

REPORT of Dr. Andrés Tijerina
PASADENA, TEXAS

October 14, 2015

1. I submit this report on the history of the violation of civil rights of Latinos in Texas with emphasis on the electoral process. In writing this report, I have relied on my extensive knowledge and readings of archives and bibliography. I am a member and fellow of the Texas State Historical Association, a member of the American Historical Association, and president of the Texas Institute of Letters. I regularly attend professional conferences where I present formal papers for peer review and where I exchange the latest information on historical sources, methods, and data. I draw my conclusions in the present report based on my extensive knowledge of Texas History and Mexican American History and from the readings and archival research that I have conducted for the better part of four decades. From my broad professional experience, I have been able to use accepted methods of analysis to compare the Mexican American experience in Texas with other groups in history. My conclusion is that they have a legacy of exploitation and abuse by Anglo-Americans who have used government, financial, and technological advantages to appropriate Mexican American lands, labor, and resources, and that Mexican Americans in Texas today bear the effects of this discrimination which hinders their ability to participate effectively in the democratic process. I testified in as an expert witness in *Texas v. Holder*, 888 F. Supp. 2d 113 (D.D.C. 2012) vacated and remanded, 133 S. Ct. 2886, 186 L. Ed. 2d 930 (2013) and *Perez v. Perry*, Civil Action No. 5:11-cv-360 (W.D.TX 2011). I am compensated at the rate of \$250.00 per hour.

2. I have utilized my research and writing skills to produce new information and interpretations to critical areas of Texas history. My Ph.D. is in U.S. history. Indeed, I was the first Mexican American to receive a Ph.D. in U.S. History from the University of Texas at Austin in 1977. My specialty is Tejano or Latino history in Texas. I have written four books on Mexican American history, two of them published by a major university press. One of my books won the three most prestigious awards in Texas History, and two national awards. I am a Professor of history at Austin Community College, and I have taught at the University of Texas at Austin, the University of Texas at San Antonio, and Texas Tech University. I have edited and published four books by other writers in order to spread knowledge of Tejano history. My most widely read work is the publication of my combat memoirs as a USAF pilot with over 100 combat missions in the *Time/Life Books* series on the Vietnam War. I have practical experience as a former military commander, a former corporate executive with Motorola, Inc., and as a former state agency executive director with the Texas state government. As the only

Mexican American state agency director at the time, the position gave me a rare glimpse into the workings of state agency administration.

3. The facts and data that I considered to form my conclusions came from the materials in my bibliography. These include documents in the categories of newspaper clippings from the Houston and Pasadena newspapers, federal and state government documents, archival documents from the libraries of the University of Texas, the University of Houston, and the State Archives of Texas. I have conducted years of research in the Spanish and Mexican archives, as well as in newspaper collections, personal collections, and government depositories of those libraries and archives as well as the Briscoe Center for American History and the Benson Latin American Collection, which also houses one of the most extensive Mexican-American collections in the United States. I have also conducted extensive research in numerous county land records across Texas, as well as at the University of California at San Diego, the U.S. National Archives, the Library of Congress, the State Archives of Coahuila, and the National Archives of Mexico.

4. I have been a consultant to historical museums across Texas, writing the text, and reviewing the accuracy of their displays. I also once consulted a major federal archeological project in Texas. I am a regular speaker and curriculum consultant to civic groups, universities, and independent school districts. I have delivered keynote addresses to federal agencies in Washington, D.C. and in every major city in Texas, the largest of which was at Texas A&M University to over 3,000 in a special events center and a worldwide satellite TV audience.

5. My expertise as a U.S. historian is in the social, cultural, economic, and political interaction of various groups in Texas history. My specialty historical period is the nineteenth century and early 20th century. I have used traditional historical archival documents like period newspapers, court records, city council minutes, state legislative committee proceedings, government documents, 18th century Spanish documents, 19th century Mexican archives, and personal collections. I have been named as Series Editor for the Spencer Series of Texas A&M University Press for their history books on Texas and the Southwest. Under my direction, the Spencer Series has won several book prizes for books for introducing new historical methods to access the unwritten historical transcripts of non-literate societies by referring to inter-disciplinary methods in archeology and anthropology. I recently received the national Equity Award from the American Historical Association for my role in promoting diverse perspectives and minority historians in the field of American history.

6. The summary of my findings of discrimination against Latinos in Texas is that discrimination has been a pervasive and constant phenomenon since 1836, when Anglo-Americans took control of Texas government. Anglo-American government control was expanded by the defeat of Mexico in the U.S.-Mexico War of 1846-1848, which ended in the taking of present-day South Texas as well. The traumatic manner in which those Mexicans became U.S. citizens through defeat placed them at a great disadvantage in knowledge and access to the laws, economic power, and government. Another theme in my conclusion is that racist and discriminatory treatment has been a major characteristic and a consistent thread in the relationship between Latinos and Anglo-Americans especially in Texas. Another theme is that Anglo-Americans have consistently used Texas government agencies, police agencies, and laws to appropriate lands, labor, and cultural heritage from Latinos. This phenomenon of domination has manifested itself since 1836 after which the bulk of the Mexican American lands throughout Texas were taken along with government control. It was reinforced in South Texas when Anglo-Americans established large commercial farming estates which have used violence and labor controls to appropriate Mexican American labor until the mid-20th century. During the period between 1900 and 1920 the state government established Anglo-controlled legislative districts and a statewide subtractive school system as major obstacles to Latino education and equal access to the democratic process. The subtractive schooling of Texas has made Latinos vulnerable in turn to another complete sphere of domination through political devices that are designed to disfranchise citizens with limited education, English-language skills, and literacy. The state government has consistently and aggressively exploited these weaknesses to deprive Latinos of their voter and citizenship rights. Although Latinos have challenged the political, economic, and educational subordination, they have done so at tremendous disadvantage, which is manifested in the persistent racism and their current subordinate status.

7. My findings in this case are that Latinos in the city of Pasadena, Texas have experienced many of the same violations of civil rights cited in the above paragraph. The political leadership of Pasadena, the educational leaders, and employers have employed many of the same discriminatory devices such as racial segregation, police intimidation, voter dilution, slating, restrictive covenants, and job discrimination to restrict the equal access of Latinos to fair treatment before the law, economic opportunity, and open democratic processes. Documents cited in this report provide direct quotes in which employers and city officials openly admit that they systematically practiced dual-wage employment, discriminatory hiring, and ostracism of Latino fellow citizens and workers. The lucrative economic incentives have attracted a major Latino population to the work sites in Pasadena, and they have asserted their demands for fair treatment and equal access to the electoral process, but Latinos continue to lag behind politically and economically in the face of persistent racial prejudice and a structure of discrimination.

Historical Background

The Spanish and Mexican pioneer ancestors of modern Mexican Americans were the founders of Texas under a European type of government. These original Latino settlers are called Tejanos, which is simply the Spanish word for Texan. Tejanos had come initially under the flag of Spain, as Mexicans after Mexican independence, and they continued to settle in Texas under the Republic of Texas. They claimed lands under the various land grant programs of the successive governments of Texas, and they were citizens of the successive republics. They established large ranches, and several towns such as San Antonio, Victoria, Laredo, Nacogdoches, and Corpus Christi. Over 2,000 Tejanos claimed headrights or land grants in Texas along with Sam Houston and Mirabeau B. Lamar as a reward for defending Texas from the Mexican government of President Santa Anna. Even though thousands fought for Texas, incoming Anglo-Americans made no distinction between the Tejanos who were citizens of the Republic of Texas, and the Mexicans who fought against Texas. As an example, Juan N. Seguin of San Antonio, had fought for Texas Independence. He is the only Texan who fought against Mexican General Santa Anna at both the Alamo and at the Battle of San Jacinto. Immediately after the Texan victory at San Jacinto, Seguin was the victim of several threats on his life in San Antonio by Anglo Americans because they made no distinction except their concept of the Mexican “race.” **TAB 1** (Williams and Barker 1943, IV, pp. 63, 64; Friend 1969, pp. 66, 73) Tejanos had established the legitimate government of Texas under Spain and Mexico, but they quickly found themselves isolated by the Anglo-American wave of settlers who greatly outnumbered them. As Anglo-Americans entered Texas, they took a dominant position, isolating the Tejanos from any viable role in government and the economy.

An anti-Mexican sentiment spread after the Texas Revolution as other prominent Tejano leaders like Juan N. Seguin, Carlos de la Garza, and Vicente Cordova were eventually forced to defend themselves against raids and attacks by Anglo Texans. Tejano families began an evacuation of Texas. Hundreds of Tejano families fled to Tamaulipas and Nuevo Leon, Mexico while others fled into Louisiana. During these years, the Texas government played a direct role in dispossessing Tejanos from their lands. In many cases, the Texas Army had actually ordered loyal Tejanos off their lands, ostensibly to preclude collusion with the enemy. In 1842, Col. Clark L. Owen declared martial law in the Goliad-Victoria area, and ordered “all Mexicans” to move south of the Nueces. Prominent and loyal Tejano families lost their ranches and lands as they left many of their settlements in what was called a “virtual state of abandonment.” **TAB 2** (O’Connor 1966, pp. 10, 126, 253; Huson 1953, I, 471; Hammett, 1971), pp. 83-84)

As the 1840s progressed, Anglo and European immigrants flooded in and took many of the ranches, the livestock, and indeed the livelihood of many of the old Tejanos around Bexar, Goliad, and Nacogdoches. By 1845, for example, 40 of the 45 Goliad Tejano ranches had passed into Anglo hands for a pittance of their value. Many of these

emigree Tejanos returned years later to reclaim their lands after the revolution—some successfully, and some not. (Goliad County, Deed Records) After the U.S.-Mexico War, the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848 incorporated the land south of the Nueces into Texas, and guaranteed full citizenship to the Tejanos as Mexican Americans. Historians like David Montejano and Walter Prescott Webb have suggested that South Texas counties like Nueces, Kleberg, Cameron, and Hidalgo experienced an economically driven pattern of Tejano land dispossession, which characterized the transfer of lands as one-way and irreversible. These basic books of Texas history state that Tejanos lost their lands through “fictitious suits,” sheriff’s auctions, and dubious transfers of title. Anglo newcomers like Stephen Powers, Charles Stillman, Richard King, and Mifflin Kenedy remained after the U.S.-Mexico War, and, to use Webb’s expression, “bamboozled” or deceived the Mexicans in South Texas. Webb added that “The old landholding Mexican families found their titles in jeopardy and if they did not lose in the courts they lost to their American lawyers.” **TAB 3** (Montejano 1987, 74; Webb 1991, pp. 175-76)

Many historians have indicated the major role played by the racism of the incoming Anglo Texans during and after the Texas Revolution. Anglo-Texans often cited a distorted version of Texas history to rationalize their economic claims against Tejanos. For example, during the Texas Revolution, Edward Dwyer, an Irish merchant in San Antonio encouraged Texas Army Gen. Thomas Jefferson Green to expedite the army into Bexar. “. . . the people [of San Antonio de Bexar] . . . are not sufficiently scared to make an advantigius [sic] sale of their Lands. In case two or three hundred of our troops should be stationed there, I have no doubt but a man could make some good speculations with Gold and Silver. Bank notes will not do to purchase Land from Mexicans,” he added. And in Victoria , John Linn described a similar situation during that same period in which “Fernando de Leon was subsequently persecuted by the presentation of unjust claims against him, and, owing to the prejudice then existing against the Mexicans, many illegal and unfair judgements were rendered against him.” De Leon, the largest landowner in Victoria County, lost about half of his lands to those judgements. And during the U.S.-Mexico War, a U.S. Army officer, General William North boasted “our Anglo-Saxon race [have] been land stealers from time immemorial, and why shouldn’t they [be]?” **TAB 4** (Crisp 1976, 343; Foley 1997, 21; Crimm 2003, 170) Thus racism was an openly avowed motive and a justification for land theft.

In the mid- to late-1840s, however, incoming Anglo squatters openly began to use brutal atrocities against many Tejano families. One specific case in 1843, was recorded in Karnes County, where according to the *The Kennedy Times*, the Carlos Martinez ranches were raided by “companies of white people, who came to the rancho from the Guadalupe and Colorado rivers, and killed the people at the rancho and stole their stock.” The newspaper added that no arrests were made as the murderers moved into the ranches. Another murder on the nearby Becerra land grant also drove the Tejano families off their lands. The Tejano families fled to Goliad after their livestock were killed and their barns

burned by mounted Anglo marauders. Tejanos lost many relatives in the killings, and they lost their legitimate claims to the lands. **TAB 5** (Crimm 2003, 141; Kenedy, Texas 1963, Sect. 1; Rubio 1986, 136)

The counties west of Karnes saw Anglo city and county officials begin a coordinated campaign to drive Mexican American citizen and Mexican immigrant settlers out of the counties from Austin to San Antonio. The campaign took the form of vigilante raids incited by newspaper rhetoric and conducted by the town's most "excellent citizens." In 1850, the Austin City Council established "city watch" authorizing a Vigilante Committee "to inflict punishments without resorting to trials. . ." on Negro slaves for violating the curfew or for associating with Mexican immigrants and Mexican American citizen residents. Blaming the Mexican Americans for inciting runaway slaves by associating on an equal basis with them, local newspapers developed a rationale for not only persecuting the recalcitrant slaves, but also for punishing the Mexican American citizens in Austin. The *State Gazette* referred to "the local Mexican residents who were permanent citizens" of Austin as "half-negro, half Indian greasers" and called for "exertion in clearing our country of rascally peons." The newspaper rationalized that this "clearing" of the city was justified because Mexicans were peons "incapable of acquiring the rights of citizenship." The City Council and the newspapers agreed that the Vigilante Committee should be comprised of Anglo-Saxon "excellent citizens" in order to legitimize the "clearing" campaign as had been done in Seguin County and eight other neighboring counties. As a result, the Austin committee included elected officials, Democratic Party officials, veterans of the Texas Revolution, and members of the nativist Knownothing Party. The Austin Vigilante Committee was led by the well-known Texas Ranger and Mayor of Austin, John S. "Rip" Ford, a Chief Justice, a city alderman, the city marshal, and the county sheriff. After a few years of persecution, Austin had burned out all settlements of Mexican immigrants and local Mexican American citizens. By the 1860 census, only 20 Spanish-surnamed residents were left in Travis County, and *State Gazette* rationalized the raids because Mexicans were "a bad element of society . . . [that] sooner or later would be extinguished." The newspaper boasted that Mexicans had also been driven out by vigilante raids in Uvalde, Bexar, Austin, Colorado, Matagorda, and Guadalupe Counties. **TAB 6** (Lack 1981, pp. 2 – 19)

According to historian David Montejano, native Tejanos eventually established a "Peace Structure" with incoming Anglo-Texans in order to escape the violence. In the "Peace Structure," Anglos were allowed to dominate the government and economy, while Tejanos collaborated with them in exchange for protection from land theft and violence. In many cases, these incoming Anglo-American and European immigrants nevertheless used the anti-Mexican sentiment to acquire Tejano lands. Following the 1850s, in Hidalgo County, Judge Thaddeus Rhodes, Sheriff John Closner, and land lawyer Jim Wells began to press sheriff's auctions on Tejano land grants. The judge targeted the fertile lands of Spanish Porcion 69 land grant, owned by descendants of Juan Jose

Hinojosa along the Rio Grande. In May of 1878, the sheriff sold over 7,000 acres of the grant for \$17.75 to Anglo-Texans. Also in 1878, Judge Rhodes personally bought 30 acres of Porcion 69, and then held a sheriff's auction on an additional 668 acres of the land grant. **TAB 7** (Mexico 1875, pp. 30 - 32; Hidalgo County, A:149; Crimm 2003, 175; Rubel 1966, 36)

The period after Reconstruction and around the turn of the century also saw an attack on the Tejano landownership and socio-economic status, as Anglo-American commercial farmers from Midwestern states swept into South Texas. The incoming Anglo-American squatters launched large-scale vigilante raids against legitimate and prominent Tejano land grantees during the Reconstruction period after the Civil War. One raid in 1874 swept from Victoria down to Refugio and another in the next year, the Peñascal Raid, swept from Corpus Christi down to present-day Raymondville. The Victoria-Refugio region had also been the scene of racial and economic conflict between Anglo ranchers and Tejano landholders for years. The conflict culminated in a vigilante raid in 1874 after a heinous crime against an Anglo rancher and his wife. According to land lawyer and historian Hobart Huson, "Several hundred ranchmen and cowboys from Refugio and Goliad Counties met on Rosilla Prairie with the view of exterminating all Mexicans in the section, commencing at Goliad." To begin with, they shot prominent Tejanos Marcelo and Antonio Moya, and slit the throat of their father, the Moya family patriarch. In the dispossession, Huson reported a mass exodus of the surviving Tejano widows and children to Mexico after the incident, saying "The roads were lined with ox-carts and wagons headed west." Goliad County Sheriff Phil Fulcrod, judges, and other militia and government officials were directly involved in the above mentioned raids. The perpetrator of the initial murder was later identified and hanged, but the vigilantes admitted that they still "were desperate for revenge." When they later heard another rumor that Mexicans had committed a murder a few miles south on the Nueces River, they rode overnight the sixty miles to Corpus Christi to enroll in that posse. (Dobie 1929, pp. 73 – 80, 125; Huson 1953, I p. 471, II p. 214; U.S. Congress 1876, p. xviii)

In Corpus Christi a vigilante committee of about one hundred Anglos set out ostensibly to drive off the "Mexicans" on large land grants south of Corpus Christi. For several months prior to the raids, famous rancher Richard King had stirred passions against several large neighboring Tejano ranches around the Peñascal Ranch, located about sixty miles south of Corpus Christi. These ranches were home to about five hundred Tejano men, women, and children described by Texas Ranger N.A. Jennings, as "peaceful Mexican farmers and stockmen who had lived all their lives in Texas." King instructed the vigilante posse to elect leaders—about twenty men—who should go first to Brownsville to be deputized. With their instructions, and acting under color of law, the vigilantes then masked and painted themselves, and systematically killed all of the Tejano patriarchs and "every adult male that was present." As the raiders burned one ranch after another, the women and children fled into the chaparral and hid throughout

the night. Many of the men's bodies were never found, and were presumed to have been "dumped in the bay." When Texas Ranger Captain L. H. McNelly arrived to investigate the raids, he wrote back to Austin, "The acts committed by Americans are horrible to relate; many ranches have been plundered and burned, and the people murdered or driven away; one of these parties confessed to me in Corpus Christi as having killed eleven men on their last raid."

