for its soundness. This booklet is designed for NDEA workshop directors and participants, and teachers of Spanish and social studies.

The Handbook enjoyed the freedom which comes from not having to worry about the marketability or commercial appeal of its contents. We took chances. A few of the articles are directed to rather limited numbers of important readers, and few readers will find all of the articles of equal interest. Some articles are meant to be suggestive in a general theoretical way, while others are more specific and immediate in their appeal. An attempt was made to anticipate some of the developments in the pedagogy of Latin American studies, rather than rest safely on the "tried'n true."

This manual can be divided into two parts: the first contains six articles on methodology, and the second part consists of an annotated bibliography. The first chapter introduces recent sources of ideas concerning the aims of social studies instruction. The chapter argues that subject matter content should be regarded as a means to an end, and that content should not be learned for its own sake. Content itself has no intrinsic value if it does not develop new attitudes and skills. The essence of this new approach is not to guide students into a solution of teacher-presented problems, but rather to stimulate students to formulate questions which can then be brought into sharper focus through a manipulation of content. Dr. Esteves points out that problem solving often leads to pat prefabricated solutions to problems which are problems precisely because they do not have easy solutions—or perhaps because they don't have any solutions.

The second chapter applies the philosophy of using content as a means to an end. As an example of how a teacher might organize a unit around a "pertinent" topic, six "key ideas" are borrowed from the University of Texas Latin American Curriculum Project. Content material appearing in about 35 publications which are included in the annotated bibliography is then organized under the appropriate "key idea," thus providing ready sources which bear upon an idea of some consequence.

The fruitful collaboration of a Spanish teacher with an anthropologist produced an unusually seminal article which was published seven years ago in the Modern Language Journal and is reprinted here. "Culture Capsules" presents a rather detailed outline of aspects of Latin American culture which the language teacher can develop in brief daily lessons at the end of his regular Spanish class. The authors stress that the point of these "capsules" should be confined to one minimal difference between Latin and Anglo customs.

A very recent revision and summary of the promising attempt to develop guidelines to help determine which cultural data should be included at the various language levels is summarized in Chapter Four.

Chapter Five offers an introduction into a controversial technique which is rapidly gaining the attention of social studies teachers: political simulation. The authors of this chapter are themselves working on the frontier of knowledge in this area and are able to authoritatively provide a preliminary "map" of the game.

The last two chapters both concern themselves with testing cultural knowledge. The first article emphasizes the need to document the validity of the culture patterns a teacher wants to test, and a system of evaluating the "credibility" of these patterns is suggested. Teachers are encouraged to venture into uncommon test formats. The last chapter suggests rationale which will enable a social scientist to measure the degree of acculturation of a North American living abroad by use of an objective test which requires the North American to recognize Latin American cultural forms. The prerequisites of such a test are discussed in some detail.

The second half of the Handbook consists of an annotated bibliography of some 200 recent publications. Sixteen scholars representing seven different academic disciplines collaborated in this undertaking. The reader who feels overwhelmed by the number of books reviewed in the bibliography might take consuelo in learning that none of the annotators has read all of the books, either. Nor is it necessary to read them all in order to gain an understanding of Latin America. The reader will find the bibliography helpful as an aid to selecting recent titles on aspects of Latin America which interest him.

Besides those who directly collaborated in the production of this manual, the editor would like to express gratitude to the following: Dr. Mary Louise Seguel (Dept. of Education, Northern Illinois University); Dr. Robert L. Morgenroth (Head of the
Department of Foreign Languages, Northern Illinois University); Dr. Paul E. Woods (Title III, NDEA Director, Illinois); and a special gracias to Mr. Derald Merriman (Assistant Director, Title III, Modern Languages) for his encouragement, and to Mr. James C. Andrews (Library Director, Argonne National Laboratories) for helpful tutelage in editing the bibliography. Appreciation is also due Miss Noreen G. Johnson, Miss Susanne Mosel, and Miss Patricia A. Vanthournout for providing the bibliographic index which appears in Chapter Two. Able clerical assistance was volunteered by Miss Lydia Diaz, Miss Pamela A. Janousek, Miss Vikki Mazzotti, Mrs. Ellen Mia Milas, and especially Mrs. Anne M. Rebuck, Mrs. Helen Rivera and Mrs. Grace Meyer who ably assisted with the proofreading. This is a Title III, National Defense Education Act, publication.

H. Ned Seelye
DeKalb, Illinois
July 1968
CHAPTER ONE

A PROBLEM-FINDING APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES

O. P. Esteves

In his discussion of the “curriculum revolution” taking place in American schools today, Fenton (1967:1-5) advances three possible reasons for the late arrival of social studies to the 10-year-old curricular reform movement. About five years ago, Fenton states, this movement reached the social studies when three developments converged: (1) the educational community saw that the social studies program had failed to keep pace with curricular reform in science and mathematics—yet the world’s most pressing problems—war, population explosion, race relations—all fell within the social studies area; (2) new knowledge about the way in which children learn demanded new materials of instruction and new techniques; and finally, (3) money from private foundations and the government became available to support research.

Fenton’s reasons may “reasonably” account for the state of affairs involving the teaching of social studies in the past few years. Furthermore, even a superficial inspection into what has been proposed under the name of “new social studies programs” clearly indicates that most specialists who subscribe to Fenton’s diagnosis of the situation tend to replace the all-inclusive history-based approach by either one or a combination of several social science disciplines, such as anthropology, economics, political science, and sociology. Hence, most of what is claimed to be “new” in both methodology and materials for social studies seem to have these features in common (Leinwand 1966:412-14):

a) the curriculum of the social studies is defined as process and structure;
b) the student’s role is viewed as that of a social scientist; and
c) the social studies area is promoted to the status of a behavioral science.

If the teaching of social studies is to have any impact on the lives of students trying to cope, understand, and eventually contribute to the resolution of the most pressing social problems, one might start by questioning whether social studies education can ever achieve the hoped for objectivity implicit in the above statements.

Despite the obscurity and ambiguity which permeate this type of educational discourse, neither the one-sided nor the interdisciplinary approaches of social scientists will be able to help teachers even get off the ground. Leinwand’s comments on the Queen’s statement in Alice in Wonderland illustrate the point here:

“Now, here, you see, it takes all the running you can do to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere you must run at least twice as fast” (1966:412).

Leinwand concludes by saying that most of the curriculum bulletins, though they use the vocabulary of the new social studies, appear to be running twice as fast while essentially staying in the same place.

In the first place, the lack of one or more, but at least one, comprehensive theory unifying the structure of the social or behavioral sciences is sufficient to preclude the approach to social studies from the point of view of the social sciences. Needless to say, the simple addition of more fragmented information will not produce integrated knowledge in the minds of students. More important, however, even if such theories built around conceptual organizations, structures, or logical systems were available in the various social or behavioral sciences, the so-called knowledge explosion would be enough to maintain—if not widen—the knowledge gap which has already accelerated the treadmill on which we run.

There must be a better way! A more comprehensive approach to the teaching of social studies from the point of view of both teacher and students must exist.

New methods and updated social science content are necessary but not sufficient to improve social studies curriculum and instruction. A redefinition of means-and-ends relationships in teaching and learning seems to be in order. The position advocated by an increasingly large number of educators, for whom Shaver (1967:589) may serve as the spokesman, is that social studies education is general education. The continuous nature of the social studies program—intended for all students from kindergarten through high school—makes explicit the intention that all youth in American schools are to be prepared for increasing reflective and effective participation in social living. However, to be other than disastrous, citizen contributions to the formation of public policies are contingent upon a real understanding of the practical realities of democratic process.

In fact, contrary to assumptions often made by teachers (especially at the high school level), students are concerned with, and quite capable of, discussing
intelligently pressing social issues. Those involved in curriculum work such as that carried out by the Harvard Project (Oliver and Shaver 1966) have found that high school students' concern with social problems is more realistic than teachers in the past have expected it to be. The Harvard Project has identified questions which are both vital to the functioning of a pluralistic society and meaningful to securing the interest and involvement of youngsters. Consider, for example, the following questions: What relations with minority groups should be forced on members of the society? What are the responsibilities of the rich to the poor, and of the poor to themselves? How should we balance economic strength with humanitarian notions of equality?

The social studies curriculum, originally based on history and geography, extends itself to the whole world, not just to the United States and its society. What is the basic reason for studying Latin America, or any other countries, their peoples and cultures, from an anthropological, sociological, economical, or political viewpoint? The underlying reason should be the same, whatever the country: to enable students to understand the human condition in these countries and to appreciate other peoples' efforts to cope with problems which concern all human beings.

If social studies is to contribute to the more general educational objective delineated above, then more than new methodology and up-to-date materials are needed. In the first place, a different attitude on the part of the teacher is necessary, one which uses the important concepts and contents of the social sciences to accomplish a different end. It is an attitude of problem solving toward knowledge while furthering inquiry, questioning, and doubting. To use Bruner's words (1968:69–72, 89–90), the education sought in social studies today must be one that centers on “problem-finding, not problem-solving.” Problem solving easily degenerates into problem giving in the hands of teachers anxious to measure learning by the number of lines students can regurgitate at the end of a given course. To prevent this real but unfortunate outcome of instruction, teachers must adopt a different attitude toward the use of the subject matter they teach; they must use subject matter as means to an end, not an end in itself.

The bibliography at the end of this chapter is offered as an introduction to current materials on social studies and methods of inquiry. It is hoped that these resources will bridge the gap between the old and the new social studies by providing impetus and direction for high school teachers. In the next chapter, H. Ned Seelye will make some suggestions on how the new approach argued in this chapter can be applied to the teaching of Latin America. Utilization of the inquiry method in social studies is not dependent upon (although it is enhanced by) expensive books, machines, and audiovisual materials. The attitude of the teacher is the focal point of the new social studies. As stated by Goldmark (1968:221):

My hope is that social studies teachers will go into their schools with the commitment to ongoing, doubting, questioning, evaluating, and reconstructing, and attempt to foster this commitment in their students.
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR TEACHERS
OF HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES


ADDITIONAL SOURCES

A list of materials available from the National Council for the Social Studies may be secured by writing to the council at 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

A fairly extensive Review of Curriculum Materials, edited by Dorothy M. Fraser, is found in Social Education, April 1968. Reprints of this are available for 25 cents each from the National Council for the Social Studies (see above).

An Annotated Bibliography of Anthropological Materials for High School Use, by James Gallagher, may be obtained from Anthropology Curriculum Study Project, 5632 So. Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60637.

Help on Simulation games may be secured from a regional office of the Foreign Policy Association. Write to Bob G. Henderson, 53 West Jackson Boulevard, Room 740, Chicago, Ill. 60604. Assistance can also be obtained from the authors of the chapter on simulation in this Handbook. See also: Scott 1966 in the annotated bibliography.

Subscription to these periodicals is strongly recommended: Social Education. (1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036); Trans-Action (Circulation Manager, Box 1043A, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. 63130).

* Especially recommended.
A recent survey of the Latin American content in primary and secondary texts concludes that "there is still too much concentration, especially in elementary textbooks, on content which lacks pertinency. Here, the effort to avoid controversy brings an inordinant amount of space to identifying the 'banana' countries, the 'tin' country, the 'old' customs, and too little of the 19th and 20th century reality....political and cultural developments are very inadequately treated" (Perrone 1965:119). The writer goes on to observe that the basic organization of content has not changed in decades; the title headings have remained the same. "What is needed is a total rethinking by scholars and textbook writers of the questions of what is important and what is no longer important as Latin America is studied for understanding."

Is there an irreducible minimum of facts without which Latin America cannot be understood? One poignant study (Gill 1968:4-5) says this about the content of social studies texts:

Names and dates seem to be included indiscriminately. There is a wide range of dates included in the texts, the number varying from zero to eighty-nine, with a median of ten. Of those books which include dates (seven out of the nine examined), no one single date is found in all of them.... The number of names included also varies greatly, ranging from zero to fifty-two, with a median of nine. Of the fifteen names mentioned most frequently in the textbooks, only Porfirio Díaz and Fidel Castro belong to the 20th century.... All books are 1950, or later, editions, yet only three mention leaders in Latin American countries since the Second World War.

Both teachers and textbook writers tend to overestimate the importance of isolated facts. Even the countries most commonly chosen to illustrate Latin America--Mexico and Brazil--"are not representative of Latin America as a whole" (Gill 1968:4). On the other hand, valid generalities which can be applied to the majority of Latin America are difficult to come by (Hanke 1964). As became provocatively evident during the panel discussions of the fourteen Latin American specialists who assisted the recent Title III, NDEA, Pilot Workshop on the Teaching of Latin American Cultural Themes held at Northern Illinois University in the spring of 1968, few experts marshall the same qualifying data to punctuate their often conflicting views. Without some sort of structure or interpretive frame, an isolated "happening" is just not meaningful.

The best test of the pertinency of a fact or opinion is to determine whether it is capable of assisting the student in developing skill in analyzing a problem of some significance. (The types of problems which Dr. Esteves mentions in the last chapter are examples of significant universal concerns.) To gain a clearer idea of how fact and process interact, let us observe a hypothetical student grappling with a problem.

Suppose the student has become interested in the problem of how the self-image, or sense of nationalism, of the Latin American is affected by the mass media. The first thing he might do is make a list of mass media which he thinks might influence the Latin American's view of himself (newspapers, magazines, radio, television). Next, he might ask himself just what facts he would need to know about the media and the people exposed to it in order to arrive at some conclusion. He might consider the number of newspapers and magazines and their circulation, the frequency of radios in the homes (or the number of transistor radios sold for a given period), the number of television channels and sets (or the availability of public viewing of TV in store fronts, bars, etc.), and, of course, the content of the media. Two other potentially important bits of information are whether the subjects are literate, and whether the media reaches the consumer in a language he understands. (It may be noted here that none of these facts are of any consequence to someone interested in Aztec religion, for example. Facts become relevant when they become necessary to understanding a problem already defined.) The next operational problem for the student might be to decide whether one country is going to be chosen for study (and if so, which one), or whether the study is going to attempt a generalization about a larger segment of Latin America. This decision moves the student in two directions: to a bibliography, such as the card catalog or the Handbook of Latin American Studies (1967), to discover what materials are readily available; and to think about logical divisions of Latin America (Indian-mestizo-European...
rural-urban; etc.). To send a student to a bibliography before he has defined his problem is probably premature. We see what we are conditioned to see; if the student does not know what he is looking for, chances are he will not notice many relevant items.

At this point, the student’s problem should be put in some sort of order. He defines the problem more specifically, consults the bibliography and lists the relevant titles and the information they yield, arranges the data—and then discovers that he cannot draw any conclusions because he could not collect enough information. About this time, the teacher will probably be hearing from the student, and the teacher can check the student’s sources. If, and let us stick with this extreme case, no more information is available to the student, what has been lost? The “inconclusive” conclusion with which the student is forced to content himself is a lot more realistic than most neat solutions usually presented by textbooks, and has the added advantage of acquainting the student with research techniques. Naturally, teachers will want to guide weak students into defining problems that can afford a sense of accomplishment upon study.

Take a student with no known academic or intellectual accomplishments or interests save two: girls and stealing cars. He might be cajoled into making a scrapbook of clippings of Latin American girls and photos of cars culled from a stack of Mexican magazines. If the teacher is female, there is a good chance that the student will try to test her sophistication with some of the pinups he has collected, so she might want to forget about part of the initial assignment and emphasize the inanimate. Pictures of cars can be catalogued according to make, model, year, number of occupants, whether male or female is driving, type of highway, etc. The student’s summary of this information (number of cars collected, number of females driving, etc.) can be presented to the class to see what kind of “conclusions” (hypotheses) might be ventured concerning the economic structure, transportation facilities, and position of the women in the country based on the data. The class can be asked to suggest other kinds of information which might check the “conclusions” (number of licensed women, number of cars imported annually from Europe, etc.). Some of the South American magazines would be more interesting to old car buffs. Some Peruvian taxis, for example, are virtual antiques. The main pedagogical point in these exercises is to (1) get the student interested in Latin America, (2) direct this interest, step by step, into pertinent areas of concern, and (3) develop his skill in discovering things about peoples and places.

The teacher’s role in a problem-oriented approach, such as this, is to assist the student in defining the problem that interests the student. The more precisely a problem is defined, the less trouble a student will have in researching it, and the more fruitful will be the outcome. (On the other hand, it is not desirable to have the student hung up on background. As would be the case with the car pictures, sometimes it is advisable to jump in and begin manipulating the “documents,” and fill in background as the need arises.) The teacher, with the cooperation of the school librarian, can also guide the student in his bibliographic work. Rather than be told to read a book on the general topic chosen, students should be taught to skim and to read carefully only limited sections which are really relevant to their specific area of interest. Otherwise, the student will fast become bogged down in the fantastic explosion of knowledge which threatens to engulf all scholars, especially those in science and the social sciences. If the student report is to be written, the teacher can offer invaluable assistance and encouragement in the first draft. If the report is presented orally, sympathetic questions can help a student evaluate his own work.

This approach would replace the role of teacher as sabelotodo lecturer, with the role of research assistant to an interested student. This matter of student interest is crucial. An uninterested student edges the teacher into the unprofessional role of baby-sitter. The looming disadvantage of systematically covering “all” of Latin America from Columbus to Castro is that there will inevitably be much which bores the captive students (in addition to there being much that is superficial and misleading). If it is felt necessary to “cover” an area, then it had best be divided into a number of smaller units for students to select from according to their individual interests. Latin America is such an interesting subject that it seems inexcusable to make it boring for students.

Occasionally, pedantic arrogance dictates a certain corpus which has to be taught—but not, perhaps, learned. In an otherwise exciting approach to teaching culture in conjunction with language classes, one recent report says that the programmed approach “assumes first, that the student is not yet ready to take responsibility for directing his own studies, and second, that for the student relatively unversed in the areas being studied, a general survey course approach is indicated. In independent study the student studies what he wishes, when he wishes, and to the extent that he wishes. It was felt that such an approach was not suitable for the typical secondary school student in that it could easily lead to unnecessary specialization in certain areas of private interest at the expense of deplorable lacunae in other important areas” (Regenstreif n.d.:4). While few students are capable of independent study without the guiding direction of a teacher, and while
the programmed mode of operation which Regenstreif advocates is probably justified in this case by practical, operational exigencies, the cry of "deplorable lacunae" should not be taken too seriously.

It is a great aid to functioning in a foreign culture to have special (limited) interests or hobbies related to that culture. Dancing, sports, stamp collecting, movies, books, almost anything (including an interest in the opposite sex) can sustain a person experiencing the "cultural fatigue" of residence abroad. Peace Corps training centers suggest that the volunteers develop areas of private interest for just this reason (see Textor 1966).

Then too, what better way to involve a student with Latin America than by encouraging him to explore something he is already interested in? The more a student becomes willingly involved with Latin America, the more he runs into other areas and problems which he will also find engaging. Lacunae can be filled in at a later date when the need arises. The "typical" secondary student has shown a remarkable resistance to learning anything he is not interested in. Although there are dozens of important topics to study about Latin America, I can think of no one topic which should necessarily be covered in any given high school course on Latin America.

Finally, the teacher who prescribes the parameters of student learning is bound by biases of which he may be only dimly aware. An anthropologically-oriented study will define the basic ideas of Latin America quite differently than an historically-oriented study, for instance. It is difficult to free oneself from the values which one's particular society imposes: and most teachers are middle class whites. This WASP culture most of us have inherited is probably a distinct liability in interpreting much of Latin America (Morse 1964). In fact, the imaginative program directed by Regenstreif states that their programmed units usually serve to "introduce the student to a particular artist, composer, statesman, artistic movement, important historical period, or work of art" (p.2). This seems to be a classic reflection of a humanities bias. Interestingly, one historian has said that "anthropology, in its present state, offers the best point of departure for examining Latin-American culture; literary and historical studies are especially weak" (Morse 1964:106). It is difficult to conceive of a profound understanding of Latin America being achieved through any one discipline; it requires consulting multi-disciplinary sources. One article states the problem for language teachers in these terms:

When the aim of language instruction was to acquaint the student with the

esthet documents of Western literary history, it followed that the cultural content of the course would focus on other esthetic documents, such as music and the plastic arts. Now that the primary aim of most language courses is to improve a student's oral fluency so that he is able to communicate in the foreign language, the traditional role of culture is wholly inadequate. As language has become viewed as a functional tool, so may culture be regarded as a complementary tool to aid the student in functioning in a foreign society (Seelye 1968:24).

Nevertheless, the general approach to teaching culture which Regenstreif is exploring (individual study carrels equipped with slide projector, both silent and sound movie projectors, tape recorders, and containing programmed materials for review during study halls, free time, etc.) is exciting and the results of this work will undoubtedly be of interest to the profession.2

Another approach to teaching culture in the language classroom is outlined in the next chapter. While the authors encourage teachers to prepare brief units on a specific aspect of culture, I would suggest that the exercise become a more active one for the students, and a less active one for the teacher, by having students prepare the materials under the guidance of the teacher. The specificity of the next two chapters should be a real aid to teachers interested in teaching culture in the language classroom. By making the study of culture more pertinent to some of the basic problems in the area, more interest is usually generated in the study of Latin America.