Many of the Tejano lands involved in the Peñascal Raid were incorporated into the King and Kenedy ranch empires, as the women and children and other Tejano rancheros fled across the border to Mexico. According to one account: "They departed taking their money and personal possessions with them, and often they were found dead along the way with their money missing." **TAB 8** (Taylor 1934, 57; Cheeseman 1998, 88; Mexico 1875, pp. 105, 106, 176; Hidalgo County, A, 149; Dunn 1932, pp. 9, 63; Villareal 1972, pp. 16-19) In the Refugio raid and in the Corpus Christi raid, the Anglo vigilantes included law officers, and were acting under color of law. The marauders were deputized before conducting the Peñascal raid, and some even claimed to be Texas Rangers. In neither case, however, were there any arrests of the perpetrators. (Cheeseman 1998, 88) In his book, *The Texas Rangers*, Walter Prescott Webb stated that the "reign of terror" reached its peak at the turn of the century, when between 500 and 5,000 Tejanos died, "many of them innocent, at the hands of the local posses, peace officers, and Texas Rangers." **TAB 9** (Webb 1991, 176n.)

After the Revolution and even after the U.S.-Mexico War, the state government continued to undermine Tejano land title claims. The legislature passed Texas Land Relinquishment Law of 1852, for example, requiring that all unarchived lands granted before 1835 be surveyed and filed with the Texas General Land Office by 1853 or be declared null and void. Later, the Texas Constitutions of 1869 and 1876 included the same requirements, placing the burden of proof on the Tejano title holders. The state legislature imposed restrictions on Tejano rights to testify. When Tejano appellants came to Austin to plead their land cases, they were told that a committee rule required that in order for Tejanos or other non-whites to testify, "their character for truth and veracity had to be established by the testimony of two white men." (Rubio 1986, 114; Texas, *State Gazette*, Vol. II, No. 6.)

One of the most questionable government actions in the administering of Tejano lands was known as the Bourland-Miller Commission of 1850. As Anglo-American capitalists and land speculators stimulated a growing demand for Tejano lands, the state legislature sent two commissioners across the Tejano ranching frontier to verify and record the titles to as many Tejano lands as possible. The state's interest was clearly to facilitate land transfers from the old Tejano land-holding families into Anglo hands. After the commissioners collected the titles, and loaded them for sea transport from Brownsville to Austin through the Gulf of Mexico, the Steamship *Anson* caught fire and sank off the coast of Matagorda, destroying all the Tejano land titles. (Greaser and de la

Teja 1992, pp. 455, 457n.) The most questionable role of the state government was not so much in the coincidental fire, but in actively promoting the sale of the lands of a targeted class of citizens through legislation and a special commission.

In summary, the actual cases recorded in county and state land records verify the historical interpretations that the violence waged against Tejanos during Reconstruction was primarily used by Anglos in an effort to usurp their landholdings. It cannot be characterized—and it cannot be trivialized—as one short period of unfortunate but legal transfer of title from unwitting victims. It involved mass murder of whole families, of whole ranch settlements, and of titled patriarchs of landholding families who were citizens of Texas. In its various forms, the violence was perpetrated by the Army of the Republic of Texas, it was condoned by the Confederate State of Texas, it was actively promoted by the State of Texas, and it was knowingly permitted, contrived, and facilitated by the local governments. And when the sheriffs' auctions, and the vigilante raids, and the legal trials covered up the atrocities, the theft of Hispanic lands was legitimized and shielded under the sanctity of the courts and the Texas General Land Office. **TAB 10** (Tijerina, 2012, p. 322)

The end of the 19th century would find the Tejanos inundated not only by continuing Anglo-American immigration from the United States, but by a wave of emigrant Mexicans fleeing the violence of the Mexican Revolution. Incoming Anglo-Americans continued to acquire Tejano lands in South Texas, which they called “The Rio Grande Valley.” As immigrants themselves, the Anglo Americans ironically made little distinction between the native Tejano citizens of Texas and the flood of immigrant Mexican nationals. By taking control of the county government, Midwestern Anglo-American commercial farmers re-structured the county taxes, budgets, road and bridge construction, and education to suit the farmer at the expense of ranchers and the Mexican-American population. Landless Tejanos and Mexican immigrants were all categorized by Anglo-Americans as “Mexicans” and seen as cheap labor with no distinction as to social status, education, or citizenship. Just as they re-structured the county government to suit themselves, Anglo Americans re-structured Texas history and culture to rationalize their disfranchisement of the Mexican American as a laboring class with limited educational or political freedom. In the period of 1900 to 1920, the Anglo-American commercial farmers began to claim economic and political power from Anglo ranchers and Mexican Americans alike. Political power presupposed an attack and a control of Mexican American citizenship and voting rights.

20th Century

Throughout the 20th century, the racialization of politics and the economy had continued to the point that Texas had what amounted to a caste stratification with Anglo-Americans in dominant positions and Mexican Americans generally in subordinate positions. One 1965 study of Texas racial relations stated that “Anglos have always been

on top . . . and the Mexican Americans isolated on the bottom.” (**APPENDIX 1: U.S. Commission on Civil Rights: Mexican American Education**, 11) The distorted historical transcript had been developed by 1900 that depicted the Anglo-American as the liberator of Texas from a heathen Mexican population. The historical narrative was articulated by policy leaders and the public in order to rationalize the political and economic subordination of Mexican Americans. As an example, in a 1911 state vote on prohibition, state leader Thomas Ball in Brownsville said he opposed “. . . the Mexican vote, which Texas in 1836 declared unfit to govern this country.” **TAB 11** (Anders 1982,, 101) Even a poor Anglo cotton picker used history to elevate himself above Mexican Americans, saying “The study of the Alamo helps to make more hatred toward the Mexicans. . . if a man . . . slaughters your kinsman. . . , I am in favor of not letting Mexicans come over and take a white man’s labor.” (Montejano 1987, 224)

Progressive Era

During the 1900 and the 1920s Progressive Era, Anglo-Americans began to refine their political control over the Mexican Americans. In Texas, “Progressive” meant anti-Mexican. The term represented a new development in political philosophy. By using a salutary term that implied positive progress, the Progressive politicians appropriated the mantle of reform. Texas Progressives adopted a rhetoric of reform, naming their organizations with innocuous or benevolent names such as the Good Government League or the Ballot Purification League. But their effect was to disfranchise and dilute minority voting power by political device and by intimidation and violence. By the turn of the century, Mexican Americans sought refuge under the protection of political bosses. The political bosses protected them from Texas Ranger violence and Anglo-American raids, and then controlled their voting for complicit state and federal politicians, who gave tacit consent. The Progressives were middle-class Anglos. As one authority said, “Most came from the ranks of the Anglo, Protestant majority and looked with contempt upon the social standing, life-styles, religion, and moral values of the Hispanic population. . . .” In order to strip the political bosses of their power, then, middle-class Anglo-American professionals blamed the Mexican American victims of the system, and made a concerted effort to disfranchise the Mexican Americans. One of the most powerful political bosses was Archie Parr. In 1908, Parr took a seat on Duval Co. Commissioner’s Court after political assassinations eliminated his opposition. Once in power, he used the County Treasury as “slush fund” and gave his constituents short-term work on road and bridge projects. Then, he simply deducted their poll tax fees from their wages, and directed their voting. Parr and other bosses like Jim Wells used a device called “Corraling voters” to deliver their minions by the “wagonloads.” One political boss could amass enough votes to elect state and federal officials. The political machines under Parr, Jim Wells, and Robert Kleberg worked in close cooperation with state and federal officials who benefitted from their control of the South Texas votes such as Col. Edward M. House,

Lyndon B. Johnson, and John Nance Garner. As presidential advisor to Woodrow Wilson, Col. House gave Jim Wells “a near monopoly over the distribution of state patronage” in the Valley, according to one historian. (Anders 1982, pp. 13, 103, 176) These slating and corralling devices were used by political bosses in many other cities of Texas as well. As an example, San Antonio had the Callaghan political machine which reportedly paid the poll tax for Mexican Americans, and instructed them on voting. More blatantly, the Good Government League of post-World War II San Antonio regularly slated the city council candidates. Although it slated a middle-class Mexican American as a token, it limited the Mexican American representation to that one token position, which was far below their percentage of the electorate. **TAB 12** (Garcia 1981, 157; Rosales, 2000, 5 & 13.)

Gerrymandering developed as an alternate method used by Texas policy makers at the highest levels to dilute and manipulate Mexican American voter groups. This method was later used to segregate Mexican-American laborers and public school students as well. In order to secure their Mexican American voting blocks, political bosses used gerrymandering of electoral districts and created whole counties. Indeed, 13 of South Texas counties were created by these bosses for that purpose. Some counties were created by Progressive politicians to counter the political bosses. As an example, Ed C. Lasater took Brooks County from “Mexican” Starr County in order to secure Brooks for his “thrifty and industrious farmers from Iowa, Kansas, Texas, Nebraska, Indiana, . . .” Likewise, D.W. Glasscock broke Jim Hogg County from Zapata County in order “to get out from under the domination of the Mexican vote.” Meanwhile, Parr and other bosses made other efforts to carve Duval, Nueces, Jim Wells, Kleberg counties to concentrate their Mexican American voting blocs. Within a few years, the South Texas counties had increased from 7 to 13. As an example, at the turn of the century, U.S. Congressman John N. Garner was a member of the House Committee on Congressional Districts and “the subcommittee that drafted the initial version of the reappointment bill. . . the House measure confirmed exactly to Garner's and Wells' specifications . . . created a district that included Uvalde and the Trans-Nueces but excluded San Antonio.” (Anders, Boss, 110; Montejano 1987, 131) By the end of the century, gerrymandering of Mexican Americans had proven to be an effective and accepted practice by Anglo American policy makers at all levels of Texas government.

Throughout the Progressive Era, Anglo ideologues and politicians explicitly articulated their rationale of disfranchising what University of Texas professor called the “dangerous” Mexican vote. And during the 1914 gubernatorial race, the *San Antonio Daily Express* quoted prohibitionist candidate Thomas Ball as supporting reforms to disfranchise Mexican Americans. He publicly predicted that “liquor and Mexicans” would both “rest together forever in death.” And in the 1918 general election for Texas

Senator, candidate D.W. Glasscock stated that his campaign was “to get the Anglo Saxon on top.” **TAB 13** (*San Antonio Express*, 1914, p. 4B; Montejano 1987, pp.131, 145-7)

One of the main devices created specifically to disfranchise Mexican Americans in Texas was the poll tax. The 1903 Terrell Election Law required payment of the poll tax between October and February on the assumption that Mexican Americans were too poor or forgetful to comply. The state reformer, Terrell, himself said the law was intended to close “the flood gates for illegal voting as one person could buy up the Mexican and Negro votes.” His proponents said Mexican Americans could not afford the poll tax, would lose receipts, or not pay so far in advance. Using community organizations called the “Good Government League,” the Progressive reformers articulated their intent. In 1913, for example, State Rep. Joseph O. Boehmer of Eagle Pass established the Ballot Purification League, and submitted a bill admitting his intent was “to disqualify the Mexicans of the Western and Lower Rio Grande Counties.” Historian Evan Anders has argued that “The practical effect of most of these proposals would be to curtail the voting of impoverished, illiterate blacks and Mexican Americans.” **TAB 14** (Dallas Morning News, 1913, p. 10; Anders 1982, 102; Montejano, 1987, 143)

The Progressives also used restrictive laws, such as the 1918 state law to eliminate interpreters at the polls. They used the “White Man’s Primary” to exclude Mexican American voting in the Democratic Primary elections, which in a one-party state, pre-empted the general election. In establishing the White Man’s Primary Association (WMPA) in 1904, the State Democratic Executive Committee required an oath, declaring “I am a white person and a Democrat.” The Dimmit Co. WMPA was so effective that *Carrizo Springs Javelin* in June 12, 1914 said it “absolutely eliminates the Mexican vote as a factor in nominating county candidates, though we graciously grant the Mexican the privilege of voting for them afterwards.” The newspaper added that it was for labor and “race control” to protect the “purity of Anglo women.” (Montejano, 1987, pp. 143-4)

In many cases, violence was used by Anglo-American mobs and state and local officials against Mexican American voters. The Texas Rangers had traditionally intimidated Mexican Americans, and were used specifically to discourage their voting after 1900. As an example, Progressive Gov. Wm. Hobby in 1918 created the “Loyalty Ranger Force” of 1,000 special rangers, and 3 rangers in each county to supplement Texas Rangers. The Rangers gave “armed support” to Democrat machines in “partisan” conflicts. In the senatorial race that year, Texas Ranger William Hanson (former U.S. Marshall, and organizer of Loyalty Rangers) and several rangers discouraged Mexican American voters in Corpus Christi, “prior to the primary both there [Kingsville] and at Corpus Christi, giving out that word and calling at the homes of these Mexicans and telling them if they couldn’t read and write they would be sent to the penitentiary if they voted.” Hanson then sent several rangers to Duval County for “management of the primary election.” One official reported that “only about sixty-odd Mexicans” voted in

Nueces County elections as a result. A South Texas lawyer, Marshall Hicks, testified in *Glasscock v. Parr* (1919) in the minutes of the *Texas Senate Journal* that his opponent, D.W. Glasscock had the Texas Rangers selectively “investigate” Mexican American voters, and spread “a spirit of terrorism among those Mexican people.” The sworn testimony was that Glascock had a committee of henchmen who “tried in every legitimate way they could to keep the Mexicans out of the polls, . . .” using circulars in which “the Mexican race was very bitterly denounced” as “Greasy Mexicans.” Or as Evan Anders said in his study, “the mere presence of armed Rangers at the polling stations had an intimidating effect on the Hispanic population” in Cameron, Duval, Nueces, Hidalgo, and Starr Counties. **TAB 15** (*Glasscock v Parr*, 1919, pp. 551-552; Montejano 1987, 145-7; Anders, 1982, pp. 252, 257, 263)

In 1916, during the turmoil of the Mexican Revolution immigration, Anglo political leaders in the Valley held meetings, and stirred Anglo fears of Mexican American uprisings. But, according to Anders, “the Anglos’ suffering and hardships paled beside the horrors that they inflicted upon the Hispanic population.” Anglos used vigilante action, and “a bloodbath that claimed from two hundred to three hundred Hispanic lives ensued.” In widespread lynchings, Anglo gangs burning Mexican American houses, ranches, and hanged 15 in San Benito. Local officials participated in lynchings. “The most blatant abusers of police power were the Texas Rangers.” according to a legislative committee report in 1919. The Texas Rangers “confiscated the arms of Hispanic residents” in Cameron County, violating their Bill of Rights, and leaving them defenseless. In one small town, the Rangers dragged 15 Mexican Americans from their homes, and executed them in front of their families. They reportedly killed 102 Mexican Americans in “cold-blooded murder.”

A few years later, a momentous incident occurred called the “Hidalgo County Rebellion.” In this incident, crowds of Anglo reformers demonstrated and rioted against Mexican American voters at elections to supplement the Texas Ranger brutality. In 1928, the Weslaco barrio election box was assailed by the Republican “Good Government League” which led the “Rebellion” cited in a U.S. Congressional investigation. According to the federal report, a crowd of 3,000 to 4,000 Anglos at the polling place shouted “Don’t let those Mexicans in to vote. Throw them out” while men with shotguns protected the crowd. An estimated 200 to 300 regular Mexican American voters “did not show up at all.” One former Texas Ranger, Hidalgo County Sheriff A.Y. Baker, became the Democrat boss of the county, and was reputed to have committed election fraud and large-scale graft. When State Rep. J.T. Canales protested the violence and the use of Loyalty Rangers in the 1919 legislature, he was given a death threat by Ranger Frank Hamer as he walked up to the capitol building in Austin. In the legislature, Rep. Canales pressed his demands, accusing the Rangers of covering up their atrocities. (Anders, Boss, pp. 224-6, 239, 269; Montejano 1987, 147)

Years later, scholars and organization leaders would blame these widespread events for a disaffected Mexican American electorate. Many years after the Progressive Era, Mexican Americans continued to live under the systematic discrimination established in Texas by the Progressive politicians. The segregated schools, the poll tax and voting intimidation, and the job discrimination continued as the status quo in Texas from the 1920s through the 1960s. The only major changes during the Depression Era were the federal programs of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's New Deal. Ironically, even though the New Deal provided for jobs, farm price restabilization, and old-age pensions, the New Deal programs tended to exclude the Mexican Americans. For example, the Civilian Conservation Corps often neglected Mexican American young men, the Agricultural Adjustment Act displaced the Mexican American sharecroppers by making it more profitable for land owners to leave their land fallow rather than employing sharecroppers, and the Social Security Act gave a guaranteed retirement to all Americans except agricultural labor and domestic workers, most of whom, in Texas, were Mexican Americans.

Labor Controls

Early in the 20th century, Texas state and local officials began to relate labor control over the Mexican American population to social and political control. One South Texas superintendent explicitly stated that the state officials condoned minimal education of “the lower element” [Mexican Americans] specifically to control them in the labor force. “We don’t need skilled or white-collared Mexicans. . . There isn’t a concerted effort against them but the white-collar man is not a common laborer.” Another school official said he complied with local growers to keep the Mexican American population out of school, saying “. . . it is up to the white population to keep the Mexican on his knees. . . This does not mix very well with education.” (Montejano 1987, pp. 192-3)

As Anglo-American businessmen and government officials sought to maximize their profits in using the Mexican Americans as a labor force, they developed a systematic web of formal and informal labor control devices. Recruitment of foreign nationals and domestic workers helped to build a labor surplus to drive wages downward and to displace the risk factor of production onto the labor force itself. As an example 6 major labor recruiting agencies working on the Texas-Mexico border in 1907-8 recruited 16,479 Mexicans for railroad construction alone. Other agencies recruited Mexican and Mexican American workers for the cotton industry and mining in West Texas. The railroads and agribusinesses made no distinction between citizen and foreign national. Both classes of Mexican American were subjected to the same state and local labor controls. (Foley 1997, 44; Daniel, FEPC, 128)

Other labor controls included vagrancy laws, indebtedness, and county passes. By 1927, Willacy County was implementing Vagrancy Laws enforced by the county sheriff, the Justice of the Peace, and the County Attorney. They systematically arrested

Mexican American laborers traveling in search of higher wages for not having the approved “county passes” signed by an Anglo employer or county official. The Mexican American workers were convicted, and paroled as “convict labor” to Anglo-American growers. When asked about the legality of these controls, a U.S. Dept. of Justice agent rationalized it, saying it was necessary at harvest time. To support the growers, the state government coordinated the labor control devices with them and the South Texas chambers of commerce. In 1927, the state legislators pressed the Texas State Employment Division to assist the growers. The legislature passed the Emigrant Labor Agency Laws to keep the Mexican American labor force from being recruited by out-of-state recruiters. The state controls included requirements that out-of-state recruiters pay prohibitive bonds, fees, and taxes. And in 1934, the Texas Farm Placement Service began to maintain check points on highways in order to direct Mexican American labor to farmers. In so doing, the state government helped to create local labor surpluses to drive wages down, and ostensibly to prevent migrants from “aimless wandering” in search of higher wages. (Montejano 1987, pp. 205, 210-12)

South Texas agribusinessmen began to use Taylorism and professional management in their control of labor. In South Texas, Taylorism meant control of the Mexican American labor force. By 1930, Corpus Christi led the nation in cotton production and profits mainly through the complete control of the large Mexican American labor force. These commercial farmers established a system of controls that included racial stratification of labor, company towns and armed guards. In 1929, for example the Chapman Ranch had 18,000 acres in Nueces County. It gave Anglo-American farmers 160-acre plots to be worked by Mexican American workers, who comprised 97% of the labor force, but received no land plots. Chapman divided his workers by race, providing one Anglo school and one “Mexican School” for his Mexican American workers, separate churches, a hardware store, a grocery store, and a dry goods store where workers were required to pay with his company scrip as a condition of the oral employment agreement. Mexican American laborers were issued coupons which they had to use in ranch store, ostensibly for “salary advance,” but in reality to keep them in debt as a further control device.

Even larger was the Taft Ranch near Corpus Christi. Around 1900, near Corpus, the 200,000-acre Taft Ranch comprised 39% of the San Patricio County population. Like the Chapman Ranch, owner Charles Phelps Taft kept his Mexican American laborers separate from Anglos, who were also given 160-acre farms. His workers were also kept in company towns, provided housing, grocery stores, dry good stores, separate schools, and separate churches. The Taft Ranch hired only Mexican Americans with a wife and children in order to maintain more stable workers. The Mexican American workers lived on the Taft Ranch under a shadow of armed intimidation. The Ranch sponsored “rifle clubs” consisting of its Anglo-American farmers and overseers. It also admittedly had a machine gun, and issued the Anglos .30-.30s and .38 caliber pistols. The Anglo

overseers held target practice on the ranch ostensibly to preclude any possibility of an “an uprising of some sort” among Mexican American workers. Charles Phelps Taft, the owner, was Pres. William Howard Taft’s brother. He kept his Mexican American workers in debt. He periodically “rounded up” his Mexican American and black workers and voted them for President Wm. Howard Taft, and other selected candidates. (Foley 1997, pp. 81, 119, 121-7, 132-3) The Chapman Ranch and Taft Ranch developed models of labor control that were replicated in varying forms across the state. In 1916, for example, the Commission on Industrial Relations reported that Mexican American agricultural workers were chained and guarded by armed men with shotguns. One grower told the commission that Mexican Americans were better labor because “you can treat them in any manner and not be bothered with lawsuits. . .” Other industries also implemented a dual wage system for its Anglo and Mexican American workers as late as 1942 when the War Production Board reported that “the differentials between Mexican and American white workers is as high as \$1 per shift.” **TAB 16** (Foley 1997, 49; Daniel, FEPC, 77)

In labor controls as in political control, the Texas Rangers played a prominent role by intimidating the Mexican American workers to preclude organization or protest. In 1913, for example, Texas Rangers broke a strike in El Paso where Mexican Americans made up 60% of the work force. The 650 smelter workers went on a strike, which was broken by Texas Rangers using violence and hired company henchmen. Likewise, in 1966, when national civil rights leader Cesar Chavez came to the Rio Grande Valley to support a Mexican American farmworker strike, the Texas Rangers used intimidation, arrests, and violence to harass the strikers. (Gomez-Quinonez 1994, 79, 255; Daniel, FEPC, 128) Throughout this period, government investigations continually reported discriminatory practices against Mexican American workers. Even in World War II, the Fair Employment Practices Commission found a dual wage system in the Texas oil industry.

Even after the war, as Mexican Americans took 10,000 of the 35,000 jobs at Kelly A.F.B. in San Antonio, the U.S. Commission of Civil Rights reported that they “continued to be concentrated in the lower pay scales.. .” through a network of discriminatory devices. Typically, an Anglo manager would “Pass-Over” a Mexican American worker for an Anglo on hiring and promotions. The personnel evaluation system was found to use a “Dummy Profile” for promoting and hiring pre-selected Anglos. Many of the Mexican American workers were performing skilled jobs at lower rate of pay. (U.S. Com. Civ Rts, Employment, 3; Montejano 1987, 269) In agriculture, the farm ownership patterns had seen a replacement of the family farm by corporate agribusiness. Likewise the Mexican American agricultural force changed to a migrant force. The Mexican American farm labor force became an interstate migrant labor force which increased “from 95,000 in 1963 to 129,000 in 1966.” One study of the migrant force of 350,000 in the Lubbock area in 1939 was 85% Mexican American. And

according to a recent study, conditions for Mexican American migrant workers have not improved significantly. The Texas Office of Rural Health reported recently that their work is still "the highest of all industries in work-related deaths, with a rate of 52 deaths per 1,000,000 workers." (Montejano 1987, 273; Tijerina 1979, 38; Richardson 1999, 33)

Mexican Towns/ Barrios

Another device promoted by business and local governments to keep Mexican American workers separate was the formation of an exclusively Mexican American town or neighborhood. As Anglo-American farmers migrated into the Rio Grande Valley from midwestern states in the 1890s, they used race as a device to segregate not only their workers but whole towns. They were attracted by land promoters with promises of low labor wages and cheap agricultural lands, but they rejected the local Mexican American culture and population. According to a study of the Valley counties, "Racially segregated schools and residential patterns emerged" at the turn of the century. Many of these segregated or exclusively Mexican American towns were planned and developed by powerful growers specifically to isolate their labor force. In 1910, for example, the Taft Ranch built Taft and Sinton on ranch land specifically to separate its Mexican American workers from its Anglos. Likewise, other South Texas towns were developed by growers. Asherton was built as a "Mexican Town" by a banker named Richardson. Kingsville was segregated by the Kleberg Town & Improvement Company. Weslaco was built as a segregated town in 1921 by municipal ordinance using the Missouri Pacific Railroad tracks. McAllen was segregated by the formal policies of the Real Estate Board and the Delta Development Company. (Anders 1982, 142; Montejano 1987, 167)

In the larger cities of the state, Mexican immigrants and native Mexican American citizens alike were simply not allowed to settle within the city limits. Segregated into barrios, they were commonly denied access to business, to neighborhoods, to education, and to city services. As the new Texas cities grew, they took the shape of a segregated community. When Mexican Americans returned to Austin after the 1859 vigilante raids, for example, they were allowed to remain primarily as a disfranchised labor force living in the county dump. Those in Dallas, Lubbock, and Houston settled across the railroad tracks near the railroad depots or stockyards. In this racially and politically segregated barrio, the Mexican American citizenry of Texas developed an unequal status which lingers to the present day as a result of the decades of denial. In general, the Texas barrios were described as deplorable, isolated from city services, and lacking political representation.

The Dallas barrio, for example, developed along Mill Creek across the Trinity River from downtown Dallas after the Civil War. Mexican immigrants were housed near the railroad depot and Mexican American citizens moved into the barrio called "Cement City" because of the cement works. It was described as having dilapidated houses with "No sewage—no sanitation. . . worse conditions." A newspaper report said in 1944 that

“Every such congested, overcrowded, unhealthful center is like a canker or eating sore on our fair city.” It added that the substandard housing was “little improved” through the decades of the 20th century, and were “hardly fit for housing livestock on a farm.” Indeed “Little Mexico,” as the Dallas barrio was later called, ranked first in tuberculosis deaths, pellagra deaths, and overall death rate for the city. As stated above, these conditions would leave a lingering effect on the Mexican American community. A report, U.S. Census Tract X of Dallas in 1970 showed that the barrio had the lowest education and income levels, and the highest infant mortality rate in Dallas as late as 1970. (Achor 1978, pp. 34, 35, & 63)

Through the decades, Dallas continued to develop a “sharp division between the Anglo and non-White population,” the highest of thirty-five southwestern U.S. cities according to a report in 1960. After urban renewal and school desegregation in the 1970s, statistics revealed that “Dallas has still maintained separate patterns of settlement.” As a result of the economic and racial segregation, one study reported in 1972 that “Minority access to political power is severely limited—in fact, it was almost nonexistent for many years.” The study indicated that from 1931 to the early 1970s, an informal council of Anglo political leaders called the Dallas Citizens Council used its political arm, the Citizens Charter Association (CCA) to influence local elections. In so doing, the CCA denied Mexican American access to equitable representation in local elections, and virtually prohibited broader representation in state and federal legislation. The CCA typically slated pro-business Anglo candidates for all elections and never had a single Hispanic in any of the eighteen Texas legislative districts, three state senatorial districts, or six U.S. congressional districts in Dallas County.

The Mexican American community of Dallas began to organize for democratic activities, and was “radicalized” by a singularly revealing incident in 1972. Barrio residents had long complained of police brutality, but little evidence could be found to verify it until a Dallas policeman shot a Mexican American child in an interrogation. The police officer, Darrel Cain, used his .357 magnum revolver to force a confession from 12-year-old Santos Rodriguez (later found to be innocent) in a deadly game of Russian roulette. The gruesome incident agitated Mexican Americans across the state, although it had no impact on the segregation or political representation for the Dallas barrio. (Ibid., pp. 50, 59, 60, 148) Indeed, Mexican American children were still attending segregated schools in Dallas in the 1950s. Not only were they restricted to four segregated elementary schools, their only high school until 1960 was Crozier Tech, a vocational school. A turbulent desegregation of schools in the 1960s seemed to exacerbate matters by leading to a massive “White Flight” out of the inner city schools. The Dallas Planning Department reported that 100,000 whites had fled Dallas to the suburbs between 1968 and 1973, leaving Dallas Independent School District about 50% African American and 20% Mexican American. With the “White Flight” went the tax base as businesses followed the Anglos to Arlington, Plano, and Irving. Later developments have tended to

transform the inner city area through gentrification, but none of the newer trends substantially increased Mexican American representation. (Phillips 2006, pp. 127 & 167)

Like Dallas, the first Mexican immigrants and Mexican American citizens in Houston moved in with the railroads in a segregated neighborhood called “El Crisol.” By 1910 another barrio emerged near the railroad depot of the Southern Pacific called El Segundo Barrio. The Houston barrio, like other Texas barrios, was described as late as World War II as having “dismally poor housing conditions” with most residents living in “two, three room houses, very cheaply constructed of unpainted lumber.” The barrio reportedly had little running water or heat, and many of its residents living in boxcars with no bedding. The Houston school district established Rusk Elementary School as the single segregated elementary school for Mexican Americans. Rusk was known as the “Mexican School.” By the late 1920s and 1930s, new barrios grew up in Houston’s Second Ward with the largest barrio, Magnolia, near the Houston ship channel. All of these barrios had segregated schools, that although lacking in physical and curriculum advantages, stressed Americanization and corporeal punishment for speaking Spanish. (Rosales 1981, pp. 224 – 248)

By 1875 when the Mexican American population of Austin began to recover from the vigilante raids, they were allowed to settle only at the edge of town. The Aursin barrio was in the city dump where the city garbage was dumped over the bluff into the Colorado River, presently located at the Congress Avenue bridge downtown. As the Mexican American population increased, only a few lived outside of the city dump grounds, some along the upper reaches of Waller Creek at present-day 25th Street. An analysis of segregation in Austin between 1875 and 1910 indicated that although other ethnic groups—even the Irish—had integrated into the city, “Not so the Mexicans who continued to live . . . in other physically and socially marginal pockets.” (Manaster 1986, 99) Nor were they allowed burial in the city cemetery, but outside the cemetery instead, in the pauper’s burial ground labeled as the “Strangers’ Ground.” (Austin Oakwood Cemetery, Book I) Conditions in the city dump were described in a complaint by former city Alderman A.J. Zilker in 1899. Zilker reported that city dump had collected 10,000 loads of trash in the last 15 months alone, including dead animals and vegetable matter that created an “unbearable” stench for “a large number of people live near the dump. . .” (*Austin Daily Tribune* 1899, p. 4) A university sociologist, William B. Hamilton, conducted a social survey of Austin in 1913, in which he described the Mexican-American neighborhood in the city dump as living “in the ‘Dark Ages’ of civic sanitation.” The Mexican-American residents lived in “small huts, one and two families in a one-room shanty, and little children are forced to play out in the dusty street on the filthy, dirty creek or river bank where their homes are located.” **TAB 17** (Hamilton 1913, 9)

By the late 1920s, Austin policy makers had begun to realize that they had inadvertently forced the Mexican Americans to settle an area that became prime real

estate on Congress Avenue at the river. Their response was to conduct a model of urban planning that not only created the first city-planned Texas barrio, but to invent the modern American model of a housing project. They hired a consulting agency which proposed to move the Mexican Americans and African Americans out of the city dump and out of the Clarksville neighborhood, both along the north bank of the river. Specifically, it proposed moving them out of the now “desirable” area for construction of a proposed Waller Creek Driveway and a broad new Congress Avenue. The report recognized that the property was “at present occupied by very unsightly and unsanitary shacks inhabited by negroes. With these buildings removed for the trafficway, most of the remaining property will be of substantial and more desirable type.” Stating that the property “will increase its value many times. . .,” the report used coded language to indicate that the Mexican-American “blighted district” was the reason for current low value, but “if the reason is removed, the value will increase.” The consultants advised the city planners to avoid “unconstitutional” attempts like the vigilante raids previously used. It suggested that they simply create “a negro district, as an incentive to draw the negro population to this area” in East Austin to avoid duplication of segregated parks, schools, and facilities. It also included a suggested removal of the Mexican American neighborhood along with the Negro population. (Austin 1928, pp. 46 - 57)

The City of Austin adopted the consultant report as a “Master Plan” in 1929 “as official city policy the goal of concentrating Blacks in East Austin.” It segregated municipal services, and in coordination with the city planners, “the school system promoted the City policy by building all segregated schools.” To provide for tacit enforcement of the removal, property restrictions in the private sector “prohibited Blacks, and in some cases Mexican-Americans from buying or renting . . . outside East Austin.” (Austin Human Relations Commission 1979) Meanwhile, in order to entice the minorities to move into the East Austin barrio, Honorable U.S. Congressman Lyndon B. Johnson introduced a bill authorizing the U.S. Housing Authority to fund housing projects “enhance the value not only of the surrounding property but of all property in Austin.” (U.S. Congress 1933) With the federal funds appropriated by Congressman Johnson, Austin boasted the “Nation’s First Completed [Housing] Project” with three sites selected for “separate projects for white families, Mexican families, and negro families.” By 1940 and 1950, Austin had become the most segregated major city in Texas based on Index of Dissimilarity. (Austin 1979, pp. 1-15; Austin Housing Authority 1948, p. 12) As the 20th century progressed, Austin segregation became even more pronounced. Even after WWII, when the returning veterans, Mexican American veterans included, the city continued forced segregation. Texas Land Commissioner Bascom Giles developed two housing sub-divisions in north Austin which he promoted as the Duplex Nation and the Wilshire Historic District near the Austin Mueller Airport. Giles developed the sub-divisions specifically for the returning WWII veterans, but he included “restrictive covenant which prohibited non-whites from owning or residing in

the neighborhood.” Thus, even returning Mexican American veterans were restricted to the same barrio and excluded from the modern housing provided for Anglo American residents of Austin. (Texas 2006, pp. 15 & 16)