Professor Nostrand proposes that the essentials of the foreign cultural system be organized under headings of a structured inventory which he calls an "emergent model." (The "emergent model" is developed at greater length in Nostrand 1967.) Some 30 headings are grouped under the four large rubrics of The Culture, The Society, The Individual, and the Ecology:

THE EMERGENT MODEL
(with the corresponding categories of Murdock's Outline of Cultural Materials)

I. The Culture (value system, ethos, assumptions about reality, verifiable knowledge, art forms, language, paralanguage and kinesics)

II. The Society (familial, religious, economic-occupational, political and judicial, educational, intellectual-esthetic, recreational, communications, social proprieties)

III. The Individual (integration of the personality, organismic level, intrapersonal and interpersonal valuation, status of: men, women, adolescents, children; intrapersonal conflict)
IV. The Ecology (attitudes toward nature, exploitation of nature, use of natural products, technology, settlements and territorial organization, travel and transportation)

The Latin American Curriculum Project at the University of Texas has further provided the teacher with a suggested outline of concepts central to an understanding of Latin America. Their publication, Key Ideas About Latin America (Bulletin No. 4, 1967), is a fine step toward the eventual resolution of the problem of selecting pertinent themes and facts. Abstracting the main skeletal ideas almost verbatim from this source (the study lists many more facts. Abstracting the main skeletal ideas almost of the problem of selecting pertinent themes and understanding of Latin America. Their publication, with a suggested outline of concepts central to an University of Texas has further provided the teacher...

II. Historical Backgrounds

A. Indian and Spanish cultures interacted to produce a unique colonial society.


B. Spanish colonial administration was highly centralized and authoritarian, and Spanish control was reinforced by the activities of the Church which, under royal patronage, was a wealthy, conservative influence. (Thus, two strong Indian traditions, authoritarian government and pervasive religious influence, were continued.)

Arciniegas 1967:75-110 [Spanish colonies]; Burnett 1968; Hanke 1967b:65 [Chile], 73 [Argentina], 99 [Brazil]; Keen 1967:40-45 [Hispanic background], 138-148 [Church in the Indies], 191-197 [government and church]; Loprete 1965:80-115 [colonial society]; Schurz 1964:33-50 [colonial empire]; Urefia 1966: 19:27 [discovery and colonization], 28-42 [colonial culture]; Veliz 1968:6-7 [Argentina], 22 [Bolivia], 41-43 [Brazil], 75-76 [Colombia], 101-3 [Paraguay], 127-8 [Uruguay], 150 [Mexico], 168 [British Honduras], 175 [Costa Rica], 227-8 [Panama], 241-3 [Cuba], 301 [Puerto Rico].

C. The wars for independence in Spanish America had complex causes and in some areas were also civil wars. The legacy of the colonial period and the wars for independence persisted in varying degrees.


E. Economic diversification and development have been sporadic and uneven, with far-reaching economic, social, and political effects. (See Section V.)


A. Population distribution and growth rates vary within and among nations.


D. A major political crisis in the new nations was the conflict of interests among rural landowners, rising middle class, and the peasant and urban masses.

B. Latin American populations are racially mixed, and although reliable statistics on racial composition are impossible to obtain, several groups of countries with similar population characteristics may be identified.


C. Relations among the many ethnic groups vary from nation to nation although in general there tends to be less overt racial discrimination and hostility than in the U.S.

D. Upper and lower sectors or classes may be identified with more mobility within than between. Various socioeconomic groups may be more specifically identified as peasants and rural laborers, urban working class, urban unemployed, urban middle class, landed upper class, and business-oriented, urban upper class.


E. The extended family, including several generations and extensive lateral relationships, is of considerable importance in all sectors of Latin American society.


IV. Contemporary Culture: Values, Ideals, and Creative Expression

A. Culturally, "Latin America" is a varying blend of diverse Indian, Spanish-European, African, and, more recently, North American elements.


B. Several common Latin American traits or values may be identified, although there are variations among nations and within them (individualism, personalism, formalism, fatalism).


C. Cultural conflict characterizes much of Latin America as a result of changes associated with industrialization, urbanization, secularization, and emergence of the middle class, and new ideologies.


D. Values, goals, and ideals are illustrated in Latin America's art, architecture, music, and literature.

E. Religion. The role of the Roman Catholic Church in Latin America is changing as society becomes more secular.


F. Education is for the elite and does not provide the trained personnel necessary for socioeconomic progress; with 50% of the population under 20 years of age—less than 20% were in school in 1965.


VI. Contemporary Economies

A. Economic development is of primary concern throughout Latin America. The problem is to raise per capita income and improve the welfare of a large population which is growing more rapidly than that of any other world region.


B. In addition to industrial development, and related to general economic progress, are the problems of inflation, taxation, government spending, and government's role in the economy.

VI. Contemporary Politics, Government, and International Relations

A. Given the lack of preparation for representative government, acceptance of military rule and thinly disguised dictatorship, uneven economic development, internal disunity, and defensive nationalism, it is not surprising that the Latin American republics do not tend to be republics in practice and that they are often unstable.


B. Although Latin American governments are not Western-style democracies, personalist rule is fading, and responsible political parties are developing. (However, political stability remains the exception.)


C. Latin America's political future appears to depend upon the ability of moderate and liberal leaders to attract mass support and carry out basic reforms in the face of vested-interest opposition and extremist agitation.

D. United States-Latin American relations have been characterized by alternating periods of U.S. interest and neglect, conflict and cooperation, within a general atmosphere of increasing U.S. concern with Latin America. Anti-Americanism is an inevitable aspect of United States-Latin American relations.


FOOTNOTES

1. A fine handbook devoted to the postage stamps of Guatemala is scheduled for publication late in 1968 by Robson Lowe Ltd., 50 Pall Mall, London, S.W. 1, Great Britain. The pre-publication price will be $17.50; after publication $20.00.

2. For further information write to Foreign Language Innovative Curricula Studies, Title III, ESEA, 550 City Center Building, 220 E. Huron, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48108.


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CHAPTER THREE

CULTURE CAPSULES

H. Darrel Taylor
John L. Sorenson

For many years foreign language teachers across America have tried to bring into their classrooms a "feeling" for the peoples whose language they teach. These attempts have most often stressed the refinement definition of culture, drawing from the fine arts and folklore. There is a place in the classroom for culture in this sense and there are many fine materials available.

No concerted effort has been made within the teaching profession or by commercial firms to produce materials for a comparison of cultures in the anthropological sense. Nelson Brooks (1960) has written on the theory of comparison of cultures in a chapter entitled, "Language and Culture." Robert Lado (1957) has a valuable chapter on "How to Compare Cultures." Worthwhile insights on the importance of an anthropological orientation to the study of culture are contained in these books. What follows suggests a method of procedure for the production of short, meaningful programs using this view of culture for application in the ordinary foreign language classroom. A handy title for these programs might be "Culture Capsule." These culture capsules can be constructed so that any teacher, new or experienced, may present them easily, and his students may all participate meaningfully.

In order that the procedures described below may be specific rather than general, it will be assumed that the problem is a comparison between the cultures of Mexico and the United States. Of course, the application of these ideas to a description of cultural differences between the United States and any other foreign language area is obvious.

We do not aim to give a complete and rounded picture of life in Mexico. The culture capsule technique tries to select those key cultural differences which are especially difficult for the outsider to understand on the basis of his own life experiences. Good examples from Mexico are the patron system, latifundio, donship or the curandero. The functional equivalents of these patterns in life in the U.S.A. are likely to seem to the American student as so "natural" or "obvious" that he finds it difficult to think of Mexicans as other than "quaint" or worse. Each culture capsule draws attention to one such difference and shows how it is meaningful in terms of Mexican life. The whole integrated sequence of capsules over the period of a year sketches a picture of what it is like to be Mexican, showing that the customs make concatenated sense.

When we realize that there may be thousands of contrasting cultural features, the question arises, "How shall we decide which are more important than others?" Obviously, only a restricted number can be dealt with in a classroom course in Spanish or any other language. Our approach to this problem derives from the functional view of culture virtually held by all anthropologists. Culture is thought of as the more or less integrated, historically-derived system of symbols in the minds of the members of a society by which they interpret their experiences and predict the behavior of their fellows. This view emphasizes what culture does in the lives of people.

All patterns of regular, socially-approved behavior within the cultural system shared by members of a society more or less influenced all the other patterns of the system. The result is to produce a consistent, intelligible world in which the individual can carry on a psychologically meaningful existence. Failure to consider any one sector of the culture is likely to give the student a distorted view of why Mexicans, or any other group, act as they do. One listing of the various categories or sectors to which attention should be drawn in the study of any culture is as follows: Technology, Economy, Social Organization, Political Organization, World View (Religion and Philosophy), Esthetics, and Education. We believe that by being presented the key cultural contrasts for each of these categories on the language level which the student of Spanish has come to understand, he will be well on the way to both understanding and to sympathetic appreciation of the Mexican people.

The order of consideration of the categories has some significance. While no one order is sacred, there appears an advantage in starting with those areas where concrete phenomena dominate, such as Technology, only later progressing to the more abstract sectors, such as World View. That general progression can be observed below in the sample outline. There, words or phrases are used to suggest, rather than to elaborate, contrasting cultural patterns which, students of Mexican culture would no doubt agree, differ significantly from American patterns. The list does not exhaust the possibilities.

We begin the outline with a "subcultural" category of contrasts in biological, geographical and historical features all of which are instructive for the student interested in cultural differences. It may prove desirable to omit them or relocate their position in the scheme of categories as actual
experience in the classroom permits us to judge better their value.

I. Subcultural category

A. Biological characteristics of the people (skin color, stature, common diseases, etc.)
B. Resources category (lack of coal, lack of extensive plains for cultivation, ores, oil, large unused territories, water power, climatic variety, etc.)
C. Geographical category
   1. Latin America not a homogeneous unit
   2. Mexico not a homogeneous unit
   3. Slowness of knowledge to penetrate due partly to distance
   4. Comparative distances and expenses to ship to population centers like Europe
D. Historical category
   1. Spain’s Catholic-Mediterranean position
   2. The age of discovery and Spain’s place in it
   3. The conquest in America
   4. The Colonial era
   5. The Republican era
   6. The Modern era

II. Technological category

A. Food-getting and using
   1. Cultivation and the major crops
   2. Preparing, serving, and eating typical foods
B. Shelter-Housing (the patio form, barred windows, fronting on street)
C. Clothing
   1. Forms: rebozo, serape, blouse, no shoes, broad-brim hat, etc.
   2. Age, class and ethnic significance of costume
D. Tools
   1. Human or animal power, not power machines, typical
   2. Hand crafts and equipment being replaced by industry
E. Transportation
   1. Ass, oxen, humans most common
   2. Increasing auto, bus, rail and air travel
   3. Regionalism as related to transportation

III. Economic organization category

A. Self-subsistence of the family, normal; specialization rare
B. Haciendas ( latifundio)
C. Patron system
D. Agrarian reform (ejidoc, etc.)
E. Merchandizing system (markets, tiendas)
F. Braceros
G. Turismo

IV. Social organization category

A. Kinship, family, and marriage
   1. Kin cooperation and in-law relations
   2. Courtship, the dueña system
   3. Inheritance, including names
B. Race and ethnicity
   (mestizo, creole, indio, gachupín, etc.)
C. Locality groupings
   1. The village, colonia, and so on as a loyalty unit
   2. Ecology of the community, most prestigious residence near the plaza; the plaza itself
   3. The contrast between rural and urban life—ed.
D. Interest and function groupings
   1. Classes (occupation, income, education, mobility, etc.)
   2. Donship
   3. Compadrazgo
   4. “The Church” vs. the State (anticlericalism, monastic orders, convents) Protestantism

V. Political organization category

A. Law
   1. Roman law basis
   2. Personal violence, aggression, the duel
B. Government
   1. The Caudillo
   2. Caciquismo
   3. Single political party and elections
   4. The military as a locus of power
   5. Right to revolt (and “The Revolution”)
   6. Yanqui-baiting
   7. Syndicalismo
   8. La Mordida

VI. World View category

A. View of God or the supernatural
   1. God, devil, Mary, demons, etc.
   2. Virgen de Guadalupe
   3. Patron saints
   4. Sickness and curing
      (a) causes: espanto, evil eye, los aires, hot and cold
      (b) curanderos
   5. Sorcery
B. View of man
   1. Personal honor
   2. Male superior to female (“macho”)
   3. Self-improvement concept virtually absent (Sensuality or relaxation vs. Puritanism)
   4. Distant, jealous, suspicious relationships outside kin or village
   5. Logic, dialectic are superior to empiricism, pragmatism
C. View of society and nation
   1. Heroes: Cuauhtemoc, Malinche, Montezuma, Cortés, Juárez, etc.
considered to be cruel to the bull, it
Spanish for classroom
North American. Although it would be written in
the cultural difference between
capsule of summary description
the student has studied in
these topics into a practical
of the lexical and structural items in
Spanish which is carefully prepared to be on the level
with culture content,
system is intended primarily
the phrasing in Spanish of
of sophistication of the ideas
while the introductory-level
student could go into considerable
use, an example (the bullfight)
it could be a miniature of the bullfighter's
formula for classroom presentation is
a script in simple
Spanish which
is to be
illustrated by a few
well-selected posters, filmstrips or slides, and at least
one item of realia. This three-dimensional object
should be very carefully chosen and must epitomize
the positive side of the comparison. In our example,
it could be a miniature of the bullfighter's costume --
thing of beauty -- suit of lights as the Spanish call
it! All these visual aids are presented by the teacher
as he reads the script in the foreign language and are
appropriately distributed in the presentation.
If the script uses cognates or place names which
do not come within the lexical experience of the
class, each of these should be printed in bold black
letters on a separate "poster card" about 6" X 10" in
size and placed on the board (groove, felt, black,
The presentation probably should not last more than ten minutes. It should be self-contained and limited to ONE MINIMAL DIFFERENCE. All the talent and energies of the programmer should be directed to a simple statement of the essential difference and selection of the audiovisual aids which illustrate these dramatically. Pauses during the presentation to allow the students to study the aids are worth more than many extra words.

Once the culture capsule has been presented by the teacher and heard by the students, questions are asked by the teacher. The students are allowed to make brief notes as the culture capsule is presented but have no script to follow as the teacher reads. These questions are of two types: rhetorical and "open-ended."

The rhetorical questions are so phrased that the student must answer only "yes" or "no" and then repeat the words used in the question. For example: Q: Do Mexicans enjoy bullfights? A: Yes, Mexicans enjoy bullfights.

The difficulties of speaking the foreign language are enough for many students, without requiring them to contribute or remember ideas not suggested directly by a rhetorical question.

The "open-ended" questions are phrased in such a way that the student may supply one or more items of information on his own. Example: Q: How does a Mexican think of the bull? A: He thinks of the bull as a wild animal.

These questions are asked of the students who have a better control of the language. They lead to discussion of the important difference being studied. Envolvement of all the students in a discussion after the presentation of a culture capsule is of vital importance to this system.

Experienced and well-traveled teachers probably have many pictures, slides, and realia which they use in their classes. Nevertheless, these are generally presented as a "change of pace" device and are not integrated into the total foreign language learning experience according to the level of development of the students. Many times the requirements of extracurricular activities keep a teacher from organizing the material he does have so they will accomplish a specific purpose. New teachers are at a great disadvantage in this phase of teaching.

The paraphernalia for any culture capsule can be devised so that it will fit into a shoe box and can be shelved library-style for cooperative use by many teachers. Thus, a new teacher would be able to bring to his classes cultural information with about the same frequency and preparation as an experienced teacher. On each shoe box containing the aids and script for a culture capsule, there could appear a label with the following information: 1) the machines (tape, phonograph, film projector, etc.) needed to present the audiovisual aid; 2) topic and title of the culture capsule; and 3) the level of progress for which written. For example, there might be six culture capsules on kin relationships. The first geared to the level of beginning students; the second, for use near the end of the first year's study; and the third, for the beginning of a second year of study, etc.

Summer workshops in foreign language pedagogy could be encouraged to develop the materials for new culture capsules. In less populated areas, a clearing house for these could be set up in State Councils of Foreign Language Teachers, or State Federations of Foreign Language Clubs. In more populated areas a central library of culture capsules could be worked out on a district or even a single school basis.

The culture capsule can normally be presented as a self-contained pedagogical unit in part of one class period (although two or three might be tied together into a larger unit if they are particularly related to each other). If this is done a minimum of once a week during the school year of 36 weeks, even these 36 culture capsules would go a long way toward bringing knowledge of the realities of life in a foreign land to students of the foreign language. Elaboration of the capsules in a second year of study would lead to expanded knowledge but within a consistent framework.

FOOTNOTES

1. This article originally appeared in Modern Language Journal 45, December 1961, pp. 350-354, and is reprinted here with the kind permission of Dr. Sorenson and the editor of the MLJ.

2. Immediately after publication much interest was shown by language teachers in "culture capsules", and Dr. Taylor began to systematically prepare materials for classroom use. But a year later, with tragic prematurity, Dr. Taylor was killed in a vehicle accident while accompanying a troop of boy scouts on an outing. The loss to the profession which Darrell Taylor's death irrevocably presents is difficult to appreciate by one who did not know him personally; as a former student of his, the clarity of the stature and dynamics of the man, and the magnitude of the loss, have not been diminished by the intervening years. HNS

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CHAPTER FOUR

LEVELS OF SOCIOCULTURAL UNDERSTANDING FOR LANGUAGE CLASSES

Howard Lee Nostrand

Foreign language teachers in the United States owe an apology to students who are thwarted by indefensible sequences — an up-staircase whose risers vary from two inches to three feet. We have it in our power to design a well-articulated sequence, not only within any one school or college, but also between institutions. Coordination on this larger scale becomes necessary as the mobility of the population increases, causing more and more students to change schools.

But coordination among free agents must rest on agreement. One logical road toward a consensus is to propose, for voluntary adoption by schools and colleges, a standard of achievement to be expected of the learner at each successive level. For the purpose of articulating such a sequence of standards, the specified “terminal behavior” at each level may be subdivided into seven components: the four language skills, including the paralanguage (intonation, speech rhythm, and the like); language analysis; acquaintance with the foreign people’s literature; and understanding of the people’s culture and social structure.

Not only will learners of different ages progress at different average rates — and ideally, both the pace and the sequence of instruction will be individualized for each learner — but we must expect different profiles of proficiency for the several age groups and for individual learners. In general, young children will excel in imitating speech spontaneously; older learners will excel in reading, writing and analyzing.

We cannot say at present how much understanding of a culture can be taught along with the language on a given “Level” because we simply have not tried any sufficiently planned entry, reentry and sequential development of sociocultural content. The Washington (State) Foreign Language Program is working on this problem with demonstration classes which are using the course developed at Saint-Cloud and published by Chilton, Voix et Images de France.

What ultimately proves feasible at each Level will depend on how important we collectively judge cross-cultural understanding to be. It will also depend on how well this achievement stimulates motivation to study the language and literature, and how well it serves as a basis for successful communication with speakers of the target language.

One cannot visualize, even tentatively, what can be accomplished by the end of Level II, for example, unless one has in mind a notion of what will have been done in Level I. And one will want to have in mind what ought to be rounded out in Levels III and IV, in order to say what ought to be completed in Level II.

The persons listed in footnote 1 agreed to serve as members of a temporary committee on the problem. They were shown the statement borrowed from the North Carolina guidelines draft, Levels I through IV. Mrs. Tora T. Ladu, State Supervisor of Foreign Languages, generously permitted this use of the draft, and a modified form of the draft is embodied in this report. The committee members were asked to elaborate the statement for Level II, and the chairman of the committee has undertaken to put together the thoughtful replies he received.

Some members of the committee have thought the North Carolina statement for Level II was overambitious; others, that it called for less than is needed. In reconciling the responses, therefore, two versions of the standard have been distinguished: “minimal” and “desirable”. We should set the standard as high as we can, in view of the many students who still do not go beyond Level II of any foreign language. The minimal standard may in fact be needed by some schools, at least for a few years, as a step toward a program which will meet the desirable standard. Meanwhile the lower standard may be useful as a core of understanding that can be counted on, if no more can be assured in the near future, for the purpose of so constructing courses and tests that students will no longer be the victims of bad articulation as they transfer from one school system or from one teacher to another.

Dr. Jerald Green, a member of the committee, has argued convincingly that the reader needs to have in mind, finally, the practical procedures proposed for integrating the teaching of cross-cultural understanding into the teaching of the language. For only against this background can a teacher judge the feasibility of solving the pedagogical problems, supposing that we would be able to produce the knowledge of what can most truthfully be said about a culture.

The present report assumes that the insights it calls for are not to occasion any use of English in class; and that the insights called for will be taught through a combination of (1) audiolingual dialogues, presented orally and audiovisually, embodying significant social situations and cultural manifestations as well as language structures; (2)
homework exercises, in English at first, explaining the patterns and key terms; (3) simple but good literature (including a few popular songs) presented on tape, in filmed recitations, or in print; (4) class discussions based on the homework exercises and kept within the students' capacity to use the foreign language; (5) optional reading in related fields of individual interest, from sources suggested in the homework instructions and available at the school or public library; (6) planned coordination between the foreign language sequence and the concomitant and prior sequences: (a) the history sequence, (b) the social studies sequence (particularly for concepts used in analyzing a sociocultural system), (c) the language arts sequence (English and American literature in their sociocultural as well as world-literature context), (d) music, (e) art, (f) the manual arts (styles and the artisan tradition in the foreign society), and (g) cooking and sewing.2

PROPOSED STANDARDS FOR LEVELS I THROUGH IV

(Revised from Ladu, 1967. See the Partial Bibliography appended to this report.)

Note: Except in Section I.2, where the student's reading and response are to be in English, all of the verbal responses called for are to be in the foreign language, as are the literary texts (and of course the dialogues and songs) referred to.

It is anticipated that on the first Levels, English will be used in a gradually diminishing portion of the homework exercises and background reading or other co-curricular activities. No written response in the language is called for until Level III.

LEVEL I

I.1 Proprieties of the Foreign Culture
The student will be able to describe (in the foreign language), or demonstrate physically, how to behave according to the proprieties of the foreign culture in the following common situations:
Greetings, introducing a person, thanking, saying goodbye, eating (rudiments of table manners), conduct toward persons of one's own and of higher social status. The proprieties include the distinction between formal and informal terms of address; handshaking and any other pertinent kinesic patterns; the avoidance of any conduct considered impolite in these situations.