Although segregated from the earliest days of the barrio, Austin’s Mexican Americans apparently always voted, though in significantly smaller percentages than Anglo Americans or even European immigrants. The 1867 voter registration records of Travis County indicate the 128 Mexican Americans registered among the total 4,838 other voters, mostly Anglo American, but many listed as immigrants from Germany, Prussia, England, Bavaria, Africa, Ireland, some of these listed as “Naturalized.” Mexican Americans voted in small numbers, but perhaps the most deleterious effect was caused by the implementation of the poll tax. A case study of voting in 1933 Austin election illustrates the negative impact of the poll tax on Mexican American voting. Mexican Americans show significant decline in registration and even more decline in voting. Charts and tables in this study show less than 3% Mexican Americans voted after implementation of the poll tax. Analysis also shows that at the same time, according to the report that “whites augment their strength . . . solely at the expense of the Mexican element.” (Martin 1933, p. 929) After the poll tax was repealed, Austin eligible voter numbers went up from 42,300 to 71,300. The 1967 election was first election since the repeal, and according to the newspaper reports, “The turnout was the biggest ever for a city election—32,892. . .,” although it still reflected a low percentage of eligible voters of only 46%. (*Austin American-Statesman* 1967, p. A-15) Mexican Americans had begun to actively campaign for only-Anglo candidates with a Mexican American advertising in the newspaper promoting their Anglo candidate, but after repeal of the poll tax they began to run their own candidates like S.J. “Buddy” Ruiz, the first local Mexican American candidate for an Austin elected post. (*Austin American-Statesman* 1969)

In order to achieve the residential segregation, many other Texas cities used restrictive covenants and deed restrictions, specifically directed at the Mexican American population. In 1977, one study reported that “real estate covenants along racial and ethnic lines continue to have substantial effect on housing patterns” in Corpus Christi and San Antonio. (**APPENDIX 1:** U.S. Commission on Civil Rights: Mexican American Education, 11) In 1947, later Congressman Henry B. Gonzalez organized the Pan American Progressive Association (PAPA) to document restrictive housing in San Antonio. He reported restrictive covenants in home mortgages which effectively prohibited Mexican American moving into the more affluent neighborhoods of the city. Many other cities created a segregated Mexican American section or “barrio” using subtle tactics like smaller lot sizes, lower home costs, and square footage covenants. These patterns quickly established a pattern that racist practices would later enforce. In 1920, for example, the Lockhart school superintendent said “If a Mexican bought a lot among the whites they would burn him out.” Many towns openly posted signs that read “No lots sold to Mexicans” and “No Mexicans admitted.” The practice of segregation led

to congestion and social problems such as infant mortality and disease. As an example, San Antonio, had the highest rate of tuberculosis in the U.S. in the 1930s. The denigration of the Mexican American as a second-class citizen in Texas eventually led to social practices and attitudes that were articulated and implemented socially. As an example, the distinguished lawyer and State Rep. J.T. Canales was publicly referred to as the “greaser from Brownsville” in 1910 legislative session. Across the state, Mexican Americans were denied service in restaurants, swimming pools, barber shops, and in public. Even after World War II in 1946 two Mexican American veterans were refused service in Helotes, near San Antonio. The Anglo merchant stated that their veteran status had no effect on the discriminatory practice. Contemporary newspapers indicated that such treatment against Mexican American was common “throughout the entire state.” (US Comsn. Civ. Rts., Unfinished, 185; San Miguel 1987, pp. 15, 68 115; Foley 1997, 42; Rosales 2000, 16)

Official Education Policy

Education is one of the most vulnerable areas of democratic life to racial discrimination not only because it is subject to local prejudices, but also because it tends to perpetuate the racial polarization. The political, economic, and social segregation in Texas during the 20th century had strong ramifications in education as well. Indeed, education was to a great extent the primary racial advantage in those other spheres of life. The destructive restrictions against Mexican Americans in Texas began shortly after the government was taken over by Anglo-American power. In 1841, the Republic of Texas Legislature passed a Joint Resolution that suspended printing laws in Spanish. Ironically, only three years later, it chartered a foreign-language German university. In 1856, a law was passed allowing Spanish in the courts of Texas only if the J.P. and the primary party could not speak English

In an 1858 amendment to an 1856 school law, the state legislature made English the “Principle language” of instruction. It strengthened this in 1870 by requiring English for instruction in all public schools. In this racially divided social environment, Texas public education developed as an exclusive and segregated system at the state and local level. The principle of racial segregation was formally established in the Texas, Constitution of 1876, which stated in Article 7 § 7 that “Separate schools shall be provided . . .” Many schools interpreted this to apply to the Mexican American as well as the Negro. Throughout the state, schools excluded Mexican Americans until the 1890s. (Taylor 1934, p. 192) When they did provide education for Mexican American students, many cities across Texas began to segregate their Mexican American students into separate schools called “Mexican Schools.” Houston, San Antonio, and El Paso had “Mexican Schools” by the turn of the century. Mexican American attendance at these segregated schools became mandatory. By 1921, the school board in Alice ordered that

“all Latin Americans attend Nayer . . . Anglo Saxons attend Hobbs-Strickland School.” By the turn of century, Mexican American students were forced by school board policies to bypass neighboring Anglo schools to attend Mexican American segregated schools. And many of these “Mexican Schools,” offered schooling only to the 6th grade. (Garcia 1981, 110; Rangel 1972, pp. 315, 367)

By the 1920s, state officials began to issue statements of policy that singled out the Mexican American culture and students for special restrictions. One of these officials was Annie Webb Blanton, the state superintendent of public instruction. In the 1920s, she promoted a policy to make Texas schools teach “Americanization,” which was a euphemism for Anglo-conformity. In opposition to the Mexican American culture, she proclaimed “if you wish to preserve, in our state, the language and the custom of another land, you have no right to this.” In response to her policy, E.E. Davis and C.T. Gray conducted “A Study of Rural Schools in Karnes County,” which they published in the University of Texas Bulletin #2246 in December, 1922. In the report they stated “In general, it should be stated that separate schools are preferable for both the Mexican and the Americans.” Their reason was that Americans “do not like to go to school with the dirty ‘greaser’ type of Mexican child.” (Davis 1916, pp. 9, 10, 41-43 pp. 9, 10, 41-43) This was followed by a report by George A. Works, Texas Education Survey Reports, under the auspices of the Texas Educational Survey Commission in 1925. In this statewide survey, Works stated that “it is time to segregate, if it is done on educational grounds. . .” (Works 1925, p. 213.) Thus segregation received endorsement not only from the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the state, but from University of Texas scholars as well.

School boards then began to follow a widespread practice of neglecting Mexican American student enrollment almost completely, condoned by Superintendent Blanton. By 1920, 70% of Mexican American school-age children in Texas were not enrolled as opposed to only 22% of the Anglo non-enrolled students, although mandatory school attendance had been required by law since the 1880s in Texas. In a classic study of education in Texas, University of Texas Professor H.T. Manuel in 1928 found that 40% of the Mexican American students were not enrolled at state level as compared to 9% of the Anglo students. Manuel found only 4% of the Mexican American students were attending junior high and high school as opposed to 60% of the Anglo students. During this time period, many South Texas school officials and principals in Nueces County and Dimmit County reported that they simply did not enforce Mexican American student enrollment or attendance. (San Miguel 1987, pp. 6-7; 24, 32, 49; Garcia 1981, 110; Rangel 1972, 315) Much of the educational neglect was due to excluding the Mexican American students, but much was due to segregation in the school district boundaries.

Segregated Districts

The “Mexican School” became a widespread phenomenon in Texas education. The various school districts segregated their Mexican American students, but they provided significantly poorer facilities for them. The “Mexican School” segregation spread rapidly across the state. In 1930, for example over 40 school districts had Mexican schools. A 1942 study by Wilson Little found 50% of the Mexican American students segregated through the 6th grade in 122 districts in “widely distributed and representative counties” of the state. Few Mexican American students went beyond the 6th grade. A typical example of the racial stratification in housing, labor, and education was seen in Cotulla, where future President Lyndon B. Johnson taught at the “Mexican School.” In 1928, he taught in Welhausen Elementary School for Latin Americans. Across town, Amanda Burks Elementary was “limited to Anglo-Americans.” In a typical stratification, 80% of the population was Mexican American, and barrio segregated. LBJ wrote about the racial situation, noting that his girlfriend in the neighboring town was in the Ku Klux Klan. By the 1940s, whole sections of the state had segregated “Mexican School” belts of towns, many of these developed specifically by the growers to isolate the Mexican Americans. In the Lower Valley, Edinburg, Harlingen, and San Benito school systems were segregated, while on Hwy. 83, Mercedes, McAllen, Mission, Pharr, San Juan, Alamo, and Weslaco districts were completely segregated. On the Gulf Coast in South Texas, Raymondville, Kingsville, Robstown, Kenedy, and Taft schools districts were segregated, while in the Winter Garden, Crystal City, Carrizo Springs, Asherton, and Frio Town were segregated towns with segregated schools. (Montejano 1987, 168; Pycior 1997, 14; San Miguel 1987, 56; Civil Rts. Study, 13)

In the larger cities, the school board policy was to segregate whole school districts, or to segregate the Mexican American students into predominantly Mexican American schools. In 1900 Rusk Elementary was established as Houston’s first Mexican school. Later, the Houston school board built Lorenzo de Zavala, Hawthorne, Dow, Elysian Street, Jones, and Lubbock exclusively for Mexican Americans. These students were rarely encouraged to go beyond the 6th grade. By 1940, however, Mexican Americans began to enter high schools, when about 3% of the high school students were Mexican American. (San Miguel 2001, pp. 12, 32) A report for the school year 1942-43 reported that there were 260,759 “Latin” or Mexican American students in Texas or 20% of the white. Much of the segregation was, of course, due to the initial segregation of the housing and “Mexican Towns,” but much of it was due to outright gerrymandering of the district boundaries within a city. A survey of superintendents revealed that “While many claimed that there was no segregation in their schools, some admitted that the drawing-up of district boundary lines was deliberately made to enclose areas predominantly Latin.” (Kuhr 1971, 73) In the study by Wilson Little, he stated that many superintendents surveyed were asked why they segregated their Latin students. He reported that, “In laying out the attendance areas within a given school district, therefore, it is not at all uncommon to find that one school is attended only by Spanish-speaking children and that

another school in the same district is attended only by Anglo-American students.” As a result, he found that “Separate housing for Spanish-speaking children is a fixed practice in many school systems in Texas.” (Little 1994, 59)

After the 1920s, Mexican American students were put into “developmental” classes and vocational classes, ostensibly because they needed special attention. Unfortunately, students were mixed with a variety of other students who were blind, spoke Spanish-only, were delinquents, or were bright students who simply did not like school. The San Antonio schools were reported in 1934 to have similar segregation. In that year, Alonso Perales and Eleuterio Escobar founded the Liga Pro-Defensa Escolar or School Improvement League in San Antonio. In their study of Mexican American schools, they reported statistics comparing West Side Mexican schools to the Anglo schools. The Mexican American schools had 12,334 students compared to 12,224 Anglo students. But the Mexican American students were in only 11 schools compared to 28 Anglo schools. The Mexican American schools had 23 acres of space compared to 82 acres for the Anglo school grounds. The Mexican American schools had 48 students per room compared to 23 Anglo students per room. The school funding revealed similar contrast, as the school board spent \$24.50 for each Mexican American student compared to \$35.96 average spending per Anglo pupil. Similar discriminatory funding was revealed in Nueces and Dimmit Counties. In 1934, noted historian Paul S. Taylor interviewed a Nueces Co. superintendent, who openly admitted that 100% of the \$18,000 property tax revenue “goes on the white school.” (San Miguel 2001, pp. 12, 32; San Miguel 1987, 54; Garcia 1989, 66)

Gerrymandering of attendance zones within a district became widespread by the late 1940s. , Charles Ray Akin wrote his Master’s thesis at the University of Texas at Austin in 1955 on “A Study of School Boundaries in East Austin, Texas” under the distinguished education scholar George I. Sanchez. Aiken compared the “Mexican School” Zavala and the Anglo school Metz in attendance. He stated that “there exists the possible basis for a charge of segregation, especially since Zavala is 100 per cent composed of Latins, although some Anglos live nearer here than to Metz where they attend; [and] 4) since Metz and Zavala are located within three blocks of each other. . .” (Aikin 1951, 28)

Later, in 1954, famed lawyer Gus Garcia led a group of Mexican American parents in a petition to Dr. J.W. Edgar, State Commissioner of Education on whether a “zone line” for the new Gillet Jr. High in Kingsville, Texas was legal. The line made the school 100% Mexican American in attendance. Although the Kingsville I.S.D. Supt. George W. Wier said “that the zoning boundaries were set up on the basis of student load and other factors” and that there was “no intention to segregate,” Garcia argued otherwise. In a newspaper article, he stated that the line was “more crooked than a sick snake.” [*está mas chueca que una vívora enferma*] In another article to the *Corpus Christi Caller*, Garcia accused the school of making the school “predominantly

‘Mexican’ either by virtue of gerrymandering or geographical location.” (Garcia Papers, Box 1, Folders 1 & 10)

One of the most salient characteristics in discrimination of Mexican Americans in Texas is the formal role played by government and school officials. There is ample evidence that the state “embraced” segregation as a formal concept in education of its Mexican American citizens. A Texas Education Agency survey in 1921 reported overcrowded Mexican American schools and half-day sessions for Mexican American students. The state agency made no comment or suggestion that the practice was inadequate. And throughout the first half of the 20th century, the state Attorney General systematically approved construction bonds submitted as required by the various independent school districts for his approval. The bond packages frequently called for construction of segregated “Mexican” Schools, but received customary approval with no mention or state sanctions for the segregated facilities. In 1920, Gov. Wm. P. Hobby called a special session to pass education laws, including a 1922 law to make English the “medium of instruction” in public schools. Following the lead of the governor and attorney general, the Texas State Teachers Association (TSTA) at their 1922 convention, passed a resolution opposing any but the English language in school. The state’s teachers proclaimed that “Respect for our Flag should carry with respect for our Language and loyalty to it.” And in 1925, the legislature passed a law specifying that schools “shall use the English language exclusively” in public education. With the formal policy equating English with loyalty, Texas schools began exclusively to teach Mexican American students hygiene, English, drawing, and music with the assumption that they needed to be clean and divest themselves of their Spanish accent and “all things Mexican.” (Rangel 1972, pp. 318-19; San Miguel, 1987 pp. 25, 35, 45)

Mexican American Challenge

As Mexican American parents and civic leaders began to perceive the official nature of discrimination in the mid-20th century, they initiated formal protests and legal challenges to the agencies and government. Limited in resources, the Mexican American challengers were also limited in their success to end discrimination, but they established a legal foundation for many advancements. The “first challenge” to segregated schools in Texas was in 1928 in Charlotte, Atascosa County. The parents of Amanda Vela protested to the school superintendent that she did not live in the predominantly Mexican American district, and she did not speak any Spanish; therefore, they wanted her to attend the Anglo school. The school board trustees resisted it, but the superintendent conceded that the Mexican Americans should not be segregated. The State School Board upheld the superintendent’s decision to let her into the Anglo school, notwithstanding the trustee’s resistance. The case revealed early on the consistent pattern of recalcitrance that local school officials would show toward integrated schools. This was evident in the school districts of Beeville, Sinton, Elgin, Bastrop, and Cotulla when

attorney Gus Garcia told Atty. Gen. Price Daniel that Texas schools were using “a subterfuge to practice segregation” after the 1947 *Mendez v. Westminster* case. Gen. Daniel denied the subterfuge.

Then in 1948, Garcia filed a case against the Bastrop I.S.D., and the judge found that the district was illegally segregating the Mexican American students. In its decision, the court added a proviso, however, that segregation was acceptable in 1st grade “solely for instruction purposes.” The Delgado “proviso” led to evasive tactics by many other school districts to segregate Mexican American students who had dubious need of segregation for instructional purposes. In 1957, the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC) sued Driscoll I.S.D., which was using the Delgado proviso to evade the court’s ruling. In Driscoll, one little girl who was segregated for “instructional purposes” on the basis of language was found to be proficient only in English. Moreover, the school system had failed to provide any “instructional” programs for the segregated students. By the mid-1950s, other schools across the state used freedom of choice plans, selected student transfer and transportation plans, and classification systems based on language or scholastic ability to maintain segregation. These programs did not enhance the education of Mexican Americans in any way, and served only to perpetuate and justify the segregation.

After the frustrating legal challenges met only with evasion and subterfuge, Mexican American civic leaders began a different approach to improving their schools. One classic example was the development of an early school program called the “Little School of 400.” This pre-school program was funded personally by a Houston restaurateur, and president of LULAC, Felix Tijerina in 1955. The Texas legislature later adopted Little School of 400 as Texas Pre-School Program, but by 1967, only 12% of eligible schools were offering it to their students. In 1967 through 1970, Mexican American students took the initiative from their parents and civic leaders to conduct their own walk-outs and demonstrations to protest insensitive curriculum and discriminatory practices in high schools and colleges. Mexican American students conducted school boycotts in Crystal City, Kingsville, and Edcouch-Elsa. In Kingsville, the police arrested 110 Mexican American students, and the boycotts yielded minor concessions from the school boards, but the actions brought public attention to the segregation and discrimination. Also, the boycotts spurred the federal government’s Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) to take legal action against offending school districts. By 1972, HEW gained compliance in many South Texas towns like Bishop, Lyford, Los Fresnos, Beeville, and Weslaco, and it put Del Rio under court order for compliance. (San Miguel 1987, pp. 76, 120, 123, 134; Rangel 1972, 369)

Latino Experience in Pasadena, Texas

In the Houston area, where Buffalo Bayou and Braes Bayou meet near Harrisburg and the site of the 1836 Battle of San Jacinto, incoming Anglo-Americans from the

United States and European immigrants quickly developed “an intense anti-Mexican sentiment.” Few original Tejanos lived in the Houston area before the Texas Revolution, and except for Texas Republic Vice President Lorenzo de Zavala, few lived in the area after 1836. De Zavala was the Mexican government liberal who fled Mexico to come to Texas after General Antonio Lopez de Santa Anna ascended to the Mexican Presidency. De Zavala was a signer of the Texas Declaration of Independence whose land grant and family home were on Buffalo Bayou, near the famous battleground. But the only other Mexicans in the area were a few of Santa Anna’s captured Mexican soldiers who delayed their repatriation to work on local farms and public works in the area. As a result, the Anglo and European immigrants accepted the image promoted by two newspapers, the *Houston Telegraph and Texas Register* and the *Houston Morning Star*, that Mexicans were a “mongrel race, inferior even to negroes.” As communities began to form around Houston, they continued to look upon all Mexicans “with ridicule and scorn.”

Present-day Pasadena was founded nearest to the San Jacinto Battleground, initially employing Mexican laborers on ranches or on strawberry farms. Between 1875 and 1890, the railroad construction, cotton compresses began to attract larger numbers of Mexican immigrant laborers east of Houston in the area around Pasadena. The Pasadena population accelerated after WWI and the 1920s with refineries along the Houston ship channel. The early residents were constantly reminded of the narrative that developed around the battleground that Mexicans were a defeated race, unprepared for self-rule.

TAB 18 (Pomeroy 1993, pp. ix, 316-18; Kreneck 1989, pp. 19-22, 45)

As Pasadena grew and attracted a growing Latino population, the Anglo population continued to see them as Mexican immigrants, excluding them from access to city government. Access to elected position was only by the traditional method of slating. In the Pasadena ISD, which had never elected a Latino, the Citizens United for Better Schools “tapped” Carmen Orozco to run on the slate for the Board. Orozco had garnered their attention when she publicly declared in a newspaper article and on the radio that while Pasadena schools had “been avalanched with criticism,” she believed “Pasadena has been doing a very fine job of educating its children.” Elevated to the School Board, she became the darling of the Anglo electorate. Celestino Perez, a Latino witness, testified in a sworn deposition that Orozco thereby became the only Latino member of the Citizens United for Better Schools. “She had the backing. She had the money, and she had the votes to be elected for the first time.” **TAB 19** (Pasadena Citizen, “One Parent Appreciates PISD” Sept. 10, 1984, Sec 1 Pg 1; *Perez vs Pasadena Independent School District*, Deposition)

The use of race also became pronounced in labor controls on the Texas Gulf Coast after the 1901 discovery at Spindletop. Texas became “the world’s largest concentration of petroleum refineries and chemical plants,” from Beaumont/Port Arthur to New Orleans and down to Corpus Christi, and Pasadena, Texas was the center of that concentration. As Shell, Sinclair and other petroleum companies moved into Pasadena,

the city was beset by crude oil tanks, distillation columns, fractionating towers, catalytic “crackers” and refineries that produced 36 percent of national refining capacity by 1976. But as they attracted labor, the refineries hired Mexicans, Mexican-American citizens, and Anglo-Americans in unequal segregated classifications. Latinos, whether citizens or not, were hired only in construction around the refinery but not in the refinery maintenance. Restricted to menial labor, Latinos even in the unions could expect no advancement. Latinos were relegated to inferior wage schedules and segregated facilities. Following the practice of the local construction industry, the refineries established “independent unions” by 1937, usually with separate African-American auxiliaries. The discriminatory practices were enforced informally by intimidation, spies, red smears, and “racist jeremiads.” (Priest and Botson, 2012, pp. 100-110) Union members openly admitted that they, themselves, demanded segregated work spaces and a dual-wage system. In an interview with a University of Texas researcher, the Secretary of Workers’ International Union (OWIU) #243 in Beaumont stated, “This organization had to be formed separately from the whites because of racial feelings in Beaumont.” (Labor Movement, Dabney Interview, Box 2E308, File 2)

Texas companies, like Humble, Sinclair, and Shell hired Mexican Americans, though the unions like the CIO and other unions collaborated with the companies to establish the dual wage systems, segregated work areas, separate occupational categories, and restrictions of Mexican Americans in skilled work. John Crossland, an Anglo unionist with Shell Refinery Local 367 in Pasadena admitted about minorities, “A lot of white membership ... didn’t want them to have a line of progression.” The Dallas office Director, Dr. Carlos Castaneda, found that Texas mining and oil companies used token Mexican American workers “to avoid an open charge of discrimination.” His conclusion, however, was that “Discrimination against the Latin-American worker has not been eliminated.” (Zamora 1992, 327; Daniel, FEPC, 150; Priest and Botson 2012)

In its neighborhood patterns, Pasadena experienced the same segregated growth as other major Texas cities, but its population increase greatly exceeded other cities. Pasadena grew by 161% between 1950 and 1960, but in the following decades, the entire region experienced a radical ethnic shift. The Latino population of Harris County grew 50% to 1.7 million even as the number of Anglo Americans declined by 6%. Two out of three Pasadena residents were Latino by the end of the century. The change in ethnicity was exacerbated by the cultural change, from an Anglo community to a Latino community. Culturally, Pasadena had strong markers of a conservative blue-collar Anglo city. Its congressman in the McCarthyism of the 1950s was Martin Dies, Chairman of the House Unamerican Affairs Committee, and by the 1980s, Pasadena was the state headquarters of the Ku Klux Klan, with a KKK bookstore in the middle of town. Its union-member workers were “quite militant and radical” as they promoted conformity to an Anglo-American Protestant culture. The Chamber of Commerce sponsored “Loyalty Parades,” the school board enforced dress codes, and the City Council hosted an

“Obscenity Panel” to prohibit lewd movies at the theaters. The city had been incorporated with a city charter that complied with the state law that prescribed segregation and outlawed the teaching of Spanish, Bohemian, and German. This culture later clashed openly with the overwhelming Latino population that spoke Spanish, ate tacos, and danced at quinceañera debutante balls. (Houston Chronicle August 11, 1971 “Obscenity Panel;” Houston Post, May 1, 1955, p. 19 “Loyalty Week”; Jervis, Rick, “Hispanics Guide Huge Growth in Texas,” *USA Today*, February 23, 2011.)

Instead of changing to single-member districts, the city council simply maintained the same at-large district system, exploiting the incumbency of the established Anglo political structure. As the city rapidly grew in population, and as the Latino demographic exploded after the 1980s, Pasadena retained its old order. The 1942 city charter had incorporated segregation in its Article VIII, Section 4 “Segregation of Races,” taking advantage of the state’s allowance for legal segregation of the races. The Pasadena Chamber of Commerce boasted a projected population increase which literally doubled from 103,281 in 1970 to 203,756 in the year 2000. It hardly noted that the Latino population, which had been roughly 15% in 1970, would rapidly become the majority of the population. As Latinos met with city leaders and the school board for adjustments to the precinct boundaries, they were met with indifference. One group of Latinos, the Pasadena Citizens for Equitable Representation met with the city council in 1991 to ask for two Latino districts. As a sincere gesture, they drew up a map to illustrate graphically the boundaries that would provide 14,000 Latino citizens in each of the two new districts, but were denied as well. **TAB 20** (Pasadena Citizens , MAP, 1991; Pasadena City Charter 1942, Article VIII, Section 4 “Segregation of Races; Texas Penal Code, Art. 288; Texas, General and Special Laws, 1927; Pasadena Chamber of Commerce, “Economic and Demographic Profile,” n.p.”)

In the area of education, many cultural and discriminatory practices were prevalent in the mid-twentieth century Pasadena, Texas. Pasadena was a legally segregated city that made minimal or no provisions for its minority students. African-American students had to go out of the city to attend school, and the Pasadena Independent School District (PISD) excluded the hiring of minority teachers and administrators until mid-century. The Findings of Fact in *U.S. v. Pasadena Independent School District* (1987) outlined a strong pattern of racial discrimination in the hiring practices of school teachers. (**APPENDIX 3: U.S. v. Pasadena Independent School District, 1987**) When the school district finally began to hire minority teachers, it conflicted with the minority community in its curriculum and treatment of minority students and teachers. Academic studies of Pasadena schools consistently revealed a strong culture of condescension on Latino students due to their “slow” performance or “mental ability” which supposedly hindered the Anglo students. (Glasgow, 1931, p. 49; Davis, 1958) Another federal case revealed that the Pasadena ISD was denying admission to the children of undocumented Latino immigrant residents of the city. The

court enjoined the school board “from refusing to permit any child . . . to attend the public free schools. . .” because of their status as immigrants. It also enjoined the board from refusing “to admit free of tuition” those Latino children. (U. S. District Court, In Re Alien, 1980) Despite the one Latino on the school board, Carmen Orozco, the growing Latino community repeatedly protested student treatment, corporeal punishment, and treatment of Latino teachers. In 1990, the School Board was challenged by a Latino petition, charging that Latino principal Graciela Barrera Kavulla had been fired for promoting Hispanic students at Jackson Elementary School. The Latino dissatisfaction increased until they launched a lawsuit to reform the board elections to single-member districts. TAB 22 (Kavulla Petition; Houston Chronicle April 18, 1992 “School Board Reform”)

Along with the other patterns of alienation, police conflicts with Latino citizens emerged in the social and physical segregation in Pasadena, Texas. By the mid-1980s, Latino *ad hoc* committees began to meet with the Pasadena Police Chief and city council to protest and discuss what they termed as police brutality and harassment of Latinos. In a 1991 meeting with Pasadena Police Chief Floyd W. Daigle, the “Hispanic and Other Concerned Citizens Committee” addressed specific cases of police treatment of Latinos. They also complained of the benign relationship between the Pasadena Police Department and the Ku Klux Klan which had its state headquarters and book store in Pasadena. In KKK demonstrations, the newspaper regularly pictured the police and the KKK in close proximity. The KKK had been known to have “penetrated the Houston Police Department,” and Latinos complained of the same in Pasadena. In 1986, the Federal Bureau of Investigation came into Pasadena to investigate the alleged beating of José Antonio Nuñez while in police custody. And in 1994, Latinos again protested the alleged suicide of Sirilo Delao by hanging himself with a telephone cord in the Pasadena City Jail. Latinos complained that the police intimidated Latino citizens, and did not represent the city’s ethnic make-up. When asked to explain why there were only three Latino policemen on the force, Police Sgt. J.C. Lyde stated that Anglo police officers were “‘enforcers’ of ‘the white man’s law,’ and often minority members find themselves ostracized if they decide to become policemen.” The conflict between Latinos and police remained an accepted characteristic of the status quo in Pasadena. **TAB 23** (Greene, 1995, pp. 30, 41; Pasadena Citizen, Oct. 22, 1986 “FBI Investigates;” Nov. 26, 1994 “Inmate Hangs Himself;” May 17, 1980 “Minorities Missing;” April, 1980 “Klansmen, police ‘stood up’”)

Legacy of Segregation

The legacy of 150 years of multi-faceted government-condoned discrimination against Mexican Americans in Texas is a state educational system that maintains a high dropout rate and is still characterized by widespread segregation. One of the vestiges of the years of “Mexican Schools” is the continued formation, construction, and

maintenance of schools and school districts that are imbalanced compared to the number of Mexican American students in the community or district. Many Texas cities now have whole segregated districts that have replaced the old “Mexican Schools.” In Nueces County, for example, a 1968 federal agency study found racially separated contiguous districts. The predominantly Mexican American school district in Robstown, which was established by Robert Kleberg as a segregated town for his Mexican American agricultural labor force, is adjoining the Callalen I.S.D., which is predominantly Anglo. In Val Verde County, the predominantly Mexican American San Felipe I.S.D. adjoins the all-white Del Rio I.S.D., and in Bexar County, the predominantly Mexican American districts of Edgewood and Harlandale are adjoining Anglo districts in San Antonio. By the 1960s, 50% or more of Mexican American students in Texas were segregated. Worse, not only students but even Mexican American teachers were also segregated or neglected. In 1968, the Anglo/Mexican American teacher ratio was reported to be 17:1. Mexican American teachers comprised only 4.9% of the teachers in Texas. And in the Rio Grande Valley, where Mexican Americans comprised 64% of the student enrollment, only 7% of the teachers were Mexican American. Likewise, Mexican American principals comprised only 3.4% of Texas principals. These low statistics were found to be similar for Mexican American school board members and school administrative staff, with Mexican Americans overrepresented in the custodial staff numbers. The latest studies reveal that even in the 1990s, the percentage of Mexican American high school administrators was only 65% for schools that were over 90% Mexican American in enrollment. (Civil Rts. Study, 1971, pp. 21, 23, 30, 42; Richardson 1999, 132)

The social and academic vestiges of systematic discrimination and segregation of Mexican Americans also continue to yield statistics that place Texas in an unenviable position among other states. A 1977 report issued by the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights reported that 19% of the Mexican Americans over age 25 in Texas were illiterate. Mexican Americans had twice the Anglo unemployment rate, and 15% of them still lived in overcrowded housing with inadequate plumbing as compared to the Anglo 1.7%. A clear holdover to the Texas “Mexican town” was the 70% of Mexican Americans in Texas who still lived in barrios. In San Antonio, for example, a 1980 study concluded that the limited residential access of middle-class Mexican Americans to the three affluent northern census tracts tended also to limit their educational access. (US Comsn. Civ. Rts., 1977, p. 184; Rosales 2001, 12) In 1981, Judge William Wayne Justice found the state bilingual plan inadequate, and that measures had not been taken to fully “remove the disabling vestiges of past de jure discrimination.” He ordered corrections to train teachers, identify students in Limited English Proficiency (LEP), and to expand the program. And in 1980, the Southwest Voter Registration and Education Project (SVREP) found that Mexican Americans were underrepresented on school boards in 92% of the 361 Texas school districts where Mexican Americans make up over 20% of the school population. In many other comparisons, Texas educational statistics show evidence

of past discrimination. A nationally publicized report in 1984 by the National Commission on Secondary Schooling reported that in Texas, the majority of Mexican American students are still in “inferior and highly segregated schools.” (Gomez-Quinones 1994, pp. 155, 166, 172). They are “extremely overage” and “disproportionally enrolled in remedial English classes.” Texas Mexican American students still have an unacceptably “high dropout” rate, and receive poor preparation for college.

Legacy of Disfranchisement

Just as segregation has hindered Latino education, so has the history of disfranchisement reduced Latino voter participation. Texas has been cited as having a distinct pattern of disfranchisement of minorities, including Latinos by a variety of devices—all intended to dilute or reduce voting strength. A report by the U.S. House of Representatives in 1975 stated that “Texas has a long history of discriminating” against minorities using “myriad forms of discrimination.” The background of the report stated that “The cultural and language impediment conjoined with the poll tax and the most restrictive voter registration procedures in the nation have operated to effectively deny Mexican Americans access to the political processes in Texas even longer than the Blacks were formally denied access by the white primary.” An example of the state’s tenacious attack on minority voting rights is clearly demonstrated by its use of the White Primary. As stated above, the White Primary was established in 1914, specifically to exclude the Latino voters. When the Texas White Primary Law was struck down by the courts in 1926, the state legislature responded by passing a law that authorized state political parties to set their own voter credentials. The state Democratic party then ruled that only whites could vote in the primary, which was struck down in 1923. The Democratic party immediately restricted party membership to whites only, which was struck down in 1944. These party exclusions were followed up by the poll tax until it was struck down. (TSHA Handbook, “White Primary”)

The Congressional Report added that most destructive was the fact that the state discriminatory laws combined with local governments and local officials to “frighten, discourage, frustrate, and otherwise inhibit” Latino voters. (U.S. Congress, 1975, p. 17) The report cited several Texas cities such as Corpus Christi, Waco, and Lufkin in which a variety of “legal devices” were used to discourage Latino voting. In some cases precinct or election districts have been re-drawn to dilute Latino voting populations; in other cases the lines have been drawn to concentrate an entire Latino community into a single district combined with at-large elections to limit their representation on elective boards and commissions. Until the 1980s, 179 of the 214 large cities in Texas had at-large electoral systems, or 83%. In general, the at-large non-partisan electoral system combined with the poll tax and other obstacles to hinder voter participation of Mexican Americans throughout most the twentieth century. (San Miguel 1987, pp. xv, 201; Montejano 1987, 292; Rosales, 2000, 13; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Texas, 1980, p. 47) The

Congressional Report stated that the same legal devices that hindered minority voting also hindered their running for office. In Texas, for example, Mexican Americans were found to hold 2.5 percent of elective positions, substantially lower than their percentage of the state's population. It concluded that this was "because of discrimination and economic dependence, and the fear that these have created." Scholar Juan Gomez-Quiñones has stated that the absence of Mexican Americans at all levels of appointed positions before 1970 is major indicator of their exclusion from the democratic process in Texas. And even though Mexican American voting had increased, Willie Velasquez of San Antonio, the founder of the Southwest Voter Registration Education Project (SVREP) stated that "Clearly, past discriminatory practices have hindered voting." Velasquez began in 1974 to register Mexican American voters. He found that he had to file several law suits in order to seek enforcement of the Voting Rights Act, and to re-structure local voting districts which had been Gerrymandered. (Gomez-Quinones 1994, pp. 155, 166, 172). This mirrored the comments by the Congressional Report that "In view of this overwhelming evidence of voting discrimination against language minorities, it is not surprising that the registration and voting statistics of language minorities are significantly below those of the Anglo majority. In 1972, for example, only 44.4 percent of persons of Spanish origin were registered compared to 73.4 percent for Anglos." The 1974 percentages indicated similar disparity of 34.9 percent for Mexican Americans to 63.5 percent registered Anglos. As a result, the Mexican American voting rate was half of the voting rate for Anglos in 1974. (U.S. Congress, 1975, p. 22)

The 1975 Congressional Report by the U.S. House of Representatives was particularly clear in stating not only that Texas has an exceptionally strong record of abuses, but that the long train of abuses has left a legacy of voter alienation among its minority, especially Latino, voters. The report added specifically stated that "In 1973, the Supreme Court upheld a lower court finding which noted that the Mexican American population in Texas has "historically suffered from, and continues to suffer from the results and effect of invidious discrimination and treatment in the fields of education, employment, economics, health, politics and others." The report stated that Texas has "a history pock-marked by a pattern of racial discrimination that has stunted the electoral and economic participation of the black and brown communities in the life of the state." An example of the persistent pressure put on Texas minority voters was the "voter purge" in 1975. At that time, the U.S. Asst. Gen. wrote Texas Secretary of State Mark White to interpose an objection to the Texas voter purge. Federal investigation revealed that the total purge could have a discriminatory effect on their voting rights "on the heels of registration difficulties in the past." The investigation indicated that the purge could confuse a substantial number of minority voters and leave them unable to comply with the statutory registration requirements in the new Texas law. (U.S. Attorney General, 1975) The Congressional Report found that such legal devices and "the practice of conducting registration and voting only in English does impede the political participation

of voters whose usual language is not English.” State and local election districts failure to provide adequate bilingual materials “effectively excludes otherwise qualified voters from participating in elections.”