I.2 Leisure-time activities
The student will be able to describe in English two of the more common leisure-time activities of adolescents in the foreign society.

I.3 Literature
The student will be able to
I.3.1 recite one stanza of a poem
I.3.2 tell simply how it illustrates some aspect of the culture.

I.4 Songs
The student will be able to
I.4.1 sing or recite one stanza of each of three folk songs (may include Christmas carols)
I.4.2 comment simply on the artistic value of the songs and their place in the culture.

LEVEL II

Minimal Standard
The student will be able to do the following in addition to the expectations for Level I:

II.1 Themes of the culture
State orally a simple definition and an illustrative instance for each of any four main themes of the foreign culture.3 The illustrative instance may be a recall or paraphrase of a dialogue or a narrative studied.

For French culture, the teacher could select four of twelve proposed main themes: l'individualisme, l'intellectualité, l'art de vivre, le réalisme, le bon sens, l'amiété, l'amour, la famille, la religion, la justice, la liberté, la patrie.4 Among the main themes of Hispanic culture, the following have been suggested: individualism, dignidad, orientation toward persons, serenidad, beauty, leisure valued over work, human nature mistrusted, "cultura" despite "la realidad del medio," rising expectations.

II.2 Literature
II.2.1 Recite one stanza of a second poem (in addition to the one called for in I.3).
II.2.2 Comment simply on the artistic features and/or historical significance of a prose work or selection, several pages in length, which he has read or has studied on tape in filmed recitation.
II.2.3 State orally how each selection or work studied illustrates some theme(s) or other pattern(s) of the foreign people's culture or social relations.
II.3 Songs
II.3.1 Sing or recite one stanza of a national anthem and one stanza of a contemporary popular song.
II.3.2 Comment simply on the meaning of the songs.

II.4 The family
State orally the salient features of what “the family” means to a middle-class person of the foreign society (e.g., emphasis on parents and children only, or on extended family; typical attitudes or activities illustrating how close the family ties are).

II.5 Education
State orally or illustrate (by instances quoted or paraphrased from dialogues or other materials studied) what “school” means to the learner’s age-mates in the foreign society.

II.6 Interaction with the geographical setting
State orally how the main groups of inhabitants in two contrasting regions, within the culture area, adapt to some main features of their environment, and utilize its resources in the pursuit of their culture’s values.

Desirable Standard
The student will be able to do the following in addition to the Minimal Standard:

II.21 Themes of the culture
II.21.1 Define and illustrate two additional (a total of six) main themes. The definition will go beyond a simple statement to include the stating of a few component value-concepts and underlying assumptions. (See footnote 3, above.)
II.21.2 Recognize obvious manifestations of the six selected themes in an unfamiliar dialogue, literary text, or visual representation of nonverbal behavior.

II.22 Literature
Relate the works studied and their authors (if known) to a type of art form and/or a moment of sociocultural history.

II.23 Songs
II.23.1 Describe orally the place of the popular song in the contemporary foreign society (entertainment and/or satire, kinds of social gathering, kinds of singer).

II.24 The Family
II.24.1 State orally the salient social-class differences in the meaning of “the family” to the person.
II.24.2 State orally the main norms that prescribe the behavior toward one another of the father, mother, son, daughter, brothers, and sisters in the middle-class family.

II.25 Education
State orally the chief characteristics of the educational system(s) in the culture area.

LEVEL III

In addition to the “Desirable Standard” for Level II, the student will be able to do the following:

III.1 Themes of the culture
III.1.1 Define or recognize all the main themes of the value system in the manner indicated under II.21.1 and II.21.2.
III.1.2 Explain an instance of humor in which the fun depends on the presupposing of one or more of these values.

III.2 Literature
III.2.1 On the basis of sufficiently long selections read (or studied in filmed recitations) from the works of ten major authors of the culture area, state orally or in writing the chief preoccupation(s) — artistic, social and/or philosophical — observed in the writing of any of the ten authors.
III.2.2 Identify or describe the main cultural or societal patterns in passages quoted by the examiner, or recalled from memory, drawn from the selections read (cf. III.2.1).
III.2.3 Comment on artistic qualities of form or style, under the conditions indicated in section III.2.2.
III.2.4 Paraphrase a passage quoted by the examiner from the literary works read in class, showing by the paraphrase or by accompanying comments the import he ascribes to the passage.

III.3 Use appropriately, or describe, any of the kinesic patterns important for communication, including those called for in I.1.

III.4 Social structure
Give a brief, prepared talk on any two of the following: the political, judicial, educational, and economic institutions of the foreign country; the status of women or of adolescents in the society; the status of the main religious or ethnic minorities.

III.5 Interaction with the geographical setting
State orally or in writing how the main groups of inhabitants in four additional ecological regions (in addition to the two selected for section II.6) adapt to main features of their environment and utilize its
resources in the pursuit of their culture's values.

LEVEL IV

In addition to the expectations for Level III, the student will be able to do the following:

IV.1 Write a brief account of any main culture patterns, social institution, or ecological feature of the people's mode of life.

IV.2 While the first three Levels should avoid contrastive analysis as far as practicable, in order to assure first that the learner overcomes the ethnocentric view of the foreign as eccentric, and by the end of Level IV the learner should be able to describe any of the indicated patterns in relation to the corresponding patterns in his own country.

IV.3 Respond as indicated in III.2 concerning twenty authors (instead of ten), on the basis of reading that includes one major novel and one major play.

IV.4 Summarize main trends and characterize main movements in the social and cultural history of the people.

At Level V and beyond, students should broaden and deepen their initial acquaintance with the literature, the history, and the regional, class, ethnic and age-group differences within the sociocultural whole.

Partial Bibliography

See also FL Annals for the annual installments, beginning in 1967-68, of the ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 62 Fifth Avenue, New York City, 10011) bibliography, particularly under the following headings: Section III, The Culture; Section IV, The Teaching of Foreign Literature; Section IX, Testing. In the list below, the topic of measuring attitude changes is included: it is inescapably relevant, though excluded from the standards stated above.

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(a) to determine how examinee would perform in a situation;
(b) to predict how examinee would perform in future;
(c) to estimate examinee’s present status on some variable external to the test;
(d) to infer the degree to which examinee has a given quality. (Consequent prescriptions for test construction.)

FOOTNOTES

1. This paper was originally presented as a report to the 19th Annual Meeting of the Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages held at Carroll College on April 19 and 20, 1968. The following persons, as members of a Northwestern Conference Committee, contributed toward the present form of the report: Jermaine D. Arendt (Consultant, Modern Foreign Languages, Minnesota Department of Education), Eugenio Chang-Rodríguez (University of Miami), Cecil Clark (College of Education, University of Washington), Brownlee Sands Corrin (Political Science, Goucher College), Genevieve d’Harcourt (Arlington, Virginia), Pia Friedrich (University of Washington), Jerald Green (Associate in Foreign Languages Education, New York State Education Department), Tora Tuve Ladu (State Supervisor of Foreign Languages, Department of Public Instruction, North Carolina), Paul McRill (Director, Washington (State) Foreign Language Program), Frances B. Nostrand (University of Washington), Lee Sparkman (Columbus, Ohio), Ruth White (University of British Columbia). The writer of this report was Chairman of the Committee.

2. For further possibilities of cooperation, beyond the teaching faculty, see the section on “Professional Roles of Contributors Toward the Student’s Cross-Cultural Understanding” in the North Carolina foreign language guidelines (Ladu 1967).

3. In every culture, a dozen or so main themes can be formulated inductively. The anthropologist Morris Opler has suggested that the main themes are unconsciously kept this few in number because each theme centers around a value; value conflicts consequently multiply as new themes emerge; and such conflicts are painful. The ability to interpret the behavior of culture-bearers in the light of recurrent themes constitutes one distinguishing characteristic of persons who understand a culture in its own terms.

and I.C., "Le substrat des croyances inhérentes à la conscience collective française." These sections are further condensed in English, in Ladu, 1967.


6. While this report avoids assuming that the student can write in the foreign language until Level IV, this is not meant to preclude the teaching of writing before that level.
Political simulation is an experimental technique by which complex political phenomena, such as a political campaign or an international relations crisis involving a series of events and a number of nation-state “players,” may be recreated under quasi-experimental conditions at the will of the person conducting the simulation. As such, then, simulation techniques have the advantage of controllability; that is, the circumstances may be altered at will, and, of course, the timing may be altered to suit the convenience of the researcher or of the class.

Simulation techniques are not new and, in fact, have been applied for a number of years in the field of business management. In political science, simulation techniques have previously been applied mainly to international relations and foreign policy situations. A particular case in point is the Inter-Nation Simulation, which has been utilized extensively at Northwestern University and several other universities. In the field of American Government and politics, there is an election game by Professor James Coleman which has been utilized at Johns Hopkins University and in the Baltimore high schools. A national political game has been utilized at Kansas State Teachers College under the direction of Professor Dale Garvey, and an American Government game under Professor Robert Alperin at the University of Maryland. A simulation of a mayorality campaign in a medium-sized American city, called the Woodbury political simulation, has been run at a number of universities and colleges. Woodbury has been run three semesters at Northern Illinois University.

Probably most college professors of political science have experienced difficulty in teaching college students the dynamics of American governmental processes, such as an electoral campaign. Previous means often employed to supplement the “dry” text included case studies, actual political experience, such as political campaign work, required in conjunction with a course in Political Parties, or some form of in-service training technique, such as a public administration internship program. Unfortunately, case studies often seem dry to the student, and in-service training requires prodigious quantities of time on the part of the course instructor who arranges positions for his students and then supervises their work over a considerable time period. In addition, political campaigns are not timed for the convenience of college professors working within the confines of the college semester sequence. And finally, of course, the number of political campaign positions which are instructive to the student, and are open to him, are not unlimited. The same problem exists, probably even to a greater degree, for in-service public administration training programs. Instructors working in the international arena are faced with all of these problems, plus the added difficulty of geographic distance making direct student observation and/or participation impossible in almost all instances.

It appears from our experiences with the Woodbury domestic political campaign simulation that student interest in the electoral process is significantly enhanced by participation in the Woodbury simulation. Similarly, the interest of the student in post-simulation class discussions of political parties, pressure groups, voting behavior, and the electoral process, is enhanced when frequent illustrative references can be made to the simulation experiences the students have had.

It is also encouraging to note that the group of high school students who participated in a demonstration simulation of a Latin American “golpe de estado,” conducted by the authors for a recent NDEA Workshop, directed by H. Ned Seelye, on Latin America held at Northern Illinois University, have requested to participate in the more complete simulation exercise the authors are presently developing under the title of PSW-1.

In looking to the future, it appears that political simulation can be utilized for predictive as well as teaching purposes. In this format, called by some “man-computer simulation role playing” as opposed to “man simulation role playing”, the human umpires may be replaced by a computer into which sufficient information about the political situation under study has been programmed so as to enable the computer to act as “umpire” in evaluating the outcomes of various strategies fed into the computer. For example, utilizing international relations simulation, one might simulate various policy alternatives for the United States in references to the Vietnam situation, so as to judge which strategy would be least likely to encourage active Communist Chinese intervention. The computer in this instance could be programmed with all available information which was pertinent, such as factors on the Red
Chinese economy, military strength, locations of military units, transportation factors, and so forth.¹

On the domestic scene, the Kennedy 1960 presidential candidacy utilized similar techniques in weighing alternative strategies.² The various particulars of a specific campaign situation could be programmed into the computer, and various alternative candidacies and strategies played against this data.

Political simulation techniques may also be utilized to test the effectiveness and/or accuracy of various theories of political behavior, and thus may be of assistance in model building. Particularly in the field of international relations with reference to the Inter-Nation Simulation, has this been the case.³

The authors are presently working on a new political simulation centering upon multinational political and economic executive decision-making. Students of multinational business courses or those of international relations, or of the American presidency rarely have much practical experience to bring to their studies, because they have not yet worked abroad nor attained the positions of power where decisions of political or business import are made. The new simulation, termed PSW-1, is a computer-assisted simulation which makes it possible for students to learn vicariously through simulated participation some of the lessons which they are still in no position to learn in real-life situations. The authors of the simulation also hope that PSW-1 will prove useful as a research tool by means of which further insights into the relations of men and governments can be obtained.⁴

Essentially, the idea of the PSW-1 simulation consists of a number of hypothetical, economic, and social parameters.⁵ Several political and economic roles are prescribed for each country, and the role-players are allowed to make their plans and decisions as they wish, hampered by very few formal constraints.

The computer programming of PSW-1 is flexible enough to allow for as many countries as a Simulation Director feels useful for his purpose (up to a limit, at the present time, of 100 countries). The authors have provided a “design” of country characteristics, or parameters, for each of seven countries used in our present PSW-1 runs, although these may be altered by subsequent simulation directors under certain circumstances. The Simulation Director requires his role-players to act within the parameters or country characteristics provided.

Probable the irreducible minimum number of role-players per country is three: a head of state, an enterprise director, and a citizen. However, the simulation may become so complex that more roles will be needed. This matter is left entirely to the discretion of the Simulation Director.⁶

A Head of State (HS) is appointed by the Simulation Director for each country in the simulation. At the outset of the game the courses of action open to the HS will be within the bounds described under the country’s political, economic, and social characteristics. However, there is no rule against changing the political characteristics of a country during the simulation — for example, moving from oligarchy to dictatorship, or vice versa.

A Head of State is responsible for the government of his country. In PSW-1 terms, this principally means the allocation of governmental funds to the various functions of government, and carrying on such foreign relations and domestic “politicizing” as required by the unfolding of the simulation. In countries where control of business enterprises is in the hands of the government, the role of the HS becomes, of course, more complex.

A Head of State may appoint such officials as he wishes (and as personnel are provided by the Simulation Director). A minister for internal affairs (MIA) might be given the task of setting tax levels, encouraging business, or overseeing state-owned business enterprises, or looking after governmental relationships with citizens. A minister of foreign affairs (MFA) might be given the task of foreign political negotiations. A central economic director (CED) might be assigned the task of preparing the national budget and directing state-owned enterprises, or this is not assigned to the MIA. The MIA might be assigned the control of police and armed forces, or a special ministry might be set up; control of armed forces could also be retained by the HS at his discretion.

The Enterprise Director (ED) acts as decision-maker for his enterprise, but in the case of state-owned corporations his freedom of action may be restricted by the HS or MIA. The number of enterprise directors may vary from country to country at the will of the Simulation Director. There are no rules against the founding of business affiliates in foreign countries.

The Citizen (CZ) negotiates with the ED regarding pay for work in the enterprise. He also determines how much work will be expended in the procurement of food. CZ may negotiate for consumer goods from the ED of his country or, where permitted by his HS, from the EDs of other countries. The CZ may elect the HS at regular intervals in democratic countries and can negotiate for arms to overthrow his HS if the situation seems to warrant such action.

Various measures of the effectiveness (or non-effectiveness) of these various role-players are provided to the participants in the data generated by the computer for each round of the simulation. Thus there is constant feedback or information provided to the role-players as to “how well or poorly” they are doing.⁷
When the simulation materials are completely prepared, a prospective user will be able to acquire a computer control program package. Simulation Manuals provide for the possibility of running a simulation exercise with up to 100 countries, with the number of countries to be activated being up to the discretion of the Simulation Director; the Manuals also provide a number of country "scenarios" which a user may adopt, or he may write his own (approximately two or three pages) within the parameters of one of the countries to be employed in the simulation run. The persons associated with the development of PSW-1 intend to develop the simulation so as to make it as self-executing as possible, thus requiring as little attention from the instructor as possible. This will give the teacher more time to concentrate on discussion of the course and the results of the simulation with his students.

Readers should be cautioned that, although the reliance on computers may at first glance place this simulation beyond the usage of many smaller high schools and junior colleges, further investigation revealed that the appropriate facilities are already available to many such schools. The programming for the simulation is being developed in such a way as to be usable on as many of these installations as possible. Then too, often arrangements can be made with neighboring high schools or universities to use their computing equipment. Interested teachers, then, are urged to investigate the possibilities in this regard, and might well be advised to communicate with the authors since they have some familiarity with the availability of suitable facilities in this region.

FOOTNOTES


4. Unlike previous simulations, such as the Northwestern University International Processes Simulation, wherein participants recorded their decisions on paper, participants in the PSW-1 simulation record their decisions by means of IBM Porta-Cards. The participants punch out the appropriate holes in the porta-cards according to code specifications. The cards themselves are then run through the computer against the simulation control program to provide the new balances for the participants for the next round. Simultaneously, however, the computer is also recording on a separate computer tape a complete record of these interactions for later analysis by the simulation directors. In sum, then, the PSW-1 simulation differs from previous simulations in that the records of participant interactions are recorded in machine-readable, and therefore analyzable, form, rather than non-machine-readable paper forms.

5. Various differing combinations of these parameters are provided; the simulation director may "activate" as many of these units for the purpose of his particular simulation run as he desires. For a demonstration run before an NDEA Workshop on teaching about Latin America, held at Northern Illinois University in April–May, 1968, we as simulation directors activated one country and quickly drafted a special "scenario" fitting the parameters of this country to demonstrate a Latin American "golpe de estado".

6. In the NDEA Workshop demonstration run, a considerable number of additional roles were specified, such as old-line military and younger officers, church, large land owners, defense minister,
middle class, congress, students, labor, peasants, and so forth.

7. A number of educators have suggested that frequent provision of information to students as to how well they are doing is conducive to increased or more rapid learning. For simulation purposes, this information is required by the participants so that they can formulate new decisions based on the new circumstances caused by their and other role-players' actions in the preceding round.

8. The programming is being prepared to run on a variety of computer installations such as those already available to a number of high schools and junior and senior colleges. For more information, contact the authors, one of whom is with IBM.

9. For the demonstration run at the NDEA Workshop on Latin America held at Northern Illinois University in April-May, 1968, Country No. 7 only was activated, and a special scenario prepared within the parameters of this country to detail the problems of a Latin American country and the possibilities of a "golpe de estado." Readers who attended the Workshop may recall that the golpe occurred three-quarters of the way through Round Three.

The computer programming provides for the possibility of using up to 100 countries. The authors have established parameters for, and subsequently used in simulation runs, seven countries.
CHAPTER SIX

ITEM VALIDATION AND MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES IN CULTURE TESTS

H. Ned Seelye

Statistical methods for validating tests are elaborated in numerous books on statistics and testing, and it is not the purpose here to review these methods. An excellent review of this type designed especially for language teachers is available in Lado (1961). This section of the Handbook draws attention to the problem of validating the individual items of which a test is composed. Several methods for documenting the accuracy of a cross-cultural situation for test purposes will be reviewed since these practices affect the content of the test. In addition, a number of general techniques, or test formats, for administering culture tests is discussed.

Validating Test Items

It would seem to belabor the evident to observe that the correct response to a test item should itself be correct. Yet we are whimsically casual about requiring documentation to back up a “right” answer. This is especially evident in tests where the student selects the correct response from among several choices offered. In spite of experience throughout some seventeen years in a number of countries of Latin America and Europe and over a decade of teaching experience, this writer still finds himself making a few simple errors in designing cross-cultural test situations.

The most common error lies in generalizing beyond the legitimate extention of a cultural practice. Test questions which contain wording such as “In X situation, a Latin American would act in Y manner,” have repeatedly been shown to be dangerous. The test designer who is drawing a situation from either personal experience or a written source should attempt to be specific in the wording of the item. More likely of success are items worded “A Mexican can be expected to do X in Y situation,” or better still, “A middle-class Peruvian male living in Lima can be expected to do X in Y situation.” Little work has been done to provide a “cultural atlas” of geographical varieties in cultural patterning in Latin America, so the test designer had best tread with caution.

Certain patterns which have come to be regarded as “typical” offer a particular dilemma in test construction, for we want the test to avoid reinforcing clichés and half-truths. Groups are often stereotyped along the lines of several patterns of behavior which are infrequent in the group but may be even less frequent in other groups. Perhaps these infrequent patterns can be tested best within the context of in-group approval or disapproval, rather than in terms of the frequency of the pattern. For example, rather than ask whether Mexican men often have mistresses, the item could be phrased, “Would a Mexican politician running for office be discredited were it to become known that he supported a mistress in addition to his wife?” (A more extended discussion of the problems involved in designing successful items can be found in Lado [1957; 1961], Nostrand [1966:13-18], and in Seelye [1966].)

Validation techniques vary in rigor from the widespread polling of target subjects with the purpose of establishing the distribution of a cultural pattern, to the simple acceptance of a generalization based on an anecdote of the classroom teacher or returning tourist. While the ultimate strength of the test will depend in great part on the rigor of the validation techniques employed, there are many occasions when the exigencies of the classroom relegate sophisticated methods to the realm of the impractical. Three quite different methods for documenting the validity of a cultural pattern—classroom authority, pretesting with Latin Americans, and expert opinion—differ widely in their relevance for the classroom teacher.

Classroom Authority. In those cases where the classroom teacher is well-grounded in the target culture, the authority of his word usually suffices. This is probably satisfactory if he does not take himself too seriously; most of us have discovered that what is accepted with adulation in the classroom often gets quite another reception at a staff meeting. The usefulness of an item which solely receives validation by the classroom teacher is necessarily local. While this is obviously the most expedient technique for teachers at the battlements, it is important to recognize that modesty (or a Purple Heart) most becomes the teacher game enough to insist on the validity of a pattern documented in this way.

Pretesting. The acid test of whether an item forms part of the explicit or conscious culture of Latin Americans is to administer it to them, controlling for age, sex, residence, and social class differences. Although 95% agreement can be expected on the correct response to a language test, the best we can realistically expect on a widely-administered culture test is 65% agreement, and items achieving 51% or more agreement (with a test group of varied
composition) should probably be retained if they result significantly contrastive with the performance of North Americans on the same item. The obvious disadvantage of quantitative methods of validation is that they are difficult to implement. (The following chapter explores this procedure in more detail.) The method most accessible to teachers who want to document a cultural pattern by an independent source is to use the expressed opinions of specialists in Latin American culture as documentation.