All of the legal devices and discriminatory principles cited above are exemplified in the case of Crockett County, Texas as documented in a 1980 study by the United States Commission on Civil Rights. Dr. Charles Cotrell, a member of the Texas Advisory Committee, prepared the report in conjunction with members and documentation provided by attorneys and the staff of the U.S. Department of Justice. The case involves a study of electoral practices to disfranchise Mexican American citizens in the town of Ozona, Texas, a typically segregated town with Mexican Americans at a distinct disadvantage in population, income level, education, and political power. The study reveals that the Anglo minority were so accustomed to overt discrimination in employment, social interaction, and elections that their election officials were hardly aware that they were violating basic election laws and procedures. For example, the Anglo election officials either gerrymandered the Mexican-American neighborhoods by diluting them into Anglo districts, or they gerrymandered them into one massive voter district. Anglo non-residents then registered illegally to vote in that exclusively Mexican-American district to defeat the only Mexican-American candidate. The exclusively-Anglo Crockett County officials color coded the ballots to distinguish the Mexican-American ballots. At the end of the election day, the wife of the Anglo candidate went to the Mexican-American district polls to collect the color-coded ballots. She and the Anglo County Clerk then discarded the color-coded Mexican-American ballots. The County Clerk did not hesitate to reveal the system to federal investigators, nor to admit that she systematically challenged only the Mexican American voters who came in to vote legally in their own district. Investigators asked her about the color of the Anglo ballots, saying “What do you mean by ‘the white ones?’” She replied, “Well, the white people.” She then added “American, not the Latins, the Americans.” **APPENDIX 2** (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, Vol. 1 “Participation”: 1980, p. 231)

The inherent legacy of these discriminatory practices is that the entire community of the state lives under the shadow of decades of unescapable social discrimination. The Congressional Report underscored this by adding that the dynamic in racial abuses was “the economic dependence of these minorities upon the Anglo power structure. People whose jobs, credit, or housing depend on someone who wishes to keep them politically powerless are not likely to risk retaliation.” And the report did document a variety of cases of such retaliation. In one case, for example, “a loan officer at the bank went to each Mexican American who had loans with the bank and told them he expected their votes.” (citation). Another report indicated that Mexican Americans in Uvalde, Texas “are afraid their welfare checks will be reduced because of their political activity.” (citation). I concluded the statement of legacy by stating the years of discriminatory

abuses cannot be dismissed simply because “The people in charge are frequently the same ones who so recently excluded minorities from the political process.” (**APPENDIX 4**: U.S. Congress, Voting Rights Act 1975, pp. 18-22)

As a result of the historical discrimination against Mexican Americans in Texas, Latinos in Pasadena, Texas, still bear the effects of this discrimination which hinders their ability to participate effectively in the political process.

Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. 1746, I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and correct to the best of my knowledge.

Executed on October 14, 2015.



Andres Tijerina

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INDEX OF FOOTNOTE TABS

REPORT OF DR. ANDRES TIJERINA

(PASADENA)

TAB #1 Williams, Amelia W. and Eugene C. Barker, eds. *Writings of Sam Houston, 1813-1863*. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1943.

TAB #2 (Houston: Houston International University, 1989.

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TAB #3 Montejano, David. *Anglos and Mexicans in the Making of Texas, 1836-1886*. Austin: University of Texas, 1987.

TAB #4 Crimm, Ana Carolina Castillo. *De León: A Tejano Family History*. Austin: University of Texas Press, 2003.

TAB #5 Kenedy, Texas. *The Kennedy Times* (October 31, 1963), Sect. 1; Rubio, Abel G. *Stolen Heritage: A Mexican-American's Rediscovery of His Family's Lost Land Grant*. Austin: Eakin Press, 1986.

TAB #6 Lack, Paul D. "Slavery and Vigilantism in Austin, Texas, 1840-1860." *Southwestern Historical Quarterly* 85 (July 1981).

TAB #7 Mexico. *Reports of the Committee of Investigation Sent in 1873 by the Mexican Government to the Frontier of Texas*. Translated from the Oficial Edition Made in Mexico. New York: Baker & Godwin, Printers, 1875.

TAB#8 Cheeseman, Bruce S. "Richard King: Pioneering Market Capitalism on the Frontier," in Joe S. Graham, ed. *Proceedings of "Ranching in South Texas: A Symposium."* Kingsville: Texas A&M University, Kingsville, 1994.

TAB #9 Webb, Walter Prescott. *The Texas Rangers: A Century of Frontier Defense*. 2d ed. Austin: University of Texas, 1991.

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[TAB#11] Anders, Evan. *Boss Rule in South Texas: The Progressive Era*. Austin: University of Texas, 1982.

[TAB #12] Rosales, F. Arturo. "Mexicans in Houston: The Struggle to Survive, 1908-1975" *The Houston Review: History and Culture of the Gulf Coast A Journal of the Houston Metropolitan Research Center*, Vol. III, No. 2 (Summer, 1981), pp. 224 – 248.

[TAB #13] *San Antonio Express*, July 12, 1914, p. 4B.

[TAB #14] *Dallas Morning News*, 9 March 1913.

[TAB #15] Texas Senate. *D.W. Glasscock contestant vs. A. Parr contestee*, Supplement to the

[TAB #16] Foley, Neil. *The White Scourge: Mexicans, Blacks, and Poor Whites in Texas Cotton Culture*. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1997.

[TAB #17] Hamilton, William B. "A Social Survey of Austin" *Bulletin of The University of Texas* No. 273 (No. 15, March 15, 1913).

[TAB #18] Pomeroy, C. David, Jr., Pasadena: *The Early Years* (Pasadena, Tex.: Pomerosa Press, 1993); Kreneck, Thomas H., Del Pueblo: *A History of Houston's Hispanic Community*

[TAB #19] *Pasadena Citizen*, Sept. 10, 1984, Sec 1 Pg 1; *Perez vs PISD*, Oral Deposition.

[TAB #20] Pasadena Citizens , MAP, 1991; Pasadena City Charter 1942, Article VIII, Section 4 "Segregation of Races; Texas Penal Code, Art. 288; Texas, General and Special Laws, 1927; Pasadena Chamber of Commerce, "Economic and Demographic Profile," n.p."

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[TAB#22] Kavulla Petition; *Houston Chronicle* April 18, 1992 "School Board Reform"

[TAB#23] Greene, Casey Edward, "Apostles of Hate: The Ku Klux Klan in and Near Houston, Texas, 1920-1982" MA Thesis, University of Houston, 1995, pp. 30, 41; *Pasadena Citizen*, Oct. 22, 1986 "FBI Investigates;" Nov. 26, 1994 "Inmate Hangs Himself;" May 17, 1980 "Minorities Missing;" April, 1980 "Klansmen, police 'stood up'"

APPENDIX 1 U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. “Mexican American Education Study”
Report 1: Ethnic Isolation of Mexican Americans in the Public Schools of the Southwest,
1971.

APPENDIX 2 U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Vol. 1: *A Report on the Participation of
Mexican-Americans, Blacks, and Females in the Political Institutions and Processes in Texas*.
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APPENDIX 3 *U.S. v. Pasadena Independent School District*, 1987

APPENDIX 4 U.S. Congress, 94th Cong., 1st sess. House of Representatives. Report
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SUPPLEMENT to the October 14, 2015, REPORT of Dr. Andrés Tijerina
Patiño v. City of Pasadena, Case No. 4:14-cv-03241, United States District Court
for the Southern District of Texas, Houston Division
November 15, 2015

Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. sec. 1746, I declare the following:

The following report is a supplement to the October 14, 2015, Report that I, Dr. Andrés Tijerina, submitted at the request of the plaintiffs in the above-cited litigation against the City of Pasadena, Texas. The subjects in this supplementary report are submitted in reference to the initial report section on “Latino Experience in Pasadena, Texas.” Plaintiffs’ counsel are compensating me at the same rate that they did for work on the initial report.

The initial report posits that the “Legacy of Disfranchisement” is that the entire community of the state lives under the shadow of decades of unescapable social discrimination. In general, this supplementary report is intended to provide more recent and specific examples of the legacy of discriminatory practices in major aspects of life for Latinos in Pasadena.

Additional information from current citizens of Pasadena tends to corroborate the historical information submitted in the original report. The original report stated, for example, that the union-member workers of Pasadena, Texas were “quite militant and radical” as they promoted conformity to an Anglo-American Protestant culture. In a personal interview, Linda Contreras Bullock stated that she once personally saw a racist sign in Pasadena. Now serving as the Assistant Dean for Student Diversity at the University of Houston, Clear Lake, Bullock said she moved to Houston near Pasadena in 1969. “Pasadena was pretty much a very white Caucasian discriminating town. I remember someone telling me that there was a sign saying ‘No Mexicans or N....’” She said in the early 1970s, she personally saw “a handwritten sign on Richey Street that said ‘No Blacks’ but it was not there long. It was a paper sign on a stick by

SUPPLEMENT to the October 14, 2015, REPORT of Dr. Andrés Tijerina

the side of the road. It disappeared. A lot of people were talking about it.” (Interview, Linda Contreras Bullock to Andrés Tijerina, 16 November 2015)

A current resident of Pasadena adds that "There was definitely a lot of feeling in the 1950s against the black folks. Yeah, there still is people that harbor those feelings. They use the word “Mexicans” not Hispanics. It’s not a respectful thing. Hispanics have a distrust toward white people. It’s that kind of a world around here.” (Interview, Larry W. Peacock of 4207 Shanna Lane, Pasadena, Texas to Andrés Tijerina, 16 November 2015). As cited in the original report, Anglo Texans and European immigrants had always considered Mexicans to be a “mongrel race, inferior even to negroes.” They continued to look upon all Mexicans “with ridicule and scorn.” In a personal interview, long-time resident of Pasadena, Larry W. Peacock said he grew up in Pasadena, and still lives in Pasadena. He said, “My parents were very bigoted. The people of Pasadena weren’t always nice to other races.” Peacock stated that he went into a Pasadena grocery store where they had two signs over the water fountains. One said “White Only” and the other said “Colored.” He added, “This town had the headquarters of the KKK out on Red Bluff.”

The racial discrimination in neighborhoods such as the examples above were attributed in the original report to ethnic segregation accomplished in many other Texas cities through restrictive covenants and deed restrictions. The initial report cited restrictive covenants in Austin, Corpus Christi, and other cities. These practices were also found in Harris County where in 1969 a Harris County District Court cited the following language of a restrictive covenant while ruling on an unrelated provision regarding buildings for business purposes: “No lot or tract of land in said addition shall be sold, conveyed, leased or demised to any person or persons other than of the Caucasian race.” *Harrington v. Young Men's Christian Ass'n of Houston & Harris*

SUPPLEMENT to the October 14, 2015, REPORT of Dr. Andrés Tijerina

Cty., 440 S.W.2d 354, 356 (Tex. Civ. App. 1969) *rev'd on other grounds*, 452 S.W.2d 423 (Tex. 1970). Another example of the restrictive covenants in Harris County in the same time period was seen in the Court of Civil Appeals in Galveston, where the Court cited the following deed restriction, among others, when it ruled on a dispute over a fence: “No persons of any race other than the Caucasian race shall use or occupy any building or lot, except that covenant shall not prevent occupancy by domestic servants of a different race domiciled with an owner or tenant.” *Alexander Schroeder Lumber Co. v. Corona*, 288 S.W.2d 829, 831 (Tex. Civ. App. 1956). The cited opinion indicates that the property in question was in the Simms Woods Addition area of Houston, less than 7 miles from Pasadena. As stated above, restrictive covenants were used to segregate neighborhoods and sectors of town. In his interview, Larry Peacock added, “We [Anglos] live in a more affluent part of this city. Hispanics live in a poorer part of the city. Because of the neighborhood change, some white folks move away, yes. They’re moving, selling out their 40, 50, 60 year-old homes. The racial thing, some of it, the white people were fierce.”

As a one-time candidate for local office, Peacock said that he also witnessed the slating process in which a powerful interest group dictated the slate of candidates for local office, giving them inordinate campaign funding, media coverage, and influential endorsements. Peacock cited specific examples of slating that he said resulted from years of control by a local political group known as the Citizens for Greater Pasadena, headed by Mayor [Johnny] Isbell. (Interview, Larry W. Peacock of 4207 Shanna Lane, Pasadena, Texas to Andrés Tijerina, 16 November 2015).

The initial report on Pasadena also made historical reference to election and voter intimidation in Texas. It cited federal reports that some Anglo-American officials were found to be so accustomed to overt discrimination in elections that they were hardly aware that they were

SUPPLEMENT to the October 14, 2015, REPORT of Dr. Andrés Tijerina

violating basic election laws and procedures. The report cited the egregious case in Crockett County, where the wife of Anglo candidate casually discarded the Mexican-American ballots.

Local examples of voter intimidation in Pasadena, Texas were cited in an interview by a Latino candidate in the 1992 city council elections. In a recent live interview, Pasadena citizen Celestino Perez stated that when he was investigating some problems with his campaign yard signs, he said his own teenage son was harassed by Pasadena police. As Perez later reported to the City Council, his son was stopped while driving home after a day of placing Perez's campaign yard signs on front yards. He said the police officer pulled the car over, got him out of the car which had campaign paraphernalia and yard signs in the back seat. Perez stated that the officer "put him spread eagle on the ground, and put a gun to his head." The son was released with no charges, but he came home traumatized by the incident. On election day, Celestino Perez went to investigate the low voter turnout at an election booth at Bailey Elementary School in the Strawberry Park neighborhood of Pasadena. He was told by Latino voters that "a little old white lady" was challenging them, asking, "Are your credentials in order?" and not allowing them vote. He added that two other families accompanied him to the City Council to report their complaints of police harassment. He stated that highly publicized incidents of conflicts between police and Latino citizens had created an atmosphere of tension and fear in the minority community. (Interview, Celestino Perez to Andrés Tijerina, 9 September 2015 at 502 Bertloma, Pasadena, Texas, 39:25 and 45:15)

Another example of police intimidation and harassment was cited in the initial report in which the Pasadena Police Sgt. J.C. Lyde acknowledged that the Police Department was unable to recruit a more equitable number of Latino and minority police. Sgt. Lyde stated that his Anglo police were not accustomed to Latinos on the police force, and that "often minority

SUPPLEMENT to the October 14, 2015, REPORT of Dr. Andrés Tijerina

members find themselves ostracized if they decide to become policemen.” The report also states that this lack of minority representation was accepted as a characteristic of the status quo in Pasadena. *Pasadena Citizen*, May 17, 1980 “Minorities Missing;” The disparity in minority police representation has been shown to be characteristic and problematic in major cities across the country, but one major study identified Pasadena, Texas, as a specific example of more egregious statistical discrepancies in minority police representation.

In a recent article in the *New York Times*, Ronald Weitzer, a sociologist at George Washington University, and other experts say that a city’s police department loses credibility if it is not in “sync with the racial composition of the local population.” Citing a 2007 survey by the Bureau of Justice Statistics, the article cited the disparity in the South Houston and Pasadena police departments with a large percentage-point difference of white officers to white residents. South Houston, for example, has a population of 16,983 with 88% Hispanic and 10% white, but the police department of 32 police officers is 62% more white than the population. Pasadena reported a population of 149,043 with 62% Hispanic and 33% white, but the Police Department of 252 police officers is 52% more white than the population. (Jeremy Ashkenas and Haeyoun Park, “The Race Gap in America’s Police Departments” *The New York Times* (April 8, 2015) nytimes.com/interactive/2014/09/03/us/the-race-gap-in-americas-police-departments.html, Accessed Nov. 15, 2015).

These trends indicate that the history of discriminatory treatment of Latinos in Pasadena, Texas has created a legacy of neighborhood segregation and voter intimidation which continues to deny them full access to participation in democracy today.

Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. 1746, I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and correct to the best of my knowledge.

Executed on November 16, 2015

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Andres Tijerina', written over a horizontal line.

Andres Tijerina

Additional Statement
to the SUPPLEMENT to the October 14, 2015 REPORT
of Dr. Andrés Tijerina
Patiño v. City of Pasadena, Case No. 4:14-cv-03241, United States District Court for the
Southern District of Texas, Houston Division
November 17, 2015

Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. sec. 1746, I declare the following:

The Supplement to the Initial Report cites restrictive covenants in Harris County, prohibiting “any person other than that of the Caucasian race” from owning the homes. These examples are supplemented by additional examples specifically in the City of Pasadena as well.