Expert Opinion. As we all know, experts differ in opinion. Naroll (1962) discusses an elaborate and highly sophisticated means of checking the credibility of a reporter by a method he calls data quality control (see especially his chapters 1 and 7). He suggests, for example, a six-level classification reflecting the authority of the investigator or source depending on the nearness to the actual data ("source proximity"): (1) datum report, "where an artifact or a statement is itself the trait being studied"; (2) participant report, "where an event or culture pattern is described by a participating culture bearer"; (3) observer's report, "where an event or culture pattern is described by an eyewitness who is not himself a participant in the culture or subculture pattern involved"; (4) derivative report, "an account by a nonobserver based on a report of another which is no longer available for study"; (5) scholar's report, "an account by a nonobserver, based on existing primary sources which the comparativist does not find it convenient to consult directly"; (6) reader's report, "an account by a nonobserver based on other writings, in which specific passages in primary sources covering the data in question are not cited" (cf. Naroll 1962:31-32). The particular level of source proximity can be further evaluated for reporting bias by introducing such control factors as the length of stay of the reporter in the target culture, explicitness and generality of the report, and familiarity with the target language.

A crude adaptation of Naroll's research technique can be developed which, while lacking the admirable preciseness of his technique, can perhaps engender an appreciation of the spirit of data quality control. (The one is not a substitute for the other. Here a crude makeshift index is presented as a tool for use in teacher workshops concerned with the accuracy of cultural patterns.)

The type of report and the credentials of the reporter can be evaluated numerically, with 1 representing the lowest rating and 15 the highest. If we assign a numerical value to each factor involved in source proximity and reporting bias, then the total number of points earned by any particular source (the total would fall between 1 and 15) would afford a numerical index with which to evaluate the relative strength of any particular source.

This index of credibility could then be averaged in with the credibility index of several other sources reporting the same pattern, and an overall index representing the numerical average of the credibility of these several sources could be drawn. If this numerical index would indicate both the qualitative strength of its source proximity and reporting bias and the quantitative strength of the number of sources consulted, then the index should be a relatively strong measure of a particular source's reliability.

To obtain the values themselves, use the following outline:

A. Source Proximity
   a) reader's report = 1 point
   b) scholar's report = 2 points
   c) derivative report = 3 points
   d) observer's report = 4 points
   e) participant report = 5 points
   f) datum report = 6 points

B. Reporting Bias: length of stay
   a) none = 0 points
   b) less than 6 months = 1 point
   c) 6 months - 2 years = 2 points
   d) over 2 years = 3 points

C. Reporting Bias: explicitness and generality of report
   a) too vague and brief to be useful = 0 points
   b) vague in description and lacking generality = 1 point
   c) fairly specific but reader has to interpret = 2 points
   d) very specific (no need for reader to interpret) = 3 points

D. Reporting Bias: familiarity with language
   a) almost none = 0 points
   b) some = 1 point
   c) fair = 2 points
   d) fluent = 3 points

If we report the average credibility index of a given cultural pattern first (12, for instance), and the number of sources consulted in this hypothetical case (–3, for example), we are able to compare the relative strength of a variety of patterns chosen as potential test items. As a test to see whether I have learned.

* d, c, a, b, e.

30
Participants of workshops on culture might find this exercise in validating cultural patterns for test purposes to have some distinct advantages: it involves the teacher with the bibliography; it strengthens the content of culture tests; it increases sophistication in the area of cultural interpretation; and it stimulates the teacher to define precisely what it is that he wants to teach (and test).

(A less rigorous method of validation along the lines of the technique just mentioned would be to document the accuracy of a cultural pattern with three independent sources, but without an elaborate assessment of source proximity and reporter bias.)

Testing Techniques

Just as there is a need for culture tests to be more rigorously documented than is presently the case, there is a corresponding advantage to be gained from experimentation with the format of culture tests. There are at least five limitations imposed upon any testing program by chance and circumstance: the aim of the examiner limits the test content; the validation technique employed further limits content; the time available for testing limits both content and format of the test; the format of the test limits both content and testing situation; and finally, the imagination of the test designers limits everything. Focusing on test formats, such as simulation, objective, audio, visual, oral, and tactile will provide different approaches to constructing culture tests.

Simulation. Ideally, the best way to test the ability to operate in a second culture would be to place the testee in the target culture and then observe him in a series of "foreign" situations. But this method lacks economy and, in addition, would be fatiguing for the middle-aged examiner sentenced to observe the fleet-footed young at work and play. Simulating certain controlled situations would seem to offer a viable alternative to placing the testee in the target culture for test purposes. A role is assigned to the subject, such as Latin American student leader, president of Guatemala, peasant, businessman, or Peace Corps volunteer. A series of problem-solving situations are then presented for resolution in a form consistent with Latin American reality. This method becomes more feasible the longer the time available for testing. While it can only test a few subjects concurrently during a 30-minute period, when extended over several days it can be administered to a large number of subjects much on the same scale as a military bivouac. (The simulation of a golpe de estado mentioned in the chapter on simulation used 25 students and lasted four hours.) In the longer form, the test itself, if intensely oriented to problem-solving situations, can afford an experience which would assist the subject in handling the inevitable "cultural fatigue" of residence abroad. Preparation and standardization of tests of this type will require a lot of work.

Objective. Although objective tests are somewhat difficult to compose, their ease in correction is especially appreciated when large numbers of subjects are tested. Once the test is designed, correction is completely objective and can be accomplished by practically anyone--and without prejudice (something which cannot be said for essay questions). The major drawback with tests of this type is that they are unsuited for non-literate or semi-literate groups. This means that representation of Latin American rural and urban-poor classes is often difficult to document with objective tests. All in all, it is the conviction of many testers that there is very little which cannot be adequately measured in highly-literate groups by a good multiple-choice test.

Visual. Suppose a short story has been read in class and a lottery vendor figures in the plot. In testing recognition of a lottery vendor several slides of Latin Americans can be projected: one of a corner candy vendor; another of a businessman; a third of a boy selling chewing gum; and a fourth slide picturing a lottery vendor. The student would indicate the latter response on his answer sheet. Or, more economically, the student would be asked to identify all of a series of images for which he had been given some context from which to deduce the answers. Any pictorial image will do, of course, slides, drawings, magazine clippings, etc.

Audio. Here the principle is the same as for visual tests, except the student responds to audio stimuli. A taped section might contain a portion of the lottery vendor's spiel, a brief section of a radio announcer's reading of the Articles which herald in a State of Siege, or a humanely brief portion of a radio commercial. Needless to say, the content of the test would depend on what the teacher wanted to measure; here the concern is with test technique, not content. Nostrand develops the audiovisual possibilities for the teaching of cultural content in language courses in a brief article replete with ideas (Nostrand 1966b:4-6).

Oral. The interview, or oral exam, has long been a device for eliciting information from a subject. Structured interviews have the advantage of being easier to code and evaluate than open-ended interviews and are, consequently, more objective. On the other hand, what the structured interview usually amounts to is a multiple-choice test administered orally. Open-ended interviews often produce unexpected information, but sooner or later the mass
of information collected has to be coded for appraisal. Then, too, the interviewers of open-ended exams have to be articulately aware of the object of their search, for unless the interview is recorded they will consciously or unconsciously be eliminating much data (most of which might well be extraneous to the purpose of the interview anyway).

Tactile. Object-using tests confront the subject directly with some aspect of the target culture, thus avoiding the abstract artifices which relegate Latin America, in the senses of many students, to the limbo of the lifeless. The student could be given a lottery ticket to check against a newspaper containing the winning numbers. Or, in another situation, he might be given a knife, fork, spoon, plate, and instructions to eat a Mexican taco which is thoughtfully provided him. (He would, to be culturally authentic, eat it with his fingers.) Primary and secondary teachers have used tactile devices (often curios of the airport “variety” with but limited potential) more than have college dons, but few teachers have explored the possibilities of tactile tests.

Testing Skills vs. Facts

At first glance, to advocate teaching skills rather than facts, but then to suggest testing facts seems disparate. I am unaware of any study, except my own (to be reported in a forthcoming article), which has attempted to correlate knowledge of Latin American cultural “facts” with skill in living within a Latin value structure. If the facts are chosen carefully, the correlation should be high between fact and skill. In actual test construction, the difference between the two often—but not always—seems to be more semantic than real. The difference often lies more in the orientation or wording of the question than in its substance. But before the question of testing skill vs. fact can be resolved, we have to clearly delineate the skills we want to teach in the area of Latin American studies. This remains to be done.

A Call to Action

NDEA foreign language and social studies workshops might profitably devote time to having each participant compose a mini-test of from one to five items on some aspect of culture. An animated discussion of test aims should precede the actual fabrication of test items, and the particular measuring technique(s) should be chosen as an outgrowth of the tester’s aims and resources. Some workshops might want to specialize in one particular technique. Documentation of each item should be required. The strength of these participant-designed test items should be subjected to friendly analysis. (Professional test designers usually plan to eliminate half of their original questions due to weaknesses which become apparent in pretesting.)

The nature of each specific test item determines the kind of inquiry it might be subjected to, but some general questions can be asked of most test items to assess their strength:

1. To what extent is the cultural pattern evident to a Latin American? (Does it represent an implicit or explicit pattern?)
2. To what social, sex, residential, and age groups would the pattern apply?
3. Are the limitations implied in the above two questions reflected in the way the item is worded?
4. Is the source proximity and reporter bias of the documents used to validate the item authoritative?
5. Is the answer to the question either too difficult or too facile for the intended testees?
6. What is the pedagogical justification for testing the item?
7. Can the item be recast to test a skill rather than a fact? (We are often forced to clarify just what it is we have taught when it comes time to test the skills the students have supposedly developed.)

Teachers can prepare for workshops on culture by developing (for subsequent demonstration) imaginative mini-tests which employ uncommon techniques to measure cultural understanding of one specific point. The State Foreign Language Supervisor can act as a clearinghouse for ideas and test items which emerge from local workshops and individual teacher initiative, as well as for the “culture capsules” suggested by the Taylor and Sorenson article.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

MEASURING THE ABILITY TO FUNCTION CROSS-CULTURALLY

H. Ned Seelye

Introduction

Knowledge comes in many shapes and sizes. A test designed to measure knowledge of the implicit, unconscious patterns of a culture will differ in its rationale from a test designed to gauge knowledge of the historical heritage of a culture. Likewise, the particular technique chosen to measure knowledge—whether objective, simulation, audiovisual, oral, or tactile—limits the situation wherein the testing can be accomplished. This chapter will attempt to present a rationale limiting the universe to be tested when the tester’s aim is to measure the ability of a North American to function in a second culture.1,2

Previous research which attempted to organize the universe of target cultural patterns into a manageable matrix has tended to concentrate on thematic categories which vary according to the theoretical construct of the investigator (Hall and Trager 1953; Métraux and Mead 1954; Opler 1945; Nostrand 1960, 1966; Upshur 1966; to name just a few). The advantage of this approach is that once the universe has been defined, the adequacy of a test can be evaluated in terms of the categories it samples. A weakness of this approach—besides the lack of agreement concerning the theoretical framework to be employed to delineate the categories—is that it does not offer a viable method of item (question) selection. That is, it tells the investigator what the test item should be about, but it does not enable him to select good items from poor ones. Consequently, past attempts to measure cultural understanding have produced largely subjective instruments, such as self-assessment polls. This chapter argues an alternative, innovative approach to measuring cultural understanding.

It has been assumed, by analogy to linguistic practices (Lado 1957, for example), that only patterns which contrast with the pattern of the cultural stranger should be tested. Stimulated by Upshur’s discussion of cultural mislearning3 (1966:188) and a desire to avoid testing intelligence and general knowledge on culture tests, I suggest that only patterns which the cultural stranger does not expect to encounter in the target culture should be tested, whether in fact the pattern is contrastive or not. When a test designer wants to include contrastive patterns in the test universe, he has to theorize which items will contrast with the patterns the cultural stranger expects. But how is it determined whether the theoretically novel pattern really does contrast? The one practical way of deciding this—and is a procedure which hitherto has not been applied to the development of cross-cultural tests—is to pretest the item and see if it is capable of statistically discriminating between the test performance (knowledge) of the target subjects (Latin Americans) and cultural strangers (North Americans). If not, the item should be eliminated; if it does prove capable of discrimination, it should be retained (if it meets the other criteria outlined in this chapter).

Determining whether the item statistically discriminates North Americans from Latin Americans is the empirical way of discovering whether it can measure the ability of a North American to function in the target culture. Otherwise, the selection of test items to be included in the final test version rests on the shaky grounds of intuition. This chapter argues the advantage in basing a test on its ability to differentiate Latin Americans from North Americans as an alternative to building a test to fit into some arbitrary model construct. (Test models based on categories of knowledge are satisfactory for testing literature or some such “non-functional” area, but do not readily lend themselves to measuring ability of a North American to function in Latin America.) The chapter further argues that a random collection of cultural patterns which adventitiously happens to discriminate can be capable of measuring the ability of a North American to function in a second culture, and a certain amount of evidence is advanced to support this assertion, i.e., correlation between the results of an objective test and a set of interviews which both probed the biculturation of North Americans in Guatemala.

Function as Need Gratification

The ability to function in a culture is demonstrated by the degree to which one can satisfy one’s needs through the culture. These needs, in turn, are those “requirements of which the person becomes aware when he acquires values that demand he should strive for a certain end or comport himself in a given fashion in a given situation” (Hartung 1964:462). Needs arise out of the basic values of a culture and are themselves, consequently, derivative (Lee 1959:70-77). Within this framework, mere biological survival, or endurance, is not a need.
To function in Latin America, the North American must satisfy his needs through social patterns which the target culture offers. But this is true whether the North American retains his own native needs or whether his needs become those the target culture inculcates. If the North American wants a hamburger and a coke, he must function within the patterns of the target culture to obtain them, although hamburgers and cokes may well represent "needs" which the target subjects do not share.

While we can observe the extent to which a North American satisfies his own needs in Latin America, how can this afford an index of his biculturation, or assimilation, into a Latin value system? Obviously, the test universe should include only those items which represent Latin American needs. Moreover, in cases where the needs of the North American and the needs of the Latin American coincide, testing those needs would not enable the investigator to determine whether the North American had become bicultural or not. Items which do not discriminate between these two types of needs-native and target-should be excluded from the universe to be tested. But how does the examiner determine whether a need does discriminate between the two value systems? To discriminate, a pattern must differ in some manner either with the native pattern of the North American or with the pattern which he expects to encounter in Latin America. Discriminating patterns are those whose meaning is recognized by the target subject at a level which differs to a statistically significant degree from the recognizance of the cultural stranger. For example, if 70% of the Guatemalans included in a sample grasp the satirical intention of an annual Guatemalan student parade, while only 30% of the North Americans sampled realize its significance, one might conclude (after the proper statistical computations and checks to ascertain the representativeness of the sample) that knowledge of the pattern of student parades differs significantly from the one group to the other. The cultural pattern would, in other words, discriminate target subjects from cultural strangers.

### Linguistic and Extra-Linguistic Cultural Patterning

Cultural patterns can be divided into two classes: those whose origin is linguistic, and those whose origin is extra-linguistic. The former are called ethnomemes and are directly tied to linguistic units. (In an alternate classification, Lado [1964:27-28] calls these patterns EMU's, a generic acronym which includes sememes, episememes, and macrosememes.) If the word "house" to a New Englander generally means a wood-frame building of several stories, topped by a steep-slanting roof, the word casa to a northern Mexican might evoke images of cement or adobe constructions of one story, topped by a flat roof. The meaning of the concept "house" depends on a number of cultural circumstances which do not have exact equivalents in other culture areas. These culturally determined meanings are ethnosememe.

The second type of cultural patterning differs from ethnosememe in that it has both its referent and origin in non-linguistic data. Hand clapping and whistling are examples of this type of patterning. I have found it convenient to call these patterns of extra-linguistic origin ethnomorphp. The distinction between ethnosememe and ethnomorph is drawn because the linguistic relationship is different in the two cases and because many testing programs confine their testing to one or the other type of pattern, rather than to both equally. My testing in Guatemala, for instance, consciously limited itself to ethnomorphic patterns in order to avoid testing fluency in Spanish, which was measured separately. Whether a pattern of either type-ethnomeme or ethnomorph—is contrastive to the value system of the cultural stranger is largely a matter of empirical determination.

### Implicit vs. Explicit Patterns

If the purpose of the test were simply to measure an American's general knowledge of Latin America, then any item which measures this could be included in the test universe. But if the aim is to measure knowledge as it is relevant to the ability to function in a target culture, then items in the test universe which belong to the unconscious level of target understanding, rather than to the conscious or explicit level, should be excluded from the test universe. There are two reasons for this: (1) it is possible for cultural strangers to be more aware of this level of patterning than the target subjects.

Where North Americans are able to perform better on a cross-cultural test than the target subjects, the test has failed miserably to discriminate knowledge of the two cultures. This kind of test would be, for the purposes of measuring the extent to which a North American can function within the Latin American value structure, useless. Indeed, a measure which forces us to conclude that North Americans know more about functioning in Latin America than do Latin Americans strikes me as not without humor. This is not to say that an American cannot become aware of implicit patterns of Latin culture which elude the average target subject, but it is to say that items of this nature are useless in a cross-cultural test designed to compare the ability to function of a North American with that of a Latin American. Since a North American can learn to accurately interpret implicit target patterns of which a Latin
American is not consciously aware, knowledge of the implicit patterns of a culture does not in itself enable one to differentiate North Americans and Latin Americans. In short, ability to function in a culture is not dependent on a conscious understanding of the underlying principles or values of the culture (Kluckhohn 1964:145; Lado 1961:280-81).5

False Patterns
Besides implicit patterns of which Latin Americans are not consciously aware, cultural patterns which are part of their consciousness but are manifestly false need not be included in the universe to be tested, although they may be. That is, while it may be desirable to test the Latin American's "concept of self," in cases where this concept is obviously false, it can be excluded from the test universe on the pedagogical grounds that, in effect, the "right" answer to the item is, objectively speaking, the wrong answer. False patterns can be defined as those beliefs which are held in the face of a general body of opposing scientific research. That a university degree in political science assists one in becoming president of Guatemala is an example of a false cultural pattern (see below). To include this type of pattern in a test, the item can be worded in such a form that the testee is asked to identify "ideal" patterns of self-concept.

Dysfunctional Patterns
Another category which should be excluded from the test universe is that of dysfunctional patterns. A pattern is dysfunctional if it "detracts from the integration, effectiveness, etc., of the [value] system" (Parsons 1954:217). While on the one hand, the concept of dysfunctional patterns flies in the face of evolutionary theory, the dual selective system--both individual and group--of human beings gives rise to patterns which are dysfunctional to some members of a group while functional to others of the same group, as well as patterns which are functional to one group but dysfunctional to another group (Campbell and LeVine 1965:74-76). Since "[t]he only way a dysfunctional feature can be maintained is if it is inextricably tied to a more important functional feature" (Campbell and LeVine:74), the testing of dysfunctional patterns should be avoided in favor of the "more important" pattern to which they are bound, unless the purpose of the item is to require the testee to contrast dysfunctional patterns with functional ones.

"Historical" Patterns
Since knowledge of the history and heroes of a target culture facilitates acceptance into the culture by providing evidence of interest in the target people, by affording raw material for conversation, and by assisting the ability to function in the target culture through conditioning the cultural stranger to the fund of many toponyms, street markers, monuments, surnames, and other mnemonic situations, historical knowledge occasionally falls within the "functional" universe to be included in the test instrument.

Traditionally, "culture" has been associated with "U" values rather than with the less prestigious "Non-U" standards. Achievement in the fine arts, knowledge of the heroes of Western history, and skill in food ingestion are all examples of "culture." This kind of culture is sometimes referred to as Culture with a capital C to distinguish it from anthropological usage which earns a minuscule letter. The Educational Testing Service at Princeton reports that most criticisms of the contents of their Foreign Language Proficiency Tests "...have concerned the civilization and culture test, where the profession cannot seem to agree on what should be the proportion of little c to big C." (Bryan 1965:6). In a test designed to measure ability to function, the large majority of test items should, clearly, reflect cultural patterns.6

An Englishman who devised and widely administered a test to measure Culture defines it as "a broad intellectual awareness founded on informed opinion" (Richmond 1963:8). However, he concludes the study by indicting the academic elite for their "modest accomplishments." Richmond states that "...only one person in a hundred will have a clean bill of health" (p. 175). This one percent level of target concurrence would hardly validate the item for cross-cultural purposes. Although I did not include "historical" items in the Guatemalan test referred to earlier, items from the popular culture can be identified which would be adequate for cross-cultural purposes, i.e., easy enough for the majority of Latin Americans to identify while, at the same time, capable of discriminating the test performance of North Americans. It is this type of "historical" knowledge--that which belongs to the popular culture--which can be included in tests measuring ability to function in Latin America.

Patterns Related to Testee's Employment
In testing the ability to function in a target culture, it is not necessary to include in the test universe cultural patterns which are specifically related to what will be the testee's profession or particular job assignment in the target culture (Cleveland, Mangone, Adams 1960:294).

Establishing Cultural Boundaries
The main variables of a core culture--age, sex, residence, social class--should be controlled to limit testing to cultural items common to a wide variety of sub-cultures within the larger, more heterogeneous culture of, say, urban Guatemala. If the items designed to be tested are not submitted to pretest
that it does not enable the tester to feel reasonably secure that the universe has been representatively sampled. To judge from my experience with the Guatemalan test, though, the security which comes from having designed items to represent a wide range of cultural categories will probably be short lived: many items will not survive pretesting.

For example, I chose to describe the content of the test items in the Guatemalan instrument in terms of a theoretically neutral classification, Murdock’s Outline of Cultural Materials (1950). Of the 88 major categories listed in the table of contents, about half were represented in the original pretest version of the test (some items were classified under several categories). But when the pretesting had been accomplished and half of the items had been eliminated out of statistical considerations, only 30 major categories remained in the test, and only six categories contained five or more items. It is possible that some of the eliminated categories were not contrastive to the North American patterns of that category and, therefore, should not have appeared on the test in the first place. It is also probable that a greater number of categories were contrastive to North American patterns, but the specific situation tested had been ill chosen or poorly worded (see below). The number of pretest items that it would be necessary to accumulate in order to have enough remaining for a final test to represent a wide range of categories is probably very great. The cost of pretesting would, conservatively speaking, be doubled. One category (interpersonal relations) was represented on the pretest version by 29 items—only three of which survived pretesting. Another category (social stratification) was represented on the pretest version by nine items, none of which survived pretesting.

Certainly, the descriptive range of the test content should be indicated, but a test which successfully samples the whole range of discriminating cultural patterns is still in the future. Statistical validity as outlined earlier in this chapter presently remains the strongest measure of the adequacy of a cross-cultural test. A second important consideration is the range of patterns included in the test. This area of the thematic character of the test universe will undoubtedly have to be developed more. Meanwhile, a test developed along the lines this chapter suggests will not include much that should be excluded from the universe, but it might have its predictive ability limited by what it excludes from the test universe. A graphic summary of what should be included on and excluded from the test universe is contained in Table 1.

Developing Test Items.

It will be helpful, perhaps, to use several items which were unsuccessful in pretest versions of the
TABLE 1
THE TEST UNIVERSE

Patterns Capable of Discrimination
at the .01 level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implicit Patterns</th>
<th>False Patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dysfunctional Patterns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs Shared by Target and Native Ss</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical Knowledge (social, political, economic histories; history of art, music, literature, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Patterns Peripheral to the Core Culture
(less than 50% target agreement in each "controlled" subgroup)

White Area: Patterns to be included in the test universe.
Shaded Area: Patterns to be excluded from the test universe.

+ products of cultural mislearning or other such factors leading native subjects (Ss) to expect a contrastive pattern where one does not exist.

++ historical knowledge which fulfills two requisites: (1) general agreement among target Ss from native Ss. That is, knowledge which is part of the popular culture, as opposed to the shaded portion representing knowledge which is associated with the upper intellectual classes.

Guatemalan test to illustrate the problems of preparing cross-cultural tests (more examples can be found in Seelye 1966). The following is an example of a pattern reported by an anthropologist which was then cast into question form (Hall 1964:160).

The most appropriate place for two businessmen to conclude a business transaction is

a) a prestigious bar
b) an intimate soft-drink stand in the central market
c) the home of one of the businessmen
d) the stadium during a soccer game

Guatemalans were expected to answer a, and North Americans c. As it developed, however, three times as many Guatemalans answered c as a. The writer believes that, in spite of this, the reported pattern is accurate, that Latins do not transact business in the home, and he attributes the failure of the question to two factors. First, the wording is probably faulty. Perhaps a stem such as "What kind of atmosphere would Latin American businessmen look for to close a big business deal?" might have elicited a better response. Secondly, there is difficulty finding a group of sufficient size who are sophisticated in the ways of businessmen to test the pattern.

Some questions brought out the differing social orientations of the subjects due to six differences. One example will illustrate this:

The president of Guatemala offers Mr. Sánchez the position of Minister of Education, but he declines the offer because

a) the salary of public servants is very low
b) he fears assassination
c) traveling would absent him from home too often
d) he fears permanent identification with the government in power

It was expected that Guatemalans would answer d and North Americans would be spread over the other three choices, with a concentration on b. Guatemalan males did, in fact, generally answer as expected, but the females had a strong tendency to answer b. The reason for women answering as they did would seem to be lack of political sophistication: although some of the ministry posts are dangerous—Minister of Defense, for example—Ministers of Education have met with controversy but not death as an occupational hazard.

The understandable impulse to see things as they should be ideally rather than as they are in reality
was exemplified by several questions. For example:

A young man has political ambitions. He would like, in fact, to become president of the country some day. In choosing a career to help realize his ambitions, he would probably choose to go to

a) the seminary and become a priest
b) the university and study medicine
c) military academy and become an officer
d) the university and study political science

The history of Guatemala consists of a preponderance of military governments. In the last 136 years, only two constitutionally elected presidents have completed the period for which they were elected. On the other hand, one military dictator was in power 13 years this century. There have been only a few civilian heads of state. But, in spite of this, Guatemalans overwhelmingly answered d—and the university curriculum does not even offer a degree in political science. In fact, there is not even a department of political science.

Social classes occasionally replied differently to a question. The upper class, for example, tended to see public school teachers as members of the upper-low class, whereas the low class saw them as middle-middle class.

Traits Influencing Biculturation

It certainly should be assumed that cross-cultural achievement is related to something—attitudes, personality structure, biographical data, I.Q., motivation, structure of the learning situation—something. A practical method of uncovering such a relationship is to administer a measure of the hypothesized factor affecting cross-cultural achievement along with a measure of cultural achievement, and then to statistically compute the degree of correlation. Validated measures of many traits which might be relevant to cross-cultural understanding have been developed by psychologists and sociologists but have yet to be systematically applied to this area. The work in personality structure being done by psychologists seems especially interesting. Berelson and Steiner (1964) and Shaw and Wright (1967) offer general introductions into what social scientists and test designers have accomplished.

In an attempt to probe the relevance of environmental and geographical mobility, type and level of education, and certain other biographical data such as age, sex, and occupation, to achievement in cross-cultural understanding, the questionnaire shown in Table 2 was administered concurrently with the objective test of a North American's knowledge of Guatemalan cultural patterns. The results of this will be reported in a forthcoming article. The effects of attitudes and personality on achievement in foreign language study has been probed by Pimsleur, Sundland, and McIntyre (1966:22-28). Pimsleur's study did not find them relevant. Howard Lee Nostrand is currently planning a probe of the attitudinal adjustment of Americans in France.

Summary

The primary concern in developing a cross-cultural test designed to measure the ability of a cultural stranger to function in a target culture is to identify items which are capable of discriminating cultural stranger from target subject. This is an empirical way of saying that the item tested should represent a target need which differs in some way from the needs of the cultural stranger. Implicit patterns and erudite literary and historical knowledge of the target culture are not usually capable of discrimination. Two other types of items usually should be excluded from the universe to be tested regardless of whether they prove capable of discrimination or not: false patterns and dysfunctional patterns. Pretesting with target subjects enables identification of those items which form part of the particular sub-culture the investigator wants to test, while pretesting with cultural strangers facilitates identification of those items which are capable of discrimination. Following the rationale suggested in this chapter, a cross-cultural test can be—and has been—developed which apparently measures the ability of a North American to function in a second culture.

REFERENCES CITED


TABLE 2
PERSONAL--DATA INFORMATION

Name: ____________________________

In answering the following personal--data questions, write the number of the response or responses which most closely approximate your situation in the blocks provided in the left-hand margin. Use one digit per box:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Sex:</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>male</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B. Age:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10-14</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Occupation:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>housewife</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>missionary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>retired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Religion:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Catholic</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Protestant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Within your religion, or religious philosophy, do you consider yourself:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>conservative</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>liberal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Length of time you have resided in Guatemala:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>less than 6 mo.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6 mo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. If you were raised abroad, or in Guatemala, what nationality do you consider yourself?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>not raised abroad</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Estimate, roughly, the contact with different ethnic groups, races, nationalities, etc., you experienced before coming to Guatemala (or if you were raised in Guatemala, during your school days there):</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>very little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. What contact with foreign languages did you have before coming to Guatemala (or if you were raised in Guatemala, while in Guatemala)?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>studied one or two languages in high school or college, but not for more than two years per language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>foreign language was spoken at home but I did not speak it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. How fluent are you in Spanish?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>very little or none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>can get along in simple conversations with the maid and in stores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. How many different colleges have you attended:</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M. What type of college(s) have you attended for at least one year? (Use as many responses as needed):</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(01) none</td>
<td>(02) small (less than 2000 students)</td>
<td>(03) medium-small (2-5000)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(04) medium-large (6-12,000)</td>
<td>(05) large (over 12,000)</td>
<td>(06) liberal arts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(07) technical</td>
<td>(08) junior college</td>
<td>(09) co-ed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(10) non-co-ed</td>
<td>(11) Eastern</td>
<td>(12) Southern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(13) Mid-western</td>
<td>(14) Western</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. What type of college courses did you major or minor in?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>humanities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>science</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>secretarial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O. What special training in comparative cultures did you receive prior to, or shortly after your arrival in Guatemala? (or training you received in Guatemala if you were raised there):</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>studied a social science course</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. To what extent have you engaged in job mobility within the past 10 years? (That is, how many different positions have you had with separate concerns?)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q. To what areas of the world have you traveled, in addition to Guatemala? (Do not count early childhood travels):</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1 or 2 states of the U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>04</td>
<td>Middle East</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>07</td>
<td>Mexico, Caribbean, C.A.</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>South America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>some southern states (U.S.A.)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Oceania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>some mid-western states (U.S.A.)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>some western states (U.S.A.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R. How long have you lived in a Spanish-speaking country other than Guatemala?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>less than 6 mo.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6-12 mo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. How long have you lived in a Spanish-speaking country other than Guatemala?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>less than 6 mo.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6-12 mo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>---</td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. How fluent are you in Spanish?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>very little or none</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>can get along in simple conversations with the maid and in stores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U. Are you married to a native speaker of Spanish?</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40


FOOTNOTES

1. This posited test universe is the outgrowth of research undertaken in Guatemala with an objective, multiple-choice measure of cultural understanding. The research was financed by grants from the Colegio Americano de Guatemala, La Universidad del Valle de Guatemala, and El Programa Interamericano de Información Popular (Costa Rica). The limited purpose of devising this objective instrument was to develop a measure of the knowledge of Guatemalan cultural patterns of which a sample of North Americans living in Guatemala was aware. A relation between knowledge of Guatemalan cultural patterns of the variety tested and the ability of North Americans to function in Guatemala was hypothesized.

2. This particular testing aim is one which might interest social scientists, professional test designers, and NDEA Institute directors more than the classroom teacher of social studies or language who would find it impossible to implement without research facilities. Nevertheless, the classroom teacher may be interested in the distinction drawn between culture as it is relevant to functioning in a second culture and culture that is not necessary to functioning.

3. An example of cultural mislearning might be the erroneous deduction that since men in a polygynous society must usually demonstrate a level of economic solvency necessary to sustain the number of wives to which they aspire; therefore, the wives must be economically dependent upon their husbands. This simplistic deduction ignores such factors as the independent cultivation of food by the wife, the economic backing of the wife’s family to whom a bride-price may have been paid, the need for economic power to be invested in the wife while the husband is periodically absent visiting other wives. In
other words, by observing the subservient position of wives in a given situation, a cultural stranger may be misled to assume that this principle of subserviency obtains in situations where in fact it does not. This is cultural mislearning.

Whether acceptance of contrastive patterns for testing purposes forces one to assume that "the 'cultural stranger' will not learn to do anything wrong or to misunderstand anything in the target culture" (Upshur 1966:188) depends on whether the test items are selected from a model construct of the test universe or are selected empirically according to their ability to discriminate. Cultural mislearning might operate in the direction of augmenting the discriminatory strength of a theoretically non-contrastive item or of diminishing the discrimination of a contrastive one. In either case, if the criterion for item retention is based on its ability to discriminate target subject from cultural stranger, then whether cultural mislearning has occurred is a moot point. The important consideration is whether the North American thinks the pattern is different from what it really is, and not whether the pattern is in fact, contrastive.

4. Lado defines a contrastive pattern as a cultural practice which differs in either meaning, form, or distribution from the societal pattern of the cultural stranger (1957:110-123). A cultural pattern is an arbitrary symbol, or set of symbols, which is structured to convey a predictable meaning which the culture has established by usage. An example of a simple pattern is a wink, or the non-linguistic referent of a "cool cat." A more complex pattern might consist of the many adumbrative cues which are exchanged during courtship to communicate approbation.

5. Upshur maintains that patterns which are common to both cultures and have the same meaning in both cultures should be excluded from the test universe if they are viewed accurately by Guatemalans but inaccurately by Americans (Upshur 1966:191-4). In this situation—the pattern has the same meaning in both cultures but the American does not realize it—it appears that the pattern is capable of discrimination and should be included in the test universe. That this discrimination comes about as a result of ignorance on the part of the cultural stranger in no way invalidates the item. It is just this—ignorance in the cultural stranger (coupled with agreement among target subjects)—which gives an item its power of discrimination. Upshur also maintains that patterns which are common to both cultures and have different meanings in each culture, and are viewed accurately by Guatemalans but inaccurately by North Americans should be included in the test universe. In this situation, where the pattern has different meanings in the two cultures but the North American mistakes the difference for similarity, it would appear that the item might not be capable of discrimination and, therefore, probably should be excluded. It is of little avail to say that the American should have perceived a difference between his "ideal" and "re:;" patterns or that he should have blundered because the two patterns are really different. In this situation, because his "ideal" pattern happens to coincide with the Guatemalan's "real" pattern, the test performance for the two subjects is the same: the item is not capable of discrimination, for whatever reason.

6. Knowledge which a student of Latin American culture has learned from a text or classroom situation would not, by definition, prove capable of discrimination. However, since anything that might be taught in a "culture" course would systematically disqualify itself because once it was taught it would be incapable of discrimination, in some circumstances the discriminatory power of a pattern might be documented on a group which had not been trained in "target functions." A measure of the North American achievement in understanding Latin "functional" patterns could then be obtained.

7. Still, the idea of defining the test universe in terms of categories of behavioral patterns is enticing. Upshur belabors the need for cross-cultural tests to contain items representing "(1) the set of observed behaviors (or behavior patterns) to be understood, and (2) the set of behavioral patterns to be appropriately performed" (Upshur 1966:180). Upshur consequently divides the universe to be tested into two major categories: "the understanding and performance domains." While both the practicality and necessity of this dichotomy as a requisite of the test universe in the case of objective, machine-scored test instruments is questionable, the investigator is forced to assume the existence of a relationship between the ability to recognize a pattern and the ability to perform it. Nor is it necessary to assume an exact one-to-one relationship between observation and performance—only that a positive relationship exists. To use a linguistic analogy as an example, our ability to observe (as evinced by our passive vocabulary) is greater than our ability to perform (as demonstrated by our active vocabulary). Still, we may posit a relationship between active and passive vocabularies: the larger the active vocabulary, the larger the passive vocabulary. The ability to perform can be tested more directly with simulation tests than with written formats. However, most testing is indirect, and this fact alone should not unduly preoccupy us as long as periodic checks employing different techniques are conducted to test the reliability of the measure in question.
Upshur parcels the universe to be tested into a number of categories which are logically deduced from a consideration of dichotomies, such as observed vs. performed patterns, familiar vs. novel, accurate vs. inaccurate. Upshur states: "According to this complete formal description there are eighteen classes of items in the cross-cultural universe" (p. 191). Nevertheless, Upshur himself points to the crux of the problem which this description poses: "It should be noted at this point, however, that these classes are not of equal size, and that in actual test construction one should, ceteris paribus, select items to test from each class proportionally to class size" (p. 191). Bien. But how is one to determine the appropriate class size? There are myriads of conceptual constructs which can be applied to a test universe, but the worth of a construct is seen in the economy it affords and in the information it yields.
A SELECTED, ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY ON LATIN AMERICA

Annotators:

Gilbert D. Bartell
C. Daniel Dillman
Roland T. Ely
Edward W. Glab, Jr.
Roderick T. Groves
Jorge Armando Gutiérrez Padilla
Benjamin Keen
Joseph A. Martellaro
E. Craig Morris
Rosendo R. Rivera
Peter A. Roman
Anthony Scaperlanda
H. Ned Seelye
Margaret G. Smith
A. Manuel Vázquez-Bígi
Charles R. Wicke

The core of this bibliography was developed in the following manner: a dozen Latin American specialists, representing six different disciplines, were asked to choose the ten sources they thought central to a study of Latin America. Duplications were resolved and several other Latin Americanists were invited to review publications, usually in a specific area. In an effort to avoid unnecessary duplication of other handbooks and published guides for teachers, the annotators were asked to give priority to recent publications and to avoid including pre-1960 entries whenever feasible. The opinions expressed in the annotations are the responsibility of the specialist whose name appears in parenthesis at the end of the review; the unsigned annotations were prepared by the editor. The “see also” entries were usually interpolated by the editor and do not necessarily carry the approbation of the signed annotator. Rather than request a uniform criterion from each specialist for the inclusion of entries, the annotators were left to rely on their own credentials, and diversity of opinion was encouraged. For example, some of the annotators preferred books which view the future of social justice and political stability in Latin America rather optimistically (usually citing Venezuela, Puerto Rico, and Mexico as examples), while others were partial to the eve-of-revolution school of interpretation.

Some of the selections by the editor were rather arbitrarily chosen to represent areas which otherwise would have had no voice in the bibliography (Leaf 1962, Buckley 1963, for example). Some omissions, due to not having review copies of the publications in our hands on time, were unavoidably given the modest amount of time we were able to anticipate the publication deadline of this Handbook. Excellent publications also have undoubtedly been omitted through oversight on our part.

A partial bibliographical index organized under six major categories can be found in the latter part of the chapter “Pertinency in Latin American Studies” contained earlier in this Handbook. The full names of the publishers cited herein and their addresses are provided at the end of the bibliography.
Abt (see Scott 1966)

An outgrowth of efforts to ascertain in what manner political analysts and policy-makers can best utilize recent findings of anthropologists on social change. Contains a lengthy introduction. (Dillman)

An excellent, readable account of the social and political struggles which give Mexico its present character.

A study of economic and social revolution. Ferrets out some of the pertinent political influences which are determinants of economic policy. Rejects—and correctly so—the popular rationale which calls for a drastic metamorphosis of present day Latin institutions in order to achieve economic development and growth. Instead, pragmatically suggests the possibility of economic revolution taking place within the framework of the present-day Latin societies by combining political institutions and scientific technology imported from abroad with native imagination and resources. See also: Schmitt, K. M., and D. D. Burks.
Evolution or Chaos: Dynamics of Latin American Government and Politics. Praeger, 1963; 308 pp., $2.50. (Martellaro)

Andreski (see Burnett)

Alexander, R. J. (see also: Martellaro)

This largely historical treatment was written before the Cuban revolution and, consequently, is today somewhat dated. Nonetheless, its description of "traditionalist" communism is useful in understanding the rivalries and animosities that today exist between the Fidelistas and the "old-line" Communist parties. Alexander's major thesis, that indigenous political movements of the democratic left represent the major obstacle to communism, retains much of its currency today. (Groves)

A concise, balanced survey of the many and varied aspects of Latin life, written by an historian. (Glab)

Viewing the achievements of statesmen in other nations of the world, the student will probably conclude that there is a great deficiency of them in Latin America. But Latin America has had great leaders who have had a lasting impact on the area. Presents a series of biographical sketches of some of the most influential political figures of recent Latin American history. While not a substitute for studies of real depth, provides an ideal introduction for students concerned with leadership as a general need. Gives greatest emphasis to political figures of the democratic left (Cárdenas, Betancourt, Haya de la Torre, Figueres, etc.), but it also includes Fidel Castro, Getulio Vargas, Juan Perón and Arturo Alessandri. (Groves)

Describes and evaluates the achievements of and challenges to the epochal regime of Betancourt by one of his admirers. The transformation of Venezuelan political life under this government from the traditional militarism and dictatorship to a popular-based, participant democracy has made this era extraordinarily influential in Latin America. (Groves)

An historical, literary, and cultural survey by a Colombian. The 18 chapters offer too much information and not enough concepts. Lots of engaging photos but no exercises; suitable for the 3rd year secondary or college student. The author's opinions (sometimes facetious) lend themselves to discussion. ("Matthews, en misión de periodista en Cuba, descubrió un día que Castro estaba vivo,
cuando todos lo creían muerto. El entusiasmo que le produjo el descubrimiento le hizo, para siempre, castrista" (p. 263-41).

A paperback by the same publisher and editors (Temas de Arciniegas: invitación a conversar, leer y escribir, 1967; $3.50) presents brief essays about this hemisphere, followed by drills and exercises; not illustrated.

Asturias, Miguel Angel (tr, by Partridge) El Señor Presidente. Atheneum, 1963; 287 pp., $5.00.

Asturias has written of the legend and poetry of the Guatemalan Indian, for which he is savored in intellectual circles, and also has written 5 novels of social protest, for which he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature (1967). This English translation of his first and best protest novel restores the original Spanish title in this 1967 printing (the earlier English editions called it The President). Historically the first Latin American novel to use terror as a central motif, the translation offers a poignant experience of life--and death--under dictatorship. The translator has abbreviated some of the tiresome sound reduplication of the original and offers English equivalents to the nicknames. This English version, unlike the difficult Spanish, can be recommended to students.

Asturias' other protest novels are published in Spanish by Editorial Losada (Buenos Aires): Weekend en Guatemala, a protest of the U.S. intervention of 1954; and the anti-imperialistic trilogy, Viento fuerte, El papa verde, and Los ojos de los enterrados, which attacks the United Fruit Co. operations in Guatemala.