The deed for the Pasadena Gardens subdivision recorded in the Harris County Clerk’s Office on March 8, 1944 indicates that the Pasadena Gardens Development Corporation and mortgagees—Houston Deepwater Land Company and James T. Taylor—registered the plats with “Protective Covenants.” The document describes the land as a “private subdivision to be known as Pasadena Gardens, an addition to the City of Pasadena.” The covenants provide for the subdivision of the land for private residences, and they contain the following provision: “No persons of any race other than the Caucasian race shall use or occupy any building or any lot of this subdivision, except that this covenant shall not prevent occupancy by domestic servants of a different race domiciled with an owner or tenant.” (Protective Covenants Document for Pasadena Gardens, Harris County, Clerk County Court, Deed Records, March 8, 1944, Attachment 1). Also recorded with the Harris County Clerk is another deed for the “Deepwater Addition” registered on December 1, 1976, reciting a similar restriction with regard to that development. This second document also states that, “No person of any race other than the Caucasian race shall use or occupy any building or lot, except that this covenant shall not prevent occupancy by domestic servants of a different race domiciled with any owner or tenant.” (Deed Restrictions Document for Deepwater Addition, Harris County, County Clerk, Deed Records, Dec. 1 1976, Attachment 2).

Pursuant to 28 U.S.C. 1746, I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing is true and correct to the best of my knowledge.

Executed on November 17, 2015

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Andres Tijerina", is written over a horizontal line.

Andres Tijerina

ATTACHMENT

1

March 3, 1969

C93-51- 912113

No. 172210

Pasadena Gardens Development Corporation, et al

To

Restrictions

State of Texas, County of Harris

Know all men by these presents:

That Pasadena Gardens Development Corporation, a Texas corporation, as Owner, joined herein by Houston Deepwater Land Company, a Texas corporation, and James T. Taylor, of Tarrant County, Texas, as Mortgagees of the hereinafter described land, do hereby adopt the following Protective Covenants; affecting the use and subdivision of, the cost, character, and location of improvements to be located upon a portion of a tract of 215.454 acres of land out of the Wm. Vince and Jas. Seymour surveys, fully described by metes and bounds in the deed from Houston Deepwater Land Company to James T. Taylor of record in volume 1303, at page 245, of the deed records of Harris County, Texas.

✓ The portion of land

above referred to is being subdivided into a private residential subdivision to be known as Pasadena Gardens, an addition to the City of Pasadena, in Harris County, Texas, as shown by the attached plat of said subdivision, filed for record simultaneously herewith, and whereon the subdivided portion is particularly described by metes and bounds. Only the subdivided portion of said 215.454 acre tract shall be subject to these covenants. These covenants are to run with the land and shall be binding on all parties and all persons claiming under them, until January 1, 1969, at which time said covenants shall be automatically extended for successive periods of ten years, unless by vote of a majority of the then owners of the lots in said addition it is agreed to change said covenants in whole or in part.

If the parties hereto, or any of them, or their heirs or assigns, shall violate or attempt to violate any of these covenants it shall be lawful for any other person or persons owning any real property situated in said subdivision to prosecute any proceedings at law or in equity against the person or persons violating or attempting to violate any such covenant, either to prevent him or them from so doing, or to recover damages or other dues for such violation. Invalidation of any one of these covenants by judgment or court order shall in no wise affect any of the other provisions, which shall remain in full force and effect.

We adopt the attached plat as showing the final plan of Blocks numbered 1 to 28, both inclusive, and of Block 22 of said Pasadena Gardens, which twenty nine blocks shall hereafter be known as Pasadena Gardens, and all streets, parks, public utility easements and walkways through blocks, are hereby dedicated as such to the respective uses indicated.

1. All

Residential lots, commercial areas and parks within this addition shall be subject to the pipe line rights of way and public utility easements for installation, maintenance and removal as shown on said plat, and in addition thereto an unobstructed aerial easement five (5) feet wide on both sides of all designated electric utility easements upward from a plane thirty (30) feet above the ground.

No improvements, building or

other structure of a permanent nature shall be built, erected or maintained between, upon or within three (3) feet laterally of the Crown Central and Standish pipe line rights of way shown on said plat.

2. All of the lots of said blocks in said addition shall

be owned, described and used only as residential lots and for residential and domestic purposes, except those areas designated as "Commercial A" in Block 1, "Commercial B" in Block 16, and "Real Estate" in Block 11, which areas shall not be subject to the herein restrictions and covenants unless herein specifically made applicable thereto.

The area

designated as "Lift Station", adjoining Block 7, belongs to the City of Pasadena and forms no part of this subdivision.

3. No dwelling or other structure

shall be erected, placed, or altered on any residential lot in this subdivision until the building plans, specifications, and plot plan showing the location of such structure have been

SEE LAST PAGE

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1 approved in writing as to conformity and harmony of external design with existing structures
2 in the subdivision, and as to location of the structure with respect to topography and finished
3 ground elevation, by a committee composed of James T. Taylor, Dan Garrett, and Geo. Pennington,
4 or by a representative designated by a majority of the members of said Committee.
5 In the event of death or resignation of any member of said committee, the remaining member, or
6 members, shall have full authority to approve or disapprove such design and location, or to
7 designate a representative with like authority. In the event said
8 committee, or its designated representative, fails to approve or disapprove such design and
9 location within thirty days after said plans and specifications have been submitted to it or,
10 in any event if no suit to enjoin the erection of such structure or the making of such
11 alterations has been commenced prior to the completion thereof, such approval will not be
12 required and this covenant will be deemed to have been fully complied with. X Neither the
13 members of such committee, nor its designated representative shall be entitled to any compensa-
14 tion for services performed pursuant to this covenant. The powers and
15 duties of such committee, and of its designated representative shall cease on and after five
16 years from date. Thereafter the approval described in this Covenant shall not be required
17 unless, prior to said date and effective thereon, a written instrument shall be executed by
18 the then record owners of a majority of the lots in this subdivision and duly recorded appoint-
19 ing a representative or representatives, who shall thereafter exercise the same powers
20 previously exercised by said committee.

4. Any commercial structure
21 located upon the above commercial areas shall be first approved as to design, materials and
22 location by the above committee, and shall be of concrete, stucco, masonry or masonry veneer.
23 construction. Neither of said areas designated Commercial A, Commercial B. or Real Estate
24 or any part thereof, or improvements thereon, shall be used as an assignation house, gambling
25 house, night club, dance hall, liquor package store or for the sale of alcoholic drinks.
26 Nor shall any business, trade or activity be conducted or carried on upon any lot, residential
27 or commercial, which constitutes a nuisance.

5. No structure shall
28 be located on any residential lot nearer than 25 feet to the front lot line, nor nearer than 10
29 feet to any side street line; except as may be approved by the above named committee. No
30 structure shall be located nearer than 5 feet to any side lot line except garages or outbuildings
31 located not closer than 15' 0" to rear line of the dwelling. Garages are to be placed a
32 minimum of 15' 0" from rear building line of dwelling, except in those instances where the
33 property line or easement does not permit. In such cases the rear of the garage or a rear
34 corner thereof shall be at the easement line or 3 feet from the rear of the lot line, whichever
35 is nearer the lot front.

6. No structure shall be erected, altered,
36 placed or permitted to remain on any residential building lot other than one detached single
37 family dwelling and a private garage for not more than two cars.

7. No residential
38 structure shall be erected or placed on any building lot, which plot has an area of less
39 than 6,000 square feet or a width of less than 50 feet at the front building setback line.

8. No trailer, basement, tent, shack, garage, barn, or similar outbuilding shall at any
40 time be used as a residence temporarily or permanently, nor shall any other structure of a
41 temporary character be used as a residence.

9. No dwelling structure
42 costing less than \$2500.00 shall be permitted on any lot in the addition. The ground floor
43 area of the main structure, exclusive of one story open porches and garages, shall be not less
44 than 750 square feet in the case of one story structures. A two story residence may be
45 erected on any lot in the tract providing the first floor of same contains an area of not
46 less than 600 square feet.

10. No garage shall be constructed after completion of the
47 main dwelling unless the material and design is in harmony with the main dwelling and approved
48 by the committee. Garages when attached to the main dwelling shall not be forward of the

PL 203

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dwelling. 11. Where lots adjoin Broadway or Red Bluff Road, garage structures erected thereon shall be located in such a way that access shall be from the front or side of the lot.

12. No persons of any race other than the Caucasian race shall use or occupy any building or any lot of this subdivision, except that this covenant shall not prevent occupancy by domestic servants of a different race domiciled with an owner or tenant. Houston Deepwater Land Company and James T. Taylor, first and second Mortgagees respectively, join herein for the sole and only purpose of giving their consent to the subdivision of said property and the placing of these restrictive covenants on the subdivided portion thereof, but otherwise their liens and rights in the property, and as between the parties hereto, shall remain unaffected, unchanged and unimpaired.

Executed at Houston, Texas, this 7th day of March, A. D. 1944.
Pasadena Gardens Development Corporation, By J. O. Taylor, President

Attest: Dan E. Garrett, Secretary (Seal)

Houston Deepwater Land Company, By W. W. Moore, Vice President

Attest: M. E. Parthing, Secretary (Seal) James T. Taylor

State of Texas, County of Harris Before me, the undersigned authority, on this day personally appeared J. O. Taylor, President of Pasadena Gardens Development Corporation, known to me to be the person whose name is subscribed to the foregoing instrument, and acknowledged to me that he executed the same for the purposes and consideration therein expressed, in the capacity therein stated and as the act and deed of said corporation. Given under my hand and seal of office, this 7th day of March, A. D. 1944.

Lucile Atchison, Notary Public, in and for Harris County, Texas (Seal)
State of Texas, County of Harris Before me, the undersigned authority,

on this day personally appeared W. W. Moore, Vice President of Houston Deepwater Land Company, known to me to be the person whose name is subscribed to the foregoing instrument, and acknowledged to me that he executed the same for the purposes and consideration therein expressed, in the capacity therein stated, and as the act and deed of said corporation. Given under my hand and seal of office, this 7th day of March, A. D. 1944.

May Beth Barnes, Notary Public, in and for Harris County, Texas (Seal)
State of Texas, County of Harris Before me, the undersigned authority,

on this day personally appeared James T. Taylor, known to me to be the person whose name is subscribed to the foregoing instrument, and acknowledged to me that he executed the same for the purposes and consideration therein expressed. Given under my hand and seal of office, this 7th day of March, A. D. 1944.

Lucile Atchison, Notary Public, in and for Harris County, Texas (Seal)
Filed for Record March 7, 1944, at 11.00 o'clock A.M. Recorded March 8, 1944, at 3.00 o'clock P.M.

W. D. MILLER, Clerk County Court, Harris County, Texas By Emma Bonilla Deputy

ATTACHMENT

2

133-54-0497

492

610310

THE STATE OF TEXAS |
COUNTY OF HARRIS |

WHEREAS, The Deepwater Company, Inc., a Texas corporation, duly organized and operating under the laws of the State of Texas, being owner of the lots hereinafter specifically mentioned in Deepwater Addition, a subdivision of 75.453 acres out of the Thomas Earle Survey in Harris County, Texas, according to map thereof duly recorded in Volume 10, page 73 of the Harris County Map Records, to which reference is hereby made, by a resolution unanimously passed and adopted at a meeting of the Board of Directors of the said The Deepwater Company, Inc., on the 8th day of FEBRUARY, 1949, at the office of the corporation, resolved as follows:

"BE IT RESOLVED: That the following restrictions shall apply to all of the lots in Deepwater Addition, a subdivision of 75.453 acres out of the Thomas Earle Survey in Harris County, Texas, according to map thereof recorded in Volume 10, page 73 of the Harris County Map Records, to which reference is hereby made for all purposes, except the following lots: Lots Nos. 1 through 32, both inclusive; Lots Nos. 37 through 60, both inclusive; Lots Nos. 111, 437, 438, 439, 467, 468, 469, 470, 471 and 472, it being specifically provided that the restrictions hereinafter recited shall not in any manner apply to or affect the lots herein excepted. As to the lots first above mentioned, being all of the lots in said addition except those specifically excepted, it is desired that a uniform plan of restrictions be adopted and placed of record, and therefore the following restrictions shall henceforth apply to such lots in said addition, to-wit:

(1) All lots in the sub-division except those excepted above shall be known and described as residential lots. No structures shall be erected, altered, placed, or permitted to remain on any residential building plot other than one detached single-family dwelling not to exceed two stories in height and a private attached or detached garage for not more than two cars.

(2) No building shall be located nearer to the front lot line than 20 feet nor nearer to any side street line than 10 feet, nor nearer to any side property line than 5 feet. No building except a detached garage or other out-building located 65 feet or more from the front lot line shall be located nearer than 5 feet to any side lot line.

(3) The residences erected on Lots 61 and 62, 113 and 114, 163 through 166, 215 through 218, 267 through 270, 319 through 322, 371 through 374, 423 through 426, shall face North and South to the cross-streets.

W. W. L.

CERTIFIED COPY CERTIFICATE
STATE OF TEXAS
COUNTY OF HARRIS

The foregoing is a true and correct photographic copy of the original record, now in my lawful custody and possession, filed on the date stamped thereon and recorded in the Record, Volume and Page as stamped thereon, I hereby certify on

DEC 1 1976



R. E. TURRENTINE, JR.,
COUNTY CLERK
HARRIS COUNTY, TEXAS

By: *Matthew Smith*
Deputy

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133-54-0444

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(4) No residence shall be erected, placed or altered on any of said building lots until the building plans, specifications and plot plans showing the location of such building have been approved in writing as to conformity and harmony of external design with existing structures in the subdivision and as to location of the building with respect to topography and finished ground elevation by a committee composed of Maurice Krull, Daniel Schlanger, and Edna F. Krull, or by a representative designated by a majority of the members of said committee. In the event of the death or resignation of any member of said committee, the remaining members or member shall have full authority to approve or disapprove such design and location or to designate a representative with like authority. In the event said committee or its designated representative fails to approve or disapprove such design and location within 30 days after said plans and specifications have been submitted to it or, in any event, if no suit to enjoin the erection of such building or the making of such alterations has been commenced prior to the completion thereof, such approval will not be required and this covenant will be deemed to have been fully complied with. Neither the members of such committee, nor its designated representative or representatives shall be entitled to any compensation for services performed pursuant to this covenant. The powers and duties of such committee and of its designated representatives shall cease on and after 5 years from the date of this instrument. Thereafter the approval described in this covenant shall not be required unless prior to said date and effective thereon, a written instrument shall be executed by the then record owners of a majority of the lots in this subdivision and duly recorded appointing a representative or representatives who shall thereafter exercise the same powers previously exercised by said committee.

(5) No residential structure shall be erected or placed on any building plot, which plot has an area of less than 5000 square feet or width of less than 50 feet at the front building set-back line, as shown on the record plat.

(6) No noxious or offensive trade or activity shall be carried on upon any lot or shall anything be done thereon which may be or become an annoyance to the neighborhood.

(7) No person of any race other than the Caucasian race shall use or occupy any building or lot, except that this covenant shall not prevent occupancy by domestic servants of a different race domiciled with an owner or tenant.

(8) No trailer, basement, tent, shack, garage, barn, or other out-building erected on the tract shall at any time be used as a residence, temporarily or permanently, nor shall any structure of a temporary character be used as a residence.

CERTIFIED COPY CERTIFICATE
STATE OF TEXAS
COUNTY OF HARRIS

The foregoing is a true and correct photographic copy of the original record, now in my lawful custody and possession, filed on the date stamped thereon and recorded in the Record, Volume and Page as stamped thereon. I hereby certify on

DEC 1 1976

R. E. TURRENTINE, JR.,
COUNTY CLERK
HARRIS COUNTY, TEXAS

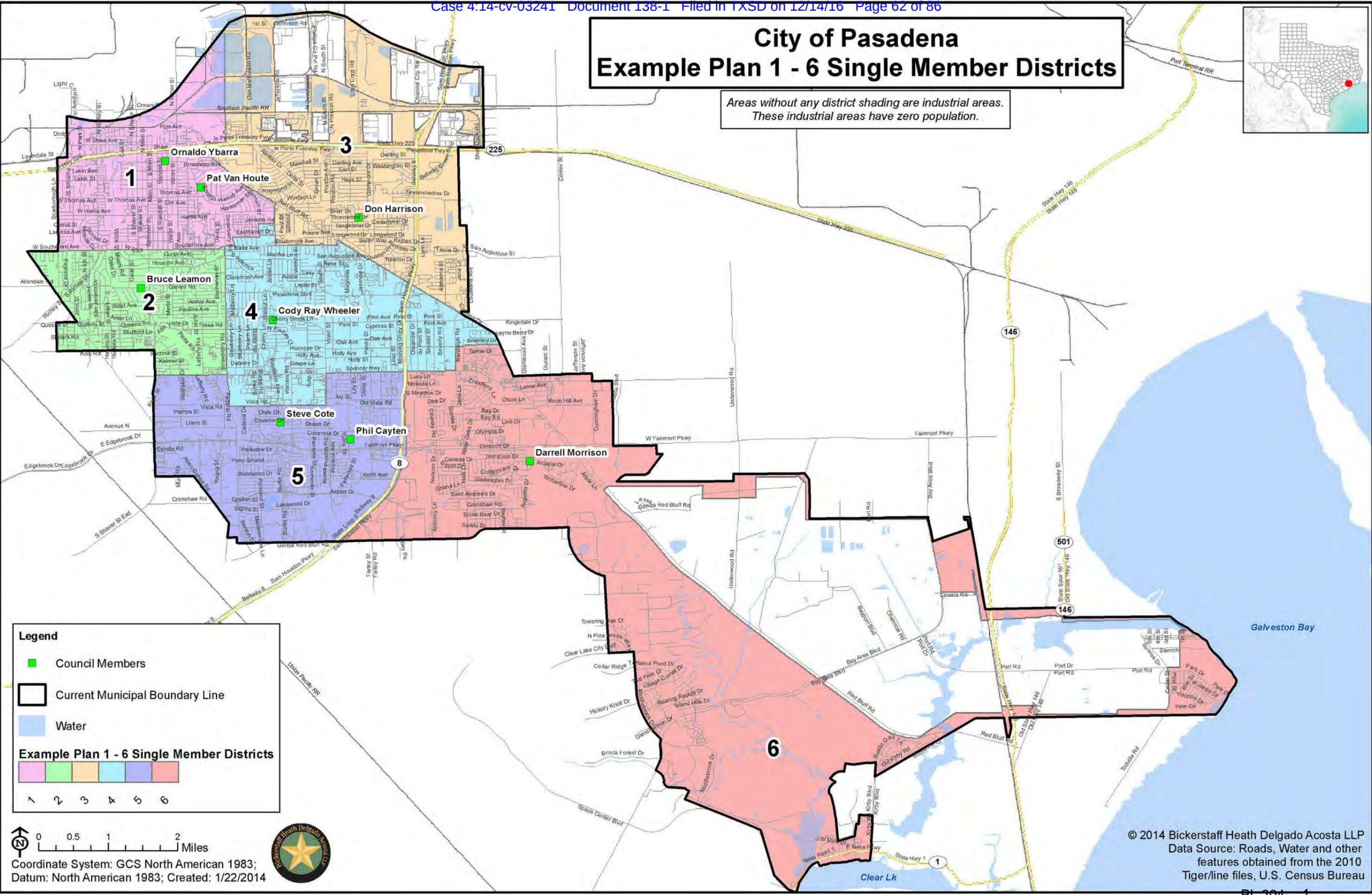


By: *[Signature]*
Deputy

seed
1892 493

City of Pasadena Example Plan 1 - 6 Single Member Districts

Areas without any district shading are industrial areas.
These industrial areas have zero population.