Demonstrates that accurate teaching of the cultural complexities can be achieved only if the myths that warp the popular image of this vast area are debunked. The most disturbing of the myths are: (1) uniformity and homogeneity mistakenly associated with Latin American cultures, and (2) stigma of environmental impossibility frequently given to much of the area's climate and land surface. Because national boundaries seldom define territories possessing uniformity in patterns and problems of resource use and other cultural phenomena, a more realistic image would be expressed by five cultural complexes. Proposes division of South America into generalized culture spheres disregarding existing territorial borders. The culture spheres are: (1) European-Commercial, (2) Tropical Plantation, (3) Indo-Subsistence, (4) Mestizo-Transitional, and (5) Undifferentiated. See also: West, R. C., and J. P. Augelli. Middle America: Its Lands and Peoples (Prentice-Hall, 1966; 482 pp.).

(Billman)


Most complete bibliography of its type; not annotated; "...selection of topics favors...those dealing with economic, legal, and political matters." More suitable for college rather than secondary reference.


Both a descriptive survey of the region's resources, industrial progress, chronic inflation, and international trade role and a consideration of specific cases (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Peru, and Venezuela). An excellent introduction and a good door-opener to other books in the Oxford series which focus upon individual countries, e.g., Argentina by Pendle, Bolivia by Osborne, Lilo Linke's Ecuador, Owens' Peru, and Cline's Mexico. (Martellaro)


Good introduction to problems in comparative case studies of representative countries. See also: Comparative Education Review (monthly), 525 West 120th St., N. Y., N. Y. 27; Kazamias, A. M., and E. H. Epstein. Schools in Transition: Essays in Comparative Education (Allyn, 1968; 421 pp., Bibliography, index). Also following 3 occasional publications from The Center of Latin American Studies, U. of Kansas, Lawrence: Viewpoints on Education and Social Change in Latin America (No. 5,

Contributions by a number of leading authorities (such as H. A. Ferns, John F. Gallagher, and Dean Rusk). Consists of a composite of case studies of foreign investments. Offers insight into the economic, political, and social impact of foreign investment and a better understanding of the basis of the conflicting attitudes of Latin people vis-à-vis foreign investors and the nations they represent. (Martellaro)

Bierck (see Pendle 1963)

Boorstein (see Zeitlin 1963)


An illuminating survey by an English historian who has made the study of the Portuguese colonial empire his lifework. (Keen)


Not only captures the diversity that is the geography of Mexico, but provokes further exploration of other works on the individual topics presented. “Because most people in the United States tend to form their opinion of Latin America in terms of...Mexico,” initial study of the country might well begin with this work. Use of an atlas is indispensable for identification of the welter of places mentioned. Land, people, and history are treated with affection by one who has studied Mexico for 40 years; result is an incisive understanding of the nature of Mexico and its problems. (Dillman)


Very uneven in quality. Ranges from bad (Guadalajara) to fairly good (Guatemala). Pictures usually artistic but often not chosen to illustrate any overall cultural point; rather superficially turistic. Worth showing as an introduction to country, but not worth lingering over.


Burns (see Wagley 1963)


Views inter-American relations as an extremely complex area where "adjustment[s] in power relationships...affect many sectors whose relationship to the original problem may have been dimly perceived if at all...[The] problems in United States-Latin American relations assume an essentially political solution" (p. 228). Feels that the United States will have to abandon coercion in favor of winning "the support of weaker nations by reconciling their interests with those of the United States...[through]...painstaking arrangements, discussions, and compromises..." (p. 230).


A conspectus of the whole of Peruvian history, summarizing all that is known about prehistoric Peru, from the first hunting culture, thousands of years B.C., to the Inca empire conquered by the Spanish. (Bartell)


Well-illustrated, overly-ambitious historical reader designed for intermediate or advanced Spanish classes with no previous knowledge of area. A very superficial description and appraisal of the history and culture of all the countries of Latin America. For example, Brazil is discovered, invaded, subdued, given independence, and has her racial problems, religious, economic, and political life, natural resources and fine arts exposed in twenty pages—all this with photographs included. Final chapter is on Hispanic-American culture, which is Castro's synonym for literature. (Rivera)


Designed as background for classes in 3rd year conversational Spanish. Consists of essays, speeches, and documents with questions by the editors following each selection. Readings treat topics such as disarmament, land reform, continental unification, and other cultural and political commentaries common to most of area. Writings of educators, authors, and statesmen (including 3 ex-presidents) offer a contemporary view. A rubric, written in English, introduces each author and subject. (Rivera)


A model study of one of the most important of colonial institutions by a French scholar who combines great learning with lightness of touch. (Keen)

Cieza de León, Pedro de. The Incas of Pedro de Cieza de León. U. of Oklahoma P., 1959, $5.95. Index.

Written by perhaps the most sensitive and accurate of the Spanish chroniclers who wrote about Peru when its native life was still intact. This translation is both faithful to the original and pleasant to read. A firsthand account and one of the best in print; its relatively light narrative style makes it as useful to the student as to the professional historian or anthropologist. Von Hagen's extensive rearrangement of the original texts to form a single and continuous story is logical. His footnotes, however distract. (Morris)

Cline (see Benham)


Discusses topics such as “the Aztec and the Inca outlook on life and the violent impact of Spanish and Portuguese civilization, to the achievements of the colonial period and the emergence of the distinctive and sometimes consciously mestizo culture of the modern republics,” from the point of view of the pensadores. Asks acute, perceptive questions, and quotes freely from Latin American intellectuals. Divided into four sections: The Indian Mind, The Spanish Imprint, A Mind in the Making, and Brazil. Bibliography lists 32 works of Latin American literature appearing in English translation. The author says many engaging things. (For instance: “To be anti-American seems to be the hallmark of most Latin Americans today, as being anti-Spanish was the hallmark of an earlier generation” [p. 11-12]).

Students interested in the literature of intellectual history of Latin America would find this paperback to be a cultural approach to the subject.


A distinguished archaeologist has given us a brief, authoritative survey of Mexican archaeology from the late Pleistocene to the coming of the Spanish. Carefully covers the early cultures and the rise of the great civilizations. See also: Coe. The Maya (Praeger, 1966; 252 pp., $3.45. Illustrated, index). (Bartell)

Columbus, Christopher. Four Voyages to the New World. Citadel, 1961; 240 pp., $1.75. Index.

A reprint of one published a century ago, with the addition of an excellent six-page introduction by John Fagg. This pocket edition is bilingual (Latin and English for the first voyage; Spanish and English for the other three), with the English occupying the top half of each page. The print is rather small, and the edition not too attractive.
Comparative Education Review (see Benjamin 1965)

Condorito No. 15, Santiago de Chile: Editora Zig-Zag (Distributed by Extracurricular Programs, University Station, Provo, Utah), 1965. ($1.00). Notas y ejercicios ($1.25); Vocabulario (25 cents); Libreto correspondiente a ejercicios orales (25 cents); Tapes ($3.00).

The basic unit is the first mentioned above, which is a comic book worthy of the attention of Spanish teachers of intermediate and advanced sections. Probably the best way to use the set is in a language laboratory or in the classroom with a tape recorder in front of the class. The students follow the taped sequence, then refer to the Notas to do the exercises. The Libreto contains the taped script and can be used as reinforcement after the work has once been done in class. The Vocabulario is a duplication of the glossary at the end of Notas and can be dispensed with.

Condorito presents a number of cultural advantages: (1) the speech and accompanying drawing are authentic, (2) while the humor is Latin, American students have no trouble "getting" it, (3) through the use of "vos" and local idioms, the student is drawn into greater appreciation of dialectical differences, (4) sections can be skipped without injury to the student's future success. Then, too, the fact that the materials are obviously Chilean—and very few of us can pretend to know much about Chile—allows the teacher to relax into the role of student: he can not be expected to know all of the modismos, etc. This reviewer has used Condorito on the second- and third-year college levels and found the students especially enthusiastic on the 2nd level.


The best book that has been published on the Inter-American system (OAS) in recent years. Part is a well-balanced historical review of the system as it has evolved; the remainder is a discussion of its activities and structures and the uses to which they have been put. The author makes short shrift of the usual platitudes and partial truths that have been used to defend the system, but at the same time is fair in giving credit for its real achievements and potentialities. (Groves)


Covarrubias, Miguel. Indian Art of Mexico and Central America. Knopf, 1957; $17.50.

The best book that has been published on the Inter-American system (OAS) in recent years. Part is a well-balanced historical review of the system as it has evolved; the remainder is a discussion of its activities and structures and the uses to which they have been put. The author makes short shrift of the usual platitudes and partial truths that have been used to defend the system, but at the same time is fair in giving credit for its real achievements and potentialities. (Groves)

Crow, A. Spanish American Life. Rev. ed., Holt, 1963; 294 pp., $5.80. Vocabulary, maps. Illustrated reader for first-year Spanish classes. A general introduction into each country of Latin America along with a superficial view of the spirit and customs of the Spanish American people. Many of the selections are taken from works by native authors, e.g., Darío, Palma, and Quiroga. Reading aids, exercises and tapes for each chapter facilitate use of the text. (Rivera)

Current History. Current History Inc.: 95 cents per copy.

This monthly usually devotes one of its twelve annual issues to Latin America.

Deals with the Brazilian peasant resistance of 1896-97. Part One is a detailed description of the land and the man of Northeastern Brazil. Part Two consists of the rise of Antonio Conselheiro (leader of the rebels) and the reasons for his great success. The author links the propensity for fanaticism and rebellion with biology. This book, which has been compared with T. E. Lawrence's Seven Pillars of Wisdom, is very interesting and readable but limited by the author's oversimplified view of race and resistance. (Rivera)


Debray, the French journalist now in jail in Bolivia, has written a defense of guerrilla warfare as the means to achieve successful revolution in Latin America. He dismisses the more classic means of violent revolution, i.e., proletarian revolt in the cities led by a bolshevik-type party, as largely irrelevant in Latin America. The revolution does not require a party (especially not an urban-based or urban-directed party), nor extensive political work-support for the revolutionaries will come from the peasants in the armed struggle itself. For a provocative review of the problem of counter-insurgency research and the social scientist, see: Horowitz, I. L. (ed.). The Decline and Fall of Project Camelot (M.I.T., 1967; 385 pp., $3.95. Index). (Roman)


After developing the case for the necessity of integration, examines the Latin American Free Trade Association (LAFTA) and the Central American Common Market. The present problems of the LAFTA, the problems of transport and communications, the problems of special dispensations for the least developed member nations, the connection between integration and economic planning, the problems resulting from reciprocity requirements and the lack of a regional payments union are considered in sequence. Concludes by evaluating the role of foreign enterprises and the attitudes of nationalism and continentalism in the integration process.


Examines historical relation of Anglo-Saxon world with Spanish colonial empire, then studies how the Spanish Americans see the U.S.-a reality totally separated from the old vision such as in Rodó's Ariel. For del Río, there are presently no basic discrepancies between the conceptions of the world and man in the English and Spanish sides of America; the differences lie in resources and the way they have been developed. (Vázquez-Bigi)

Denton, C. F. "Interest Groups in Panama and the Central American Common Market," Inter-American Economic Affairs 21 (1), Summer 1967, 49-60.

Economic integration cannot occur in a vacuum. National pressure groups must exist to influence national policy to the extent a nation becomes involved in such multi-national schemes. Analyzes the various pressure groups in Panama, which has yet to join either of the Latin American economic integration efforts, suggesting the internal changes required if Panama is to become a participant in either of the Latin American economic integration organizations. (Scaperlanda)

Díaz del Castillo, Bernal. The Discovery and Conquest of Mexico (1517-1521) Noonday, 1956; 478 pp., $2.95. Index.

Eminently readable account of Cortés' adventurous conquest told by one of the soldiers who accompanied him through the whole campaign. Has relatively large type and is generally pleasant, but not illustrated.

Disselhoff, H. D., and S. Linne. The Art of Ancient America. Crown, 1961; $6.95. When the Spaniards arrived in the Western hemisphere they found cities of great splendor and civilization that in some respects outstripped their own. The sacked ruins have been rediscovered by archaeologists in recent times and their splendid art brought to the attention of the world. Describes the broad historical, sociological and religious backgrounds of the cultures which produced these art works and includes 60 striking color plates of the work itself. (Bartell)

Di Tella, Torcuato S., et al. Argentina, sociedad de masas. Buenos Aires: Editorial Universitaria (EUDEBA), 1965; 287 pp., $4.00. An excellent, highly technical though readable work for anyone wishing to advance in the study of Argentine history, sociology, and economics, after reading works like the ones by Whitaker, Scobie, and Martellaro, annotated in this bibliography. These studies, and others which have been appearing in great numbers in Argentina lately, import a healthy reaction against the romantic orientation of essayists earlier in this century and a return—with up-to-date scholarly methods and style—to the pessimistic attitudes of two and three generations ago eminently represented by sociologists such as José Ingenieros and Raúl Orgaz. (Vázquez-Bigi)


Draper (see Zeitlin 1963)


Englekirk, J. E., et al (eds.). An Anthology of Spanish American Literature. Rev. ed., Appleton, 1968; 864 pp., $8.95. This title is included among works devoted to cultural themes for the following reasons: it is the literary anthology best suited for a study of the cultures of different zones and their historical development; a sizable portion deals with the important field of Latin-American essay—sociological, historical, political—with names like Sarmiento (Facundo), Martí (Nuestra América), Rodó (Ariel), Vasconcelos (La raza cosmica). Even if their ideas are not always based on facts, and at times verge on myth, they were influential. A poem like Echeverría’s La cautiva, for instance, is an excellent lesson in the history and culture of the southern Pampas; book also contains an enlightening analogy to our “Wild West” literature as it was seen by Sarmiento. For a larger treatment of the sociological essay, see Ripoll, Carlos (ed.), Conciencia intelectual de América (Las Américas, 1966). (Vázquez-Bigi)

Espinosa, Aurelio M., Jr., R. L. Franklin, and K. A. Mueller. Cultura conversación y repaso. Heath, 1967; 325 pp. Beautifully illustrated and designed for intermediate or advanced Spanish classes, it unfortunately equates culture, for the most part, with literature. About a third of the book concerns itself with Latin America, the rest with Spain. The pedagogical mechanisms (“prácticas orales,” “aspectos gramaticales,” “ejercicios escritos,” etc.) are not designed to emphasize non-literary cultural items.

This handsome booklet is a disappointment. Although it offers a brief, simply written panoramic view of Latin America, it is written from a rather naive American point of view: “The United States had abandoned its role of policeman for the hemisphere by 1930…”; “[Latin America’s] interest in freedom and law has generally placed them on the side of the United States in the struggle against the Soviet bloc.” Many of the photographs are too obviously from official sources (Standard Oil, American Airlines, United Nations, etc.). Although the book’s most recent copyright is 1967, it does not show signs of having been brought up to date.

Fagg (see Martin)

Faron (see Lewis 1951)


A reader with studies on archaeology, architecture, plastic arts, and music, and chapters on representative Spanish-American men through the centuries including their original writings. Has a questionnaire and a vocabulary at the end. “Culture” in most of this book is understood in the connotation of that which is excellent in historical deeds, in the arts, letters, scholarly pursuits, etc. The choice of materials reflect the most typical (if there is such a category) or perhaps frequent or consecrated Latin-American tastes, and the high school teacher with an affinity for the same tastes and attitudes may find in its pages abundant material and inspiration for his classes. (Vázquez-Bigí)

Form and Blum (see Urquidi)


Attacks several myths. Argues that the countries are structurally underdeveloped and are getting poorer; that they are poor because the developed nations are rich; that their poverty is not due to any feudalism since all of Latin America is part of the world capitalist system; that the so-called national bourgeoisie is neither dynamic nor independent, but rather a compromised class, dependent financially, politically, and militarily on the U. S.; and that for Latin America to develop it will have to break out of the satellite relationship with the metropolis through a socialist revolution. See also: Magdoff, H. Economic Aspects of U. S. Imperialism (Monthly Review, 1966). (Roman)

Freyre, Gilberto. The Masters and the Slaves. Knopf, 1966; 432 pp., $2.95. Extensive glossary of Brazilian, Portuguese, American Indian, and African Negro expressions, including botanical and zoological terms. Studies the sexual, social, and economic behavior of the Portuguese colonizer of tropical northeastern Brazil. Freyre vividly portrays the ever-influential patriarchal system which produced, through miscegenation, the elasticity in the gradual “blurring of the color line” and which brought about, relatively speaking, a “balance” between the masters and the slaves, the intellectuals and the illiterates. Freyre's main thesis: that the culture of Brazil emanates from the patriarchal system. Although it is an over-simplification to claim such a vast historical and sociological inheritance from modern Brazil, the colonial traditions are deep-rooted in the psychological makeup of its people, rulers, and main cultural institutions. A sharp criticism of the Freyre-Tannenbaum thesis is available in M. Harris, Patterns of Race in the Americas (Walker, 1964; $1.95). (Gutiérrez)

Fuentes, Carlos (tr. by Hileman). Where the Air is Clear. Obolensky, 1960; 376 pp., $4.95.

This novel, reminiscent of John Dos Passos’ U.S.A., attempts to reduce Mexico to 376 pages of mosaics of society from which the reader is to construct an idea of what it means to be a Mexican. The story line follows the rise and fall of Federico Robles, a fictional composite of a former revolutionary. The author keeps the reader jumping from within the characters to the exterior point at which a new character enters Robles’ life. Fuentes places each character in his social niche in terms of what his life means to others. The tone of the novel reflects the anguish and seemingly loss of purpose the Mexicans have felt since the Revolution. This English translation of La región más transparente (Mexico City: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1958), can easily be adopted as supplementary reading in courses other than Spanish literature. (Rivera)


Guide to recent changes of historical interpretations of period. Prepared primarily for secondary school teachers, it proceeds from general works to such topics as the structure and operation of the Spanish Empire in America, the Black Legend, cultural history, Portuguese Brazil, and the Independence movements. (Ely)


A masterful synthesis of the subject, based on the most recent findings, by a scholar who himself has made important contributions to his field. Highly readable, clear. (Keen)


A highly readable study; one of a very few nation studies in the Latin American area devoted to an evaluation of the political system rather than to political history. Written after 1964, it contains an extensive discussion of the electoral outcome of the presidential race of that year and of the Christian Democratic Party. The best part of the book is certainly the chapter on political parties. The Chilean party structure has been influential and has evolved with a great deal of continuity over the years, and as such it has particular importance. (Groves)


An international economist presents in this his second book on the Latin American economy, a comprehensive, refined, survey of economic behavior and institutions. Included are analyses of private and public market organization; of economic welfare and related activities (social security legislation, labor movement); of economic development industrialization, capital formation; and of trade and finance (foreign exchange, public finance, banking, business cycles).

Unless the concepts contained in the first two chapters which trace the evolution of Latin America's "economic system" are well understood, one is likely to substantially misjudge contemporary events. (Scaperlanda)


A sampling of these is essential to understanding what guerrilla warfare is, who are the participants, what are their goals. For an historical perspective, see also: Humphreys, R. A., and J. Lynch. The Origins of the Latin American Revolutions, 1808-18... (Knopf, 1966; 308 pp., $2.50. Bibliography). (Roman)


Information and statistics on every country in South America, laced liberally with stories and opinions of the 722 people that Gunther interviewed. Over a year of travel and research went into the book and it is up to date. An extensive bibliography scattered throughout the text. (Bartell)

Guetzkow (see Scott 1966)


A must on the reading list of those who want to understand the culture of any society. Points out how people "talk" to one another without the use of words--whether they be North Americans or Uruguayans. The spoken language is only one means of communication. Our manners and behavior often speak more plainly than words. Tradition, taboo, environment, habits and customs which are powerful influences on character and personality vary greatly from country to country. This, then, is a colorful and provocative excursion into anthropology as it pertains to day-to-day life and the culture patterns of our own and other countries. (Glab)


Editor's 22-page introduction places dictators in wider frame of reference--namely, "more impersonal social, economic, intellectual, and, even, psychological forces in the history of Latin America." His 18 selections are intended to explore and explain the caudillo, "one of the
major historical phenomena of the region.” Beginning with some modern theories of personalism and dictatorship in Hispanic culture, the essays then trace Spanish American strongmen and their evolution from the early 19th century down to conspicuous but somewhat different types in recent decades. (Ely)


Combines a wealth of general information not easily found in booklet form and information on how to obtain materials on institutions and agencies, an annotated list of readily obtainable films about Latin America, not to mention an 11-page bibliography of recent publications. (Ely)


Contains 5,000 annotated selections culled from an initial corpus of 50,000 articles and books in the fields of art (15%), history (25%), language (5%), literature (35%), music (5%), philosophy (10%), and bibliography (5%). See directly below.


Thousands of annotated selections of publications on anthropology, economics, education, geography, government and international relations, law, and sociology. Each section begins with a brief survey by the editors. The 1968 edition will review the humanities again, and the 1969 edition the social sciences, and so—one hopes—alternately forever.

For the teacher who wants to be able to refer advanced students to relevant literature (contained, perhaps, in a near-by university library), these volumes are compact and indispensable.


Good general introductions, followed by short sections on regions and major countries, and selections from authorities on special problems. Can be advantageously used in conjunction with Keen’s Readings. (Vázquez-Bigi)

Hanke, L. Spanish Struggle for Justice in the Conquest of America. Little, 1966; $1.95. Classical 1949 study. Hanke’s research in Spain and Spanish America led him to refute the so-called “black legend” concerning the bad treatment of natives in the Spanish colonies. For Hanke—notwithstanding the abuses committed in practice by Spaniards in the New World—no nation in history made a more sincere effort than Spain to defend the Indians of America. Represents a major turning point in the interpretation of Spanish history. (There is a Spanish translation, Madrid: Aguilar, 1959.) (Vázquez-Bigi)


Traces the means by which Puerto Rico has been transformed from a poorhouse of the Caribbean to the highest per capita income level in Latin America because of its unique affiliation with the United States and by sheer determination of its “bootstraps.” See also: Hill, R., J. M. Stykos, and K. W. Back. The Family and Population Control: A Puerto Rican Experiment in Social Change (New Haven: College & Univ. P., 1959 [paperback 1965]); 481 pp., $3.45. Bibliography, index). (Dillman)

Hanson, E. P. “New Conquistadors in the Amazon Jungle.” Americas 17 (9) 1965, 1-8, 35 cents.

Plans for gaining access to the suspected abundant wealth of the Amazon Basin are now a reality. The Basin, almost as large as the United States (minus Alaska and Hawaii), has been a socio-economic vacuum loosely attached to Brazil, Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia. The six countries, with varying degrees of emphasis, have turned their attention toward development of the long-neglected region across the Andes. Capstone of future development is a forest-edged highway along the eastern slopes of the Andes, beginning in Venezuela and terminating in Bolivia. The road, with auxiliary routes, will open millions of acres for settlement providing a possible safety valve for rapidly-growing population. Moreover, industrial raw materials will become available to the “Amazon” countries, and the cultivation of new lands could ease food supply problems. For historical perspective, see Morse, R. M. The Bandeirantes: The Historical Role of the Brazilian Pathfinders (Knopf, 1965; 215 pp., $2.50). (Dillman)
A great Harvard historian sums up the researches of a lifetime. Indispensable for institutional history. Should supplement Gibson (see above) for the teacher or student who wishes additional information. (Keen)

Harris (see Freyre)

This pamphlet deals in general with the educational administration, organization, and structure of the representative systems of education. The statements made in this short comparative study are accurate but ought to be documented in the light of recent statistical changes. The reader should refer to pamphlets on individual countries published by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C.: Education in Peru, 1964, 30 cents; Education in Chile, 1964, 20 cents; The Development of Education in Venezuela, 1963, 55 cents. (Gutiérrez)

Contains 28 articles written by different experts, organized under 4 major entries: The delineation of cultural entities in Latin America; Land, agriculture, and economics; Social organization; and Views of the world. Each of the 4 sections begins with an introduction by one of the editors.

Deals with the problems of economic development faced by the underdeveloped world. Short, cogent, highly readable. Brings the "dismal science" of economics alive with brilliant treatment of the problems facing any nation wanting to develop economically. Deals with the problems of development in general, but one can learn a great deal about the problems of economic development in Latin America in particular by reading it. (Glab)

side with matching pages of Horcasitas' translation into Spanish. Introductory notes to each chapter and a glossary round out the unique story. (Wicke)

Horowitz (see Debray)

Humphreys and Lynch (see Guevara)


Essential reference work for student and general reader alike. Invaluable guide to monographic and periodical literature, in addition to printed source materials and traveller's accounts. Has over 2000 entries with appropriate cross references divided into 14 major categories. (Ely)


A journalist and former Communist regards Latin America as a tinder box. One of his conclusions: "...democratic Christian organizations... are successfully operating in fields which in the past were left to Communists... these are permitted to continue their activities unimpeded by the government, a genuinely non-Marxist progressive movement may in time emerge" (p. 206). Quite readable.


Focuses attention on the historical development. By "the military," Johnson means the elite officers of the armed forces, principally the army which has most frequently imposed its will on Latin societies. Describes the various means, direct and indirect, employed by the military in their dictation of economic and political policy.

Two main themes emerge from this study. Contrary to the pattern of military leaders in other areas of the world, Latin officers tend to be followers, not leaders. More importantly, as products of their environments, the decisions of Latin officers are not always based on objectivity; more often than not judgments are preconceptional in origin. For this reason, the social-economic background of military leaders is made a focal point of exploration by the author. Related to this is Johnson's contention that in the future, the attitudes and reactions of the officers to social change will prove most instrumental in shaping the destiny of Latin nations.

Whether or not one can fully concur that Latin officers tend to be followers is debatable, for although ample evidence supports this thesis, one can convincingly argue to the contrary. (Martellaro)


One of the most influential books in the field of Latin American politics, it analyzes the development and character of the largely urban, nationalistic non-elite element in Latin American politics. This cannot be called a middle class for it lacks the economic homogeneity of a middle class. Johnson calls it the middle "sector." In certain nations of Latin America this element of the population has assumed a size and political importance that has made it the dominant factor in national political development. Johnson covers the middle sector development in each of these nations separately. In all nations of Latin America the urban, non-elite...
traditionalist sense) groups have had a rapidly expanding influence in the 20th century, and therein lies the importance of this work. (Groves)


After an excellent introduction by Johnson, the subsequent 9 chapters concern themselves with the peasant (Wagley), rural labor (R. N. Adams), the writer (Ellison), the artist (Chase), the military (MacAlister), the industrialist (Strassmann), the urban worker (Bonilla), the university student (Silvert), and Latin America and Japan compared (Dore). Students might be directed to a specific chapter on an area that they had already become interested in.


This scholarly work focuses on the varieties of words and gestures, decent and indelicate, used to discuss superstition, delicacy, mental and moral defects, financial status, offenses and consequences, and corporal and sexual decency. The inclusion of so much data of intrinsic interest to students makes this study worthy of consideration as a library acquisition by the teacher who wants to introduce the student to the many dialectal varieties extant in Latin America. Two other works by the same author develop other less controversial phases of dialect: American-Spanish Semantics (Univ. of Calif., 1960; 352 pp., $6.50) and American-Spanish Syntax (Univ. of Chicago, 2nd ed., 1951; 467 pp., $7.50).

Kazamias and Epstein (see Benjamin 1965)


First and still broadest selection of source reading in Latin American history. Can be used alone or adopted to standard texts such as Herring (see above). Prefaces to major sections and individual chapters present crisp summaries of special periods or topics, and each of the readings is introduced by succinct explanatory remarks in italics. Editor's skillful translations preserve original vigor and charm of contemporary and eyewitness accounts, whether describing Aztec human sacrifices or the status of women in Latin American society today. (Ely)


An anthropological study of the rural-urban contrast in modern Spanish life. See also Pitt-Rivers.


This beautiful and expensive book is probably more suited to library purchase than individual ownership. Its value lies more in its illustrations than in its text, which often goes so far in its attempt to entertain that it becomes uninformative. Its excellent collection of well-printed air photographs effectively conveys the significance of the Andean achievements in urbanism, and the large format of the book makes it useful for classroom demonstration. As a whole, it achieves its purpose of giving the average reader an understanding of many of the qualities of the important relationships between the ancient Peruvian societies and the land and water they so thoroughly controlled in building their civilizations. (Morris)


Handsomely illustrated in black and white. Mostly reconstructs ancient Aztec and Maya dances.

Laguna Language Series. Kenworthy Educational Service, Inc., Buffalo, N. Y. La Caperucita Roja; Los Tres Osos; Los Cuatro Cantantes de Guadalajara; El Flautista de Jamelin; Doña Cigarra y Doña Zorra y Doña Cigüeña. Starter set per title: $14.50; classroom set per title: $37.25. FLES materials consisting of recordings, cartoon booklets, filmstrips, teacher's guides. While only Los Cuatro Cantantes...has illustrations which are peculiarly Latin, all of these stories belong to the popular child-culture of Latin America (as well as the U. S.) and as such deserve attention. These sets are rather well done with drills, etc.


The most recent synthesis of Andean
prehistory, and excellent both in terms of its inclusion of newly collected data and its presentation. Coverage is somewhat uneven, devoting much more space to the pre-agricultural and early agricultural peoples than to the later urban societies — undoubtedly the result of the author’s own interests and research — but it is useful in filling a serious gap in the previous literature regarding the early periods. More useful as up-to-date background material for teachers than for students, but not so technical as to be beyond the understanding of the serious student. (Morris)


These excellent studies offer much assistance and insight in building sound content; they do not discuss methodological techniques. Highly recommended.

Latin American Research Review. (LARR Subscriptions, U. of Texas P., P.O. Box 7819, Austin, Texas 78712 [$9.00 per year for individuals].) Published 3 times a year (beginning with 1965), this journal devotes half of each issue to brief reports of research in progress, while the other half contains excellent survey articles, often followed by commentaries by other specialists.


Perhaps the most painless, interesting introduction; beautifully illustrated. Pictures lend themselves to analysis in terms of variables of age, sex, social class, and residence. Handles the political issues.

Leaf, M. El Cuento de Ferdinando. Viking, 1962; 68 pp., $2.00 Also available in English: The Story of Ferdinand. LP recording of Spanish, with drills, available from EMC Corp., 180 East 6th St., St. Paul, Minnesota 55101.

In spite of an Anglo-sweetened personification of a Spanish bull, this wonderfully illustrated story and fine recording make delightful reading and listening for the elementary school teacher.


An excellent compendium of the history, culture, customs of the Latin-American nation closest to us — geographically and historically. Has a still valuable “bibliografía selecta” covering bibliographical materials, anthologies, history, geography, sociology, archaeology, pre-Hispanic cultures, plastic arts, music, folklore, popular art. Suitable for classroom use if the teacher wants to center on a country which is a first-magnitude focal area, rather than giving an extended (and, perhaps, not very precise) view of the continent. Its language level is appropriate for 3rd year high school and upward. (Vázquez-Bigi)


Magnificently illustrated treatment of pre-Hispanic Indian cultures south of the Río Grande.


A collection of moving excerpts from Indian historical accounts that reveal the rich cultural heritage of Indian America and record the pathos of its destructions by the Spanish Conquest. (Keen)

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Excellent study by a team of social scientists. Although the comprehensive portrayal of the villager which emerges is less sympathetic than that of the later studies by Lewis, it can still be highly recommended. The paperback edition not nearly as handsome as the hardcover; a fine abridgement is available in paperback (Holt: Case Studies in Cultural Anthropology series, 1960; $1.95). See also, from the same Holt series: Faron, Louis C. The Mapuche Indians of Chile. 1968; 113 pp.


Essential to understanding forces for change in Latin America today is an appreciation of the poor in both the cities and the countryside. Offers a sympathetic portrayal of Mexicans of diverse backgrounds: rural and urban, lower and middle class. Lewis’ methods of research using the tape recorder for capturing actual conversations as well as his concept of “the culture of poverty” have aroused considerable controversy among social scientists. Perhaps his approach is overly pessimistic. Nevertheless, Lewis has produced a fascinating document. His sequels, The Children of Sanchez (Random, 1961; $2.50) and Pedro Martinez (Random, 1964; $8.75) focus on individual families in the original book. La Vida (Random, 1966; $7.00) uses the same field techniques to describe the Puerto Rican poor of San Juan and N.Y.C. (Wicke)


This sympathetic, eminently readable account of the history and sociology of Haiti was first published in 1941 and is brought nicely up to date with a 32-page Introduction by Sidney Mintz and an annotated bibliography of recent relevant publications. Mintz says that “[t]he central thesis of Leyburn’s book is that Haitian society is sharply divided into two segments, and that the national institutional structure is such that no significant alteration in that division has occurred in the entire course of Haiti’s history as a sovereign nation. At the base of the society is the rural agricultural sector, making up perhaps as much as 95% of the population; at the top the elite, which dominates the governmental apparatus and all national institutions. These two segments of society differ, in Leyburn’s view, in all important regards: level of income, source of income, education, language, religion, social forms, values and attitudes, and all else...Leyburn was so impressed by the gap which separated yeomanry and elite that he chose to label these social segments castes rather than classes” (p.viii). See also: James, C. L. R. The Black Jacobins: Toussaint L’Ouverture and San Domingo Revolution (2nd ed. rev., Vintage, 1963; 426 pp., $2.45. Index) for an historical account of the engrossing War of Independence.


An excellent introduction. Gives a balanced and objective account of the area, beginning with the earliest days of the North American colonies and tracing policy up to the present decade. (Glab)


Using primarily the tools of an historian, Lieuwen examines the role the military has played and continues to play in politics. The author shows an anti-military bias but this does not color his description of the important position of the military. Of substantial interest to the introductory student would be the second part of the book which examines U. S. policy toward the Latin American military. Analyzes the role of the military in the Cañero regime of Cuba. In general, the author condemns the U. S. policy of military aid to Latin America on the ground that it has encouraged military intervention in politics. (Groves)


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Comprehensive survey completely in Spanish for 2nd year language classes as a supplement to a grammar. Very well illustrated objective presentation of subjects which range from primitive men, flora and fauna, to the future of Latin America. A "cuestionario" and suggested topics for composition and conversation follow each chapter. Offers those with no previous knowledge of area; a superficial panorama. (Rivera)


Same laudatory comments made of Lavine (see bibliographic entry) are applicable here, too.

McAlister, L. N. "Recent Research and Writing on the Role of the Military in Latin America." Latin American Research Review 2 (1). Fall 1966, 5-36.

Well-written article reviews the literature on the military in Latin America and is the logical source to begin a study of them. Probably the most informative single brief source on the subject.


When a popularly elected government was overthrown by a military coup in Nicaragua in 1925, armed revolt sprang up in different parts of the country. This became "institutionalized" by 1927 when the guerrilla leader Sandino launched a campaign against the U. S. marines in Nicaragua. The first 4 pages of the preface offer a concise introduction into 20th century guerrilla warfare in Latin America. The author, who served 5 months fighting alongside Castro's guerrillas in 1958 before breaking with Castro over communism, has written an engaging politico-military account of this 7-year "affair." Although Macaulay's sympathies lie with Sandino, the book is essentially objective and not a polemic tract.

Recommended to teachers and students who enjoy interesting accounts of military engagements or who are interested in guerrilla warfare. Also affords a fascinating account of U. S. meddling in the internal affairs of Latin America.


Best introduction available; anthropological study. Its readability makes it appropriate for secondary students as well as scholars.

Magdoff (see Frank)


Presents a penetrating study of several principal intertwined economic, political, and social factors, past and contemporary, which have frustrated the economic development and growth of a Latin nation which in a number of ways displayed much potential to achieve self-sustained growth. See also: Alexander, R. J. Labor Relations in Argentina, Brazil, and Chile (McGraw-Hill, 1962; 411 pp. Notes, index).


Within the limitations of space, this is a useful classroom or library reference. It would exceed the claims of the book to regard it as 100% accurate. See also: Fagg, J. E. Latin America: A General History (Macmillan, 1963; 1070 pp. Further readings, index.)

Mertz, J. D. (ed.). The Dynamics of Change in Latin America. Prentice-Hall, 1965; 283 pp., $6.00.

Thirty of the finest readings on Latin America written by leading authorities in the field, among them George I. Blanksten, Albert Hirschman, John J. Kennedy, Kalman H. Silvert, and Theodore Wychoff. Analysis, rather than being done on a country-to-country basis, is according to subject matter. As a consequence, the reader encounters a diversity of topics: church dichotomies, communism, ideologies of economic development, labor and politics, trends in social thought, etc. Despite the variety, the main thread which stitches the various contributions together is a pronounced emphasis on "dynamic action and change." (Martellaro)


Revised edition of a standard 1933 reference work updates the coverage through 1963 and reshapes the emphasis (which in the earlier edition was heavily Mexican) to be
more hemispheric. Uses an historical, chronological approach to explain and interpret the political relations of the Church. First 3 chapters deal with Latin America globally from colonization through independence; subsequent 12 chapters organized around a country or culture area. Concluding chapter offers a concise review of the political role of religion in Latin America, and is vigorously written. A major source of information for the teacher, its usefulness for the secondary student is limited as a result of the academic language with which the author burdens the reader (e.g., "This omission contributed to subsequent acrimonious arguments as to whether the Federal or State governments controlled patronage" [p. 31]; "The clerics gave utterance to most fanatical language and sowed alarm among the people" [p. 311]. A paperback dedicated to Mecham (Pike, F. B. [ed]. The Conflict Between Church and State in Latin America. Knopf, 1964; 239 pp.) contains an anthology of brief essays by Latins and foreigners, organized around the colonial, national, and contemporary periods.

Mitchell, C. (see Deli)

Mitchell, W. H. (see Benjamin)


A well-annotated provocative volume attempting to explain why there are such great differences between the United States of America and the United States of Brazil. Refutes the theory that the black race and miscegenation are the causes of a retarded culture and civilization. Instead, suggests the differences lie in the character and motives of the settlers. Presents an eclectic outlook to the question of the backwardness of Brazil as compared to the U. S. A. Moog's technique of citing a theory, giving examples to refute the premise, then posing questions is very effective. (Rivera)


Compact, excellent study. For an even briefer review of the work done by historians to reconstruct and analyze the role of the Indian and Negro in colonial Latin America, see Mörner, "The History of Race Relations in Latin America: Some Comments on the State of Research," (Latin American Research Review 1 (3), Summer 1966, 17-44).

Morse (see Hansen 1965)


Consists of a brief introduction for the discussion leader, followed by 9 illustrated pamphlets of about 10 pp. each which probe Mexico's social revolution, the slow rate of change in Indian America, land reform, urban explosion, economic growth and one-crop economies, communist inroads, democracy and the Latin, U. S. aid, and the role of the Catholic Church in the struggle between democracy and communism. Unforunately, this useful kit is almost out of print.


Surveys the historical and social background, political parties, the military, political violence, governmental structure and public policy. A topical, rather than country-by-country approach. Will make fascinating reading for anyone seeking a general understanding. (Glab)


Written from a political scientist's viewpoint, this is a concise, comprehensive and technical survey of Central American economic integration. The initial examination of a "political-economy" (Functionalist) theory of economic integration is followed by a survey of integration attempts in Central America. The role of the political culture in the integration process is examined. The domestic political costs of integration and the relationship between these costs and integration's progress are considered. Concludes with an analysis of the influence of external factors in economic integration's progress. The most important of these external factors are identified as the Economic Commission for Latin America and the United States. References to many other works are contained in the footnotes. (Scaperlanda)

Relates the origins of the Alliance and summarizes the development programs of international, regional, and domestic agencies in Latin America. Subsequent to discussion of the physical and human geography of Latin America, the program's evolution is presented clearly to complement later analysis of its mechanics and operational difficulties. The goals, accomplishments, and failures of the Alliance are reviewed for each country supplying, thereby, a useful interpretive source for those unacquainted with the intent and workings of this far-reaching development scheme. (Dillman)

Osborn (see Benham)

Owens (see Benham)

Padgett, L. V. The Mexican Political System. Houghton Mifflin, 1966; 244 pp., $2.75. Bibliography, index.

An excellent treatment of policies and political structures. Devotes only passing attention to the governmental institutions, preferring instead to focus on such things as the Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI), the President as a political leader, and the revolutionary past as a source of political legitimacy. The Mexican political system is distinctive in many respects from others of Latin America, but it has achieved stability and remarkable material progress for the country. This book amply describes the system and, as such, provides much valuable insight into the Mexican success story. See also: Scott, R. E. Mexican Government in Transition (Rev. ed., U. of Illinois P., 1964; 345 pp., $2.25). Bibliography, index. (Groves)


This authoritative analysis begins with a current (1961-64) appraisal of the Latin American economic development situation. In successive sections, export problems of external financing for development, and various domestic problems are related to economic development prospects. In addition to the clear, concise analysis, the number and quality of statistical tables make this a very useful volume. (Scaperlanda)


Particularly good for routes and ways of trade and imperial rivalry, but also treats, in richer detail than Gibson, social, economic, and political arrangements in the Spanish Empire in America. (Keen)


The analysis is suggestive of much broader application than the title indicates. Attempts to view labor unions and the government in their political setting and, as a result, provides a good introduction to Peruvian political life. The central thesis is that the process of bargaining by labor unions is infinitely more political than that in our own country. Suggests that the unions constantly and deliberately provoke governmental intervention in the bargaining process, often with the use of strategic violence. While written at a fairly advanced level, it is invaluable in demonstrating that processes that seem outwardly similar to those in our own country, in fact, are likely to be essentially different under conditions that prevail in Latin America. (Groves)


An interpretive, analytical essay on the psychology of the Mexican man by one of the best contemporary Mexican poets. (El laberinto de la soledad. 2nd rev. ed., México: Fondo de Cultura Económica, 1959; 191 pp.) (Vázquez-Bigi)


Successfully surveys the major processes that have influenced the development of one of the world's three great tropical archipelagos (the others being the East Indies and the Philippines). The West Indies differs from the others by its heterogeneous political entities and diversified cultural traditions. Emphasis is placed on the common problems arising from the tangential political, economic, language, religious, and cultural patterns in addition to factors of isolation and limited resource base. (Dillman)

Pendle, G. A History of Latin America. Pelican,
1963; 249 pp., $1.25. Bibliography, index, 5 maps.

An historical introduction. Makes a good "first book" on Latin America for both high school and college students. Not recommended for anyone who already has some knowledge of the area. See also: Bierck, H. A. (ed.). Latin American Civilization: Readings and Essays (Allyn, 1967; 438 pp.). (Glab)

Pendle (see also: Benham)

Perkins (see Dozer)


Concludes that the amount of space in elementary and secondary textbooks devoted to Latin America is adequate, quantitatively, but "they contain much that could not help at all and possibly could hinder" (p. 118). Specifically mentions as questionable the "Black Legend with its excessive concentration on the brutality and ineptness of the Spanish...[and] the aura of condescension relating to institutional elements of Latin America." The author emphasizes importance of the textbook (over supplementary aids) in student understanding.


Asks the important historical and economic questions and sets up relevant models of political control.

Most books written on Latin American politics begin with the solemn declaration that Latin America is composed of so many diverse nations that it is extremely difficult to make generalizations; then the authors proceed to make generalizations which have nothing to do with the reality of power and poverty in Latin America, which hardly attempt to peek behind the "democratic" paper constitutions, which talk of development in an area in which the poor grow poorer, which speak of the harmony of interest with the U. S. rather than the depraving effects of U. S. domination, which speak of stability and order in an area in which the only hope is revolutionary change, which forget that the real violence taking place in Latin America today is in the lives of the poor with their struggle to subsist under intolerable conditions. On the other hand, Petras and Zeitlin have selected essays which get to the crux of the valid generalizations these countries have in common -- the role of imperialism, the role of the class struggle, the role of revolution -- initiating the rewriting of Latin American history. (Roman)


A highly readable, imaginative synthesis by a Venezuelan man of letters whose immense erudition does not interfere with his capacity for fresh, sprightly writing. (Keen)

Pike (see Mechan)


Excellent study by a noted anthropologist of a town in Southern Spain. See also Kenny 1961 (above).

Poblete and Burnett (see Urquidi)


Intended as an introduction from a geographer's view. More attention is paid to physical geography than usual, a reflection of German influence; yet, the writing also shows a cultural-determinist approach which is more French or American than German or British. Refreshingly direct and realistic approach to many problems makes this a valuable work. Many photographs and maps enable meaningful geographic appraisal to be made and lend substance to the editor's concluding preface statement: "Area study is a field to which the geographer brings unique concepts and talents. In the Jay's world... the complexity of area problems and problem areas [allows] the geographer [to contribute importantly] to the understanding and interpretation of the earth's surface."

One criticism is the small type employed; also page size hampers clarity of some maps. See also: Robinson, H. Latin America: A Geographical Survey (Rev. ed., Praeger, 1967; 499 pp. Illustrated, bibliography). (Dillman)

This handsome book has 15 chapters which develop a different aspect of Spanish (not Latin American) culture, including the university, politics, military service, movies, anti-Americanism, juvenile delinquency. Each chapter begins with a photograph relating to the topic and ends with pattern and substitution drills. The “Sheila and Pilar” approach is a little mickey mouse but many of the reviewer’s advanced Spanish students found the book enjoyable. Lends itself to giving the students a “fondo de conversacion” for themes of real interest.


These classic works remain unsurpassed for breadth of conception and literary charm, although their romantic attitudes clearly reveal their age. (Keen)

Redfield, R. The Folk Culture of Yucatan. U. of Chicago P., 1941; $7.50.

A University of Chicago anthropologist describes differing world-views among the inhabitants of the Yucatan Peninsula in Mexico. For Mérida, capital of the State of Yucatán, he delineates the heterogeneity, secularism and social stratifications that characterize the urban view. A contrasting folk view is pictured for a tribal village in Quintana Roo showing homogeneity, religiosity, and egalitarianism. Two intermediate communities—a town and a village—are fitted between the ends of Redfield’s folk-urban continuum. One of the latter, Chankom, received particular attention in a follow-up study 17 years later (Redfield, A Village That Chose Progress: Chankom Revisited, U. of Chicago P., 1950; 187 pp., $1.50).

The urban concept of progress was introduced into Chankom by American archaeologists during two decades work at the nearby ruin of Chichén Itzá. Redfield’s optimism in Chankom’s going “forward with technology” is belied by today’s empty village—abandoned by success-oriented villagers who migrated to the cities in search of “progress.” (Wicke)


Excellent guide to all the archaeological sites in Mexico, with maps of their location, cultural and historical background of the people, details of their discovery and restoration, and pictures of the sites as they stand today. Also gives location of the artifacts found with pictures. (Bartell)


In 1848 the Maya Indians waged war against their “white masters.” The actual military campaigns subsided after 7 years, but the rebels, using guerrilla tactics, held control of the jungles for the rest of the century. “Occasional raids brought them food, guns, alcohol, and prisoners—white men and women who ended their days as slaves in Mayan villages.” Interestingly written.

Ripsell (see Englekirk)


The best brief introduction to such key figures as Bolívar, San Martín, and Hidalgo, by one of the founders of Latin American History in the United States, a former professor at the University of Illinois. (Keen)

Robinson (see Pohl)

Rodgers (see Burr)

Ross, S.R. (ed.). Is the Mexican Revolution Dead? Knopf, 1966; 225 pp., $2.50. Bibliography. Provocative anthology of contemporary and recent interpretations of the Revolution of 1910, edited and organized by a leading U.S. specialist in 20th-century Mexican history. Ratio of 18 selections from Mexican authors to four by North Americans affords non-Spanish speaking readers an unusual opportunity to probe (in translation) some of the best minds in Mexico and gain a better understanding of what Latin America’s first successful economic and social revolution has meant for their nation—and for the United States. (Ely)

Sánchez and Barrientos (see Benjamin)
Sarmiento, Domingo F. Life in the Argentine Republic in the Days of the Tyrants; or Civilization and Barbarism (tr.). Collier, 2nd printing, 1966; 288 pp., $1.80. Private indexing under way, with consent of the publisher.

No book, to this annotator’s knowledge, gives a more vital reading experience of the forces of violence and education. Had there been a few more Latin American Sarmientos, perhaps today there would be less opportunity (dare we say need?) for the Castros and the Guevaras to come to the rescue of their countrymen. Mary Mann put it quite nearly a hundred years ago: “Their wild cry of agony now summons him to their aid.” (Emphasis nine; cf. p. 20.) (Smith)

Scaperlanda (see Dell)

Schmitt and Burks (see Anderson)

Schurz, W. L. Brazil: The Infinite Country. Dutton, 1961; 346 pp., $5.95. Supplementary reading list, pronunciation and spelling guide to Portuguese, index.

Those who would understand Latin America’s largest nation-state should not ignore this book. Brings into perspective the diverse elements of people and land that constitute the emerging giant of Brazil. Presents material in three basic categories: the scene, the characters, and the action. An approach that is mainly topical in nature tends to obscure the importance of regionalism in Brazil. The regional character of man-land relationships antecedent to present conditions suffers from Schurz’s treatment. This criticism should not detract from the book’s value, rather it underlines the difficulties inherent in an effort of such magnitude. (Dillman)


True to its title, a survey of the geography, history, people, economy, customs, and politics of the lands south of the Río Grande. This revised work concentrates on the recent changes in the political and economic scenes. Useful for the specialist or the general reader, the book might serve as a companion to Pohl 1967 because of its wider spectrum. (Dillman)

Scobie (see Whitaker 1964)

Scott 1964 (see Padgett)


The authors describe eight different simulates, each illustrating a different type, and discuss their theoretical implications. Four of the examples are based on Brazilian and Chilean models. A must for teachers interested in simulation as a technique for teaching complex issues. The authors cite Simulation in International Relations: Developments for Research and Teaching by Guetzkow, et al (Prentice-Hall, 1963) as having influenced their thinking. Scott’s last chapter, “The Procedures and Uses of Simulation,” offers a thought-provoking review of the potentialities of simulations as an educational technique. See also: Abt, C. C. Games for Learning. Occasional Paper No. 7. (Cambridge Mass. 01238): Educational Services, Inc., 1966; 24 pp.

Senior (see Sexton)


A compassionate look at one of our slums by a Ph.D and former labor union activist. Quotes from children and adults alike help enliven this perceptive and sprightly written paperback. For another excellent study, see Senior, C. The Puerto Ricans: Strangers, Then Neighbors (Quadrangle, 1961; 128 pp., $3.50. Bibliography, index).


Contains the edited papers of the fourth annual Catholic Inter-American Cooperation Program (CICOP) conference; especially — but not exclusively — appropriate as an introduction for Catholic students or for teachers who want to learn more about a wide range of subjects, many of which are developed with Catholic insight. The papers of the 1968 CICOP conference on “Cultural Factors in Inter-American Relationships: Bond or Barrier” will be available in the fall of 1968. See also Considine 1966.


By now a classic, has been rewritten and brought up to date four times since its original publication in 1941. It remains, however, a uniquely comprehensive one-volume history. Manages to cover
everything from the geological beginnings of Mexico up to 1966, with a few forecasts for the coming years and Mexico’s history to be. (Bartell)

Smith, Margaret G. (ed.). Thoughts on the “New Theology” of Violence in Latin America. Available from: Sister Margaret G. Smith, RSCJ, Assistant Professor of History, Maryville College, 13550 Conway Rd., St. Louis, Missouri 63141, 1968. Available at cost $3.50, two for $6.00. (First supply limited to 100.) Bibliography.

This small, privately duplicated (xeroxed) packet is a collection of some of the current religious thought on the possibility of a necessary and justified recourse to revolutions of physical violence. An anthology of articles from professional and popular periodicals, with an introduction by the editor.

A striking, underlying thought seems common to all: the fearful inevitability of violence as the only way to break through the social structures which themselves exercise a cruel form of physical violence in the form of oppression, with consequent misery and death due to unalleviated hunger, poverty, and health conditions, under-utilization of resources, wealth of the few at the expense of the many, etc. The concept of necessary physical violence as a form of legitimate self-defense against the physical violence of oppression is especially evident in the extreme positions taken by the guerrilla padres and their guevara-debray-brethren.


For readers wondering what happened to Cuba during the four-and-one-half centuries separating Columbus from Castro, the editor provides quite a few of the answers in this anthology of 25 excerpts from the writings of U. S., Cuban, and European authors. Healthy antidote to last decade’s deluge of usually subjective and didactic publications of instant “experts” bemused by Castro’s charisma or alleged international conspiracies. Places events since 1959 in proper historical perspective, tracing roots of present situation far back into Cuban past. (Ely)


Bibliography.

One of the Americas’ most distinguished rural sociologists brings together 19 examples from significant Latin American sources—individual essays, speeches, and government documents—to illustrate different views of the agrarian reform issue from mid-19th century down to 1960’s. Of particular value is editor’s comprehensive and lucid analysis (pp. 3-59) of both general and specific aspects of the problems, based on personal observations and research in Brazil, Bolivia, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, and Venezuela. See also: Smith. The Process of Rural Development in Latin America (U. of Florida P., 1967; 87 pp.). (Ely)


A condensation of the 7-volume classic Handbook of South American Indians; strong emphasis on environment in accounting for the wide differences among South American natives. All cultural levels are treated, from the elaborate socialist Inca Empire to the hunters and gatherers of Tierra del Fuego. Post-European changes in regard to the native populations received analytical attention. (Wicke)


Former chief South American correspondent for the New York Times (1956-1961), Szulc critically examines the reasons for current economic, social and political instability in Latin America. He points out that: "A violent reassessment of the old values is under way, as the new Latin American generations, which no longer have any use for the past, are moving into positions of intellectual, economic, and political leadership." The spirit of revolution has a host of origins among which are exploding populations, misdirected use of the land’s wealth, feudal conditions in rural areas, urban misery and overcrowding, and lack of progressive, democratic governments. An informative analysis of the development of revolutionary ideologies coupled with warnings and suggested guidelines for the future makes this one of the best recent journalistic contributions to Latin American affairs. (Dillman)

Here in another region, and in a later period than Sarmiento's, the same themes in Latin American history confront us: regionalism and cataclysm. Organized topically (14 chapters in all): land, people, an exciting survey, revolution, politics and government, problems concerning property, labor, agrarianism, church-state relations, education, U.S. relations; and 3 chapters on "The Conditions of Economic Progress." (Smith)


Popular survey of various challenges confronting peoples of Latin America today by one of the Hemisphere's foremost Latin Americanists. Reflects author's preoccupation with problems of peasant societies (above all the Indian), as well as his intimate contacts with Mexico and the Mexicans between the two World Wars. Despite thin coverage and somewhat simplistic approach to such complex questions as industrialization and urbanization, the work has genuine merit as an introduction to some of the principal problems besetting Latin America in the second half of the 20th century. Author's "ten keys" are: The Land and Its People, Race, Religion, Regionalism, The Hacienda, Leadership, Politics, The United States and Latin America, and, finally, Castro and Social Change. (Ely)


While only 100 pages directly treat Latin America, the book as a whole, by examining problems encountered by the Peace Corps abroad, provides an excellent introduction to "culture fatigue." See especially Guthrie and Szanton on the Philippines, Friedland on Tanganyika, and Comitas, Doughty, Palmer, and Heath on Latin America.

Thompson, J.E.S. The Rise and Fall of Maya Civilization. U. of Oklahoma P., 1954; $5.95.

A distinguished scholar of the Maya tells of the accomplishments of America's most elaborate pre-Columbian civilization. Sophisticated systems of writing, calendrics, astronomy and architecture are described. The mysterious ending of the Maya civilization is discussed and possible reasons for the sudden change put forward. (Wicke)


An anthology that contains many interesting selections that have previously appeared in books and periodicals of recent date. The first part examines the "problems, power groups, processes and forces affecting Latin American politics"; the second describes and analyzes the politics of separate countries. While the book suffers from the usual weaknesses of anthologies (substantial variation in the quality of the selections and lack of much continuity), it has a broad coverage and should acquaint the student with many of the similarities and differences that exist between the political practices of the nations of the region. Few of the articles are written at a level that could not be easily grasped by introductory level students. (Groves)


Social-economic oriented, considers education as an essential force in the growth of the nation-state. Major problems in educational planning brought into focus are: land tenure, rural educational policies, training for agricultural development, regional cooperation at the university level, and the role of cost analysis in educational planning. (Gutiérrez)


A Mexican economist provides comprehensive coverage of economic problems. Aside from analyzing selected general structural problems, monetary problems, institution and political requirements, the "so-called" social aspects of economic growth are included in the analysis of the domestic economy. As one would expect, there is substantial emphasis on international problems. Included in this category are international trade trends, stabilization of export prices, foreign capital and its "contribution" (including the transfer of technology), economic integration, and the Alliance for Progress. If one holds that one must be part of a society to really understand its problems, Urquidi is "must" reading. He knows the problems, describes them vividly, and offers positive policy
recommendations. For an emphasis on labor, see Form, W.H., and A.A. Blum (eds.). Industrial Relations and Social Change in Latin America (U. of Florida P., 1965; 177 pp. Bibliography, index.) and Poblete Troncoso, Moisés, and B.G. Burnett. The Rise of the Latin American Labor Movement (College & Univ. P., 1960; 179 pp., $1.75. Bibliography, index.). (Scaperlanda)


The classic ethnological reconstruction of the life way of the pre-conquest Aztecs of Central Mexico. (Bartell)


This volume aims at giving us the unusual opportunity to see ourselves as we appear to the outsider. The first paper manifests the conflicting views of North Americans and Latin Americans relative to foreign investment.

Following a brief account of regional development and foreign investment are three additional papers. García Vázques writes on the Argentine view, the Brazilian view is advanced by Jaguaribe, and the editor, Vernon, gives his interpretation of the Mexican view.

Not particularly recommended for bedtime reading. The writers' objective reality tends to disquiet a North American into a mental state of provocation or at least to the point of wanting to defend himself with what he views as appropriate rebuttal. (Martellaro)


These collections of essays present what is essentially the United Nations' Economic Commission for Latin America line: the need for structural changes, the need to shift from development directed toward the outside to development internally. Especially good are the following articles: Nun, "The Middle Class Military Coup," which argues the reactionary nature of the Latin American middle class; Thomas, "Middle Class Politics and the Cuban Revolution," which attacks the thesis that the Cuban Revolution was middle class in nature or composition;

Furtado, "Political Obstacles to the Economic Development of Brazil"; and Navarro, "Mexico – the Lopsided Revolution." (Roman)


This invaluable reference is divided into 5 parts: a political history and economic survey of each country; political affairs within the continent and foreign relations; economic affairs; the people and social institutions; and contemporary arts. Selections by 82 specialists are up-to-date, readable, biting.

Wagley 1964 (see Diéguez)

Wagley, C. An Introduction to Brazil. Columbia U.P., 1963; 322 pp., $2.25. Bibliography, index.

This book is just what the title says, and certainly one of the best available in any language for the non-specialist. Since more people in South America speak Portuguese today than Spanish; and since Brazil is the only other nation in the Western Hemisphere with the potential to become a world rather than a continental power (Argentina, Mexico, and Canada), intelligent U.S. readers owe it to themselves to become more familiar with the Colossus of the South. Explains how climate, topography, industrialization, economic development, ethnic origins, historical accidents, and ecological factors have shaped the Brazilian nature and character over four centuries of growth; examines elements which have united and divided its inhabitants. Concludes with a fascinating essay entitled "If I Were A Brazilian." See also: Burns, E.B. (ed.). A Documentary History of Brazil (Knopf, 1966; 398 pp. $2.95); and Horowitz, I.L. Revolution in Brazil: Politics and Society in a Developing Nation (Dutton, 1964; 430 pp. $7.50. Bibliography, index), and Wagley. Amazon Town: A Study of Men in The Tropics (Knopf, 1953 [Epilogue written 1962]; 315 pp., $2.50. Brief bibliography, index). (Ely)


An excellent introduction filled with valuable information and stimulating thoughts: " Everywhere in the countries of
Latin America [the Spanish conquest and the introduction of Negro slavery] created a peasantry that is analogous to the European and even the Asian peasantry only in a formal sense" (p. 120); "In most countries [a new sector of industrialists and businessmen] are today more important in the national power structure than the traditional landholding and rural based elite" (p. 194). Secondary students will find some difficulty with the social - scientific vocabulary ("endogamous," "consanguineous") and the liberal inclusion of Spanish and Portuguese words.


After an introduction to the area, drawing freely from many ethnic examples, discusses the Brazilian and Mexican Indians, treating each separately. Second section discusses Negros of Martinique and the U.S. Both of these sections are introduced by 5-10 page surveys placing the Indian or Negro in a hemispheric frame of reference. The rest of the book (from p. 161) treats the European immigrants (French Canadians and Jews in the U.S.), and offers a conclusion ("An Anthropological View of Minority Groups") which is verbose and jargonistic. The first half of the book can be recommended to teacher and student alike.

West and Augelli (see Augelli)


It is "normal" to stereotype foreign cultures, but in the case of Argentina the non-specialist usually applies stereotypes which correspond to different realities. The Argentines themselves, with their favorite national symbol of the Gaucho - however meaningful it may be - do not help us or anybody else to identify them (there probably are more Jews than descendants from properly called Gauchos in Argentina nowadays). This country constitutes one of the two most important cultural focal areas (the other being Mexico) in Spanish speaking America. This is a good introduction to the history and character of Argentina, especially readable on account of its clear style. Also recommended: Argentina, A City and A Nation by R. Scobie (Oxford U.P., 1964). (Vázquez-Bigi)


Examines the different kinds of nationalism which have emerged since 1930, varieties which prevail not only from country to country but also those which compete within national boundaries. Attention is also focused upon the sources and uses of nationalism.

The case studies (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela) have been selectively chosen because these nations, in the light of their cultural and economic development, collectively project the full spectrum of Latin nationalism. Besides the political aspects, the authors give due attention to ethnic and social factors which have played a role in the struggle to achieve national identity. (Martellaro)


Like Gibson's companion piece on the colonial period, this is indispensable for secondary school teachers. Mentions texts available in English, weighing advantages of traditional approach (encyclopedic, national history) and more analytical or interpretative works arranged on a topical and/or regional basis. Calls attention to present concern with the interrelationships of economic, social and cultural history, counterbalancing earlier emphasis on purely political, diplomatic, and military history. Discusses developments in such fields as the Mexican Revolution of 1910, class and caste, church and state, democracy and dictatorship, and international relations. Lists a number of standard bibliographical guides. (Ely)


Articles by 21 authors on monetary, business, trade, cultural, and diplomatic relations.


Survey of the history of movement toward economic cooperation; both complete and
accurate. Concludes with an evaluation of prospects for LAFTA.

Regarding the negative attitude toward regional monetary cooperation which has been maintained by the International Monetary Fund, it is useful to note that the U. S. alone possesses approximately 30% of the vote in IMF decisions. In such circumstances it is not difficult to imply that the U. S. policy is a negative one. (Scaperlanda)


A history of Middle America, Mexico and Guatemala, written by an anthropologist who is almost unique in his ability to express himself in flowing narrative and poetic speech. Not any the less concise or accurate, it gives reading pleasure and a deep insight into the people of these countries. (Bartell)


The best sympathetic account of the causes and process of the Cuban Revolution. See also: Zeitlin, M. Revolutionary Politics and the Cuban Working Class (Princeton U. P., 1967; 306 pp., $8.50), which is a sociological study comparing the attitudes of workers in Cuba before and after the Revolution from a Marxist point of view. See also: Boorstein, E. The Economic Transformation of Cuba (Monthly Review, 1968; 303 pp., $7.95). For an unsympathetic attack of Castro, see Draper, T. Castro's Revolution (Praeger, 1962; 211 pp., $1.75). (Roman)

NAMES AND ADDRESSES OF PUBLISHERS LISTED IN BIBLIOGRAPHY

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Brookings Inst. The Brookings Institution, 1775 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036


CICOP. Catholic Inter-American Cooperation Program, Latin American Bureau, USCC Tower Building, Mezzanine, 14th and K Streets, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20005

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Columbia U.P. Columbia University Press, 440 West 110th Street, New York, New York 10025

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Dr. ROLAND T. ELY is a specialist in the national period of Latin American history at Northern Illinois University. Dr. Ely has traveled widely in all of the Latin American countries, lectured at more than 30 universities in Latin America, and has appeared on public-service television programs in 10 national capitals of the area. His published works include numerous books and articles. For contributions to the cause of inter-American understanding, he has been decorated by the governments of Argentina, Brazil, and Ecuador.

Dr. OYARA P. ESTEVES is a Brazilian educator who has taught on all levels from primary to graduate school in Brazil and the United States. She has published a book on tests and measurements. Dr. Esteves is a professor in the Department of Education at Northern Illinois University.

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Dr. JOSEPH A. MARTELLARO is a specialist in the economic development of underdeveloped countries, with a concentration on Southern Italy and Argentina. Dr. Martellaro has been awarded three Fulbright grants and has lectured in two universities of Argentina. He is listed in Who's Who in the Midwest, Contemporary Authors, Dictionary of International Biography (London), and American Men of Science Since 1960. He has published numerous articles, and his forthcoming book, The Argentine Economy, is scheduled for publication, fall 1968.

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