Legend

- Council Members
- Current Municipal Boundary Line
- Water

Example Plan 1 - 6 Single Member Districts

1 2 3 4 5 6

0 0.5 1 2 Miles

Coordinate System: GCS North American 1983;
Datum: North American 1983; Created: 1/22/2014



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Data Source: Roads, Water and other features obtained from the 2010 Tiger/line files, U.S. Census Bureau

City of Pasadena

Example Plan 1

Summary 2010 Census Total and Voting Age Population

District	Persons	Deviation	Hispanic % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Anglo % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Black % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Asian % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Other % of Total Population
1	25,541	2.62%	86.18%	11.36%	1.45%	0.46%	0.54%
2	23,813	-4.32%	77.76%	19.67%	1.38%	0.37%	0.83%
3	24,719	-0.68%	70.63%	26.52%	1.62%	0.41%	0.82%
4	25,560	2.70%	64.52%	31.78%	2.15%	0.53%	1.02%
5	24,242	-2.60%	49.40%	42.86%	2.99%	3.57%	1.18%
6	25,460	2.29%	24.58%	63.81%	2.38%	7.23%	1.98%
Totals	149,335		62.08%	32.75%	2.00%	2.11%	1.06%

Ideal Size = $149,335 / 6 = 24,889$ per district.

Total Maximum Deviation = $2.7\% - (-4.32\%) = 7.02\%$

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

District	Total VAP*	Hispanic % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Anglo % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Black % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Asian % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Other % of Total VAP
1	16,586	82.56%	14.86%	1.46%	0.58%	0.54%
2	15,872	72.09%	25.08%	1.52%	0.45%	0.86%
3	16,599	65.21%	31.94%	1.57%	0.50%	0.80%
4	17,779	56.81%	39.60%	1.95%	0.65%	0.99%
5	17,804	43.09%	49.33%	2.83%	3.73%	1.00%
6	18,860	21.20%	67.67%	2.10%	7.41%	1.61%
Totals	103,500	55.78%	38.97%	1.92%	2.35%	0.98%

*Voting Age Population

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

1/28/2014

PL 204- 2

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City of Pasadena

Example Plan 1

Detailed 2010 Census Total and Voting Age Population

District	Persons	Ideal Size	Deviation	Hispanic	% of Total Hispanic Population	Anglo	% of Total Anglo Population	Black	% of Total Black Population	American Indian	% of Total American Indian Population	Asian	% of Total Asian Population	Hawaiian-Pacific Islander	% of Total Hawaiian-Pacific Islander Population	Other	% of Total Other Population	Two or More	% of Total Two or More Population
1	25,541	24,889	2.62%	22,012	86.18%	2,901	11.36%	371	1.45%	23	0.09%	118	0.46%	12	0.05%	22	0.09%	82	0.32%
2	23,813	24,889	-4.32%	18,517	77.76%	4,683	19.67%	329	1.38%	47	0.20%	87	0.37%	7	0.03%	16	0.07%	127	0.53%
3	24,719	24,889	-0.68%	17,459	70.63%	6,555	26.52%	400	1.62%	48	0.19%	102	0.41%	8	0.03%	21	0.08%	125	0.51%
4	25,560	24,889	2.70%	16,491	64.52%	8,124	31.78%	550	2.15%	63	0.25%	135	0.53%	3	0.01%	21	0.08%	173	0.68%
5	24,242	24,889	-2.60%	11,975	49.40%	10,391	42.86%	724	2.99%	57	0.24%	866	3.57%	9	0.04%	36	0.15%	183	0.75%
6	25,460	24,889	2.29%	6,258	24.58%	16,247	63.81%	607	2.38%	74	0.29%	1,840	7.23%	29	0.11%	54	0.21%	348	1.37%
Totals	149,335			92,712	62.08%	48,901	32.75%	2,981	2.00%	312	0.21%	3,148	2.11%	68	0.05%	170	0.11%	1,038	0.70%

Ideal Size = 149,335 / 6 = 24,889 per district.

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

District	Total VAP*	Hispanic VAP	% of Total Hispanic VAP	Anglo VAP	% of Total Anglo VAP	Black VAP	% of Total Black VAP	American Indian VAP	% of Total American Indian VAP	Asian VAP	% of Total Asian VAP	Hawaiian-Pacific Islander VAP	% of Total Hawaiian-Pacific Islander VAP	Other VAP	% of Total Other VAP	Two or More VAP	% of Total Two or More VAP
1	16,586	13,693	82.56%	2,464	14.86%	242	1.46%	22	0.13%	97	0.58%	6	0.04%	12	0.07%	50	0.30%
2	15,872	11,442	72.09%	3,981	25.08%	241	1.52%	39	0.25%	72	0.45%	7	0.04%	13	0.08%	78	0.49%
3	16,599	10,825	65.21%	5,301	31.94%	260	1.57%	39	0.23%	83	0.50%	7	0.04%	13	0.08%	73	0.44%
4	17,779	10,101	56.81%	7,040	39.60%	347	1.95%	49	0.28%	115	0.65%	3	0.02%	14	0.08%	110	0.62%
5	17,804	7,672	43.09%	8,783	49.33%	504	2.83%	41	0.23%	664	3.73%	8	0.04%	25	0.14%	104	0.58%
6	18,860	3,998	21.20%	12,762	67.67%	396	2.10%	59	0.31%	1,397	7.41%	14	0.07%	25	0.13%	206	1.09%
Totals	103,500	57,731	55.78%	40,331	38.97%	1,990	1.92%	249	0.24%	2,428	2.35%	45	0.04%	102	0.10%	621	0.60%

*Voting Age Population

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

City of Pasadena
 Example Plan 1 - 6 Single Member District
 2010 Voting Age Population and 2011 Registered Voters- Spanish Surname Registered Voters

District	Total VAP	All Registered Voters	SSRV	Percent SSRV
1	16,586	6,669	4,088	61.30%
2	15,872	7,060	3,439	48.71%
3	16,599	9,005	4,287	47.61%
4	17,779	9,279	3,190	34.38%
5	17,804	9,805	2,629	26.81%
6	18,860	15,361	2,134	13.89%
Totals:	103,500	57,177	19,767	34.57%

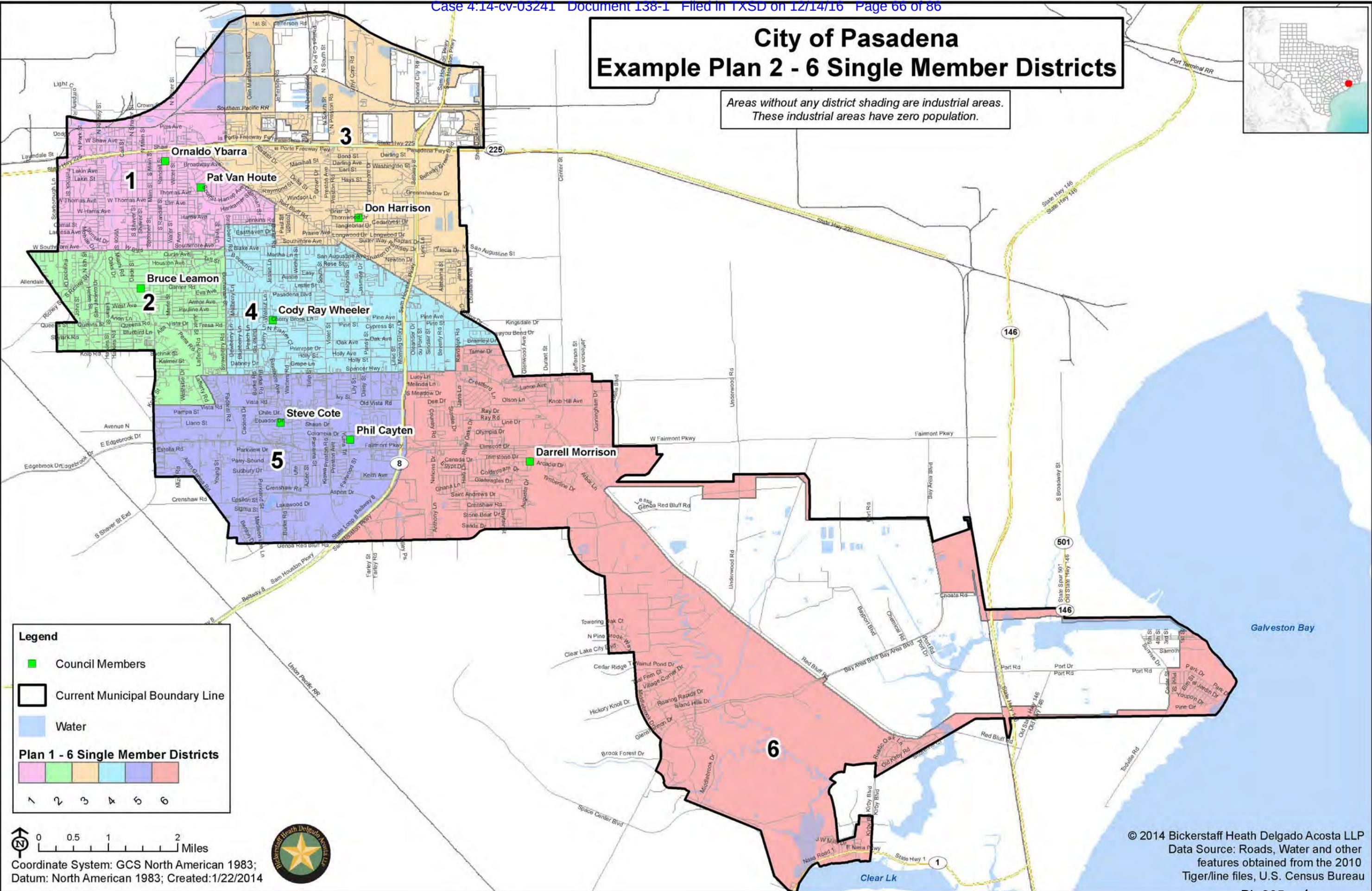
1/28/2014

PL 204- 4

PASADENA010132

City of Pasadena Example Plan 2 - 6 Single Member Districts

Areas without any district shading are industrial areas.
These industrial areas have zero population.



Legend

- Council Members
- Current Municipal Boundary Line
- Water

Plan 1 - 6 Single Member Districts

0 0.5 1 2 Miles

Coordinate System: GCS North American 1983;
Datum: North American 1983; Created:1/22/2014



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Data Source: Roads, Water and other features obtained from the 2010 Tiger/line files, U.S. Census Bureau

City of Pasadena

Example Plan 2 - 6 Single Member Districts

Summary 2010 Census Total and Voting Age Population

District	Persons	Deviation	Hispanic % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Anglo % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Black % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Asian % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Other % of Total Population
1	24,607	-1.13%	86.41%	11.16%	1.43%	0.46%	0.54%
2	24,997	0.43%	77.99%	19.09%	1.71%	0.38%	0.82%
3	24,719	-0.68%	70.63%	26.52%	1.62%	0.41%	0.82%
4	24,800	-0.36%	66.55%	29.99%	2.10%	0.41%	0.95%
5	24,752	-0.55%	47.40%	45.02%	2.72%	3.62%	1.23%
6	25,460	2.29%	24.58%	63.81%	2.38%	7.23%	1.98%
Totals	149,335		62.08%	32.75%	2.00%	2.11%	1.06%

Ideal Size = $149,335 / 6 = 24,889$ per district.

Total Maximum Deviation = $2.29\% - (-1.13\%) = 3.43\%$

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

District	Total VAP*	Hispanic % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Anglo % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Black % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Asian % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Other % of Total VAP
1	15,962	82.85%	14.62%	1.42%	0.58%	0.55%
2	16,551	72.46%	24.44%	1.78%	0.48%	0.85%
3	16,599	65.21%	31.94%	1.57%	0.50%	0.80%
4	17,068	59.08%	37.58%	1.91%	0.52%	0.91%
5	18,460	41.21%	51.33%	2.64%	3.72%	1.08%
6	18,860	21.20%	67.67%	2.10%	7.41%	1.61%
Totals	103,500	55.78%	38.97%	1.92%	2.35%	0.98%

*Voting Age Population

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

1/27/2014

PL 205- 2

PASADENA010134

City of Pasadena
Example Plan 2 - 6 Single Member Districts
 Detailed 2010 Census Total and Voting Age Population

District	Persons	Ideal Size	Deviation	Hispanic	% of Total Hispanic Population	Anglo	% of Total Anglo Population	Black	% of Total Black Population	American Indian	% of Total American Indian Population	Asian	% of Total Asian Population	Hawaiian-Pacific Islander	% of Total Hawaiian-Pacific Islander Population	Other	% of Total Other Population	Two or More	% of Total Two or More Population
1	24,607	24,889	-1.13%	21,263	86.41%	2,745	11.16%	352	1.43%	23	0.09%	113	0.46%	12	0.05%	21	0.09%	78	0.32%
2	24,997	24,889	0.43%	19,496	77.99%	4,773	19.09%	427	1.71%	48	0.19%	95	0.38%	7	0.03%	16	0.06%	135	0.54%
3	24,719	24,889	-0.68%	17,459	70.63%	6,555	26.52%	400	1.62%	48	0.19%	102	0.41%	8	0.03%	21	0.08%	125	0.51%
4	24,800	24,889	-0.36%	16,504	66.55%	7,438	29.99%	521	2.10%	60	0.24%	101	0.41%	3	0.01%	20	0.08%	153	0.62%
5	24,752	24,889	-0.55%	11,732	47.40%	11,143	45.02%	674	2.72%	59	0.24%	897	3.62%	9	0.04%	38	0.15%	199	0.80%
6	25,460	24,889	2.29%	6,258	24.58%	16,247	63.81%	607	2.38%	74	0.29%	1,840	7.23%	29	0.11%	54	0.21%	348	1.37%
Totals	149,335			92,712	62.08%	48,901	32.75%	2,981	2.00%	312	0.21%	3,148	2.11%	68	0.05%	170	0.11%	1,038	0.70%

Ideal Size = 149,335 / 6 = 24,889 per district.

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

District	Total VAP*	Hispanic VAP	% of Total Hispanic VAP	Anglo VAP	% of Total Anglo VAP	Black VAP	% of Total Black VAP	American Indian VAP	% of Total American Indian VAP	Asian VAP	% of Total Asian VAP	Hawaiian-Pacific Islander VAP	% of Total Hawaiian-Pacific Islander VAP	Other VAP	% of Total Other VAP	Two or More VAP	% of Total Two or More VAP
1	15,962	13,224	82.85%	2,333	14.62%	226	1.42%	22	0.14%	92	0.58%	6	0.04%	11	0.07%	48	0.30%
2	16,551	11,993	72.46%	4,045	24.44%	294	1.78%	40	0.24%	80	0.48%	7	0.04%	13	0.08%	80	0.48%
3	16,599	10,825	65.21%	5,301	31.94%	260	1.57%	39	0.23%	83	0.50%	7	0.04%	13	0.08%	73	0.44%
4	17,068	10,083	59.08%	6,415	37.58%	326	1.91%	46	0.27%	89	0.52%	3	0.02%	14	0.08%	92	0.54%
5	18,460	7,608	41.21%	9,475	51.33%	488	2.64%	43	0.23%	687	3.72%	8	0.04%	26	0.14%	122	0.66%
6	18,860	3,998	21.20%	12,762	67.67%	396	2.10%	59	0.31%	1,397	7.41%	14	0.07%	25	0.13%	206	1.09%
Totals	103,500	57,731	55.78%	40,331	38.97%	1,990	1.92%	249	0.24%	2,428	2.35%	45	0.04%	102	0.10%	621	0.60%

*Voting Age Population

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

City of Pasadena
 Example Plan 2 - 6 Single Member District
 2010 Voting Age Population and 2011 Registered Voters- Spanish Surname Registered Voters

District	Total VAP	All Registered Voters	SSRV	Percent SSRV
1	15,962	6,491	3,980	61.32%
2	16,551	7,186	3,502	48.74%
3	16,599	9,005	4,287	47.61%
4	17,068	8,829	3,157	35.76%
5	18,460	10,306	2,707	26.26%
6	18,860	15,361	2,134	13.89%
Totals:	103,500	57,178	19,767	34.57%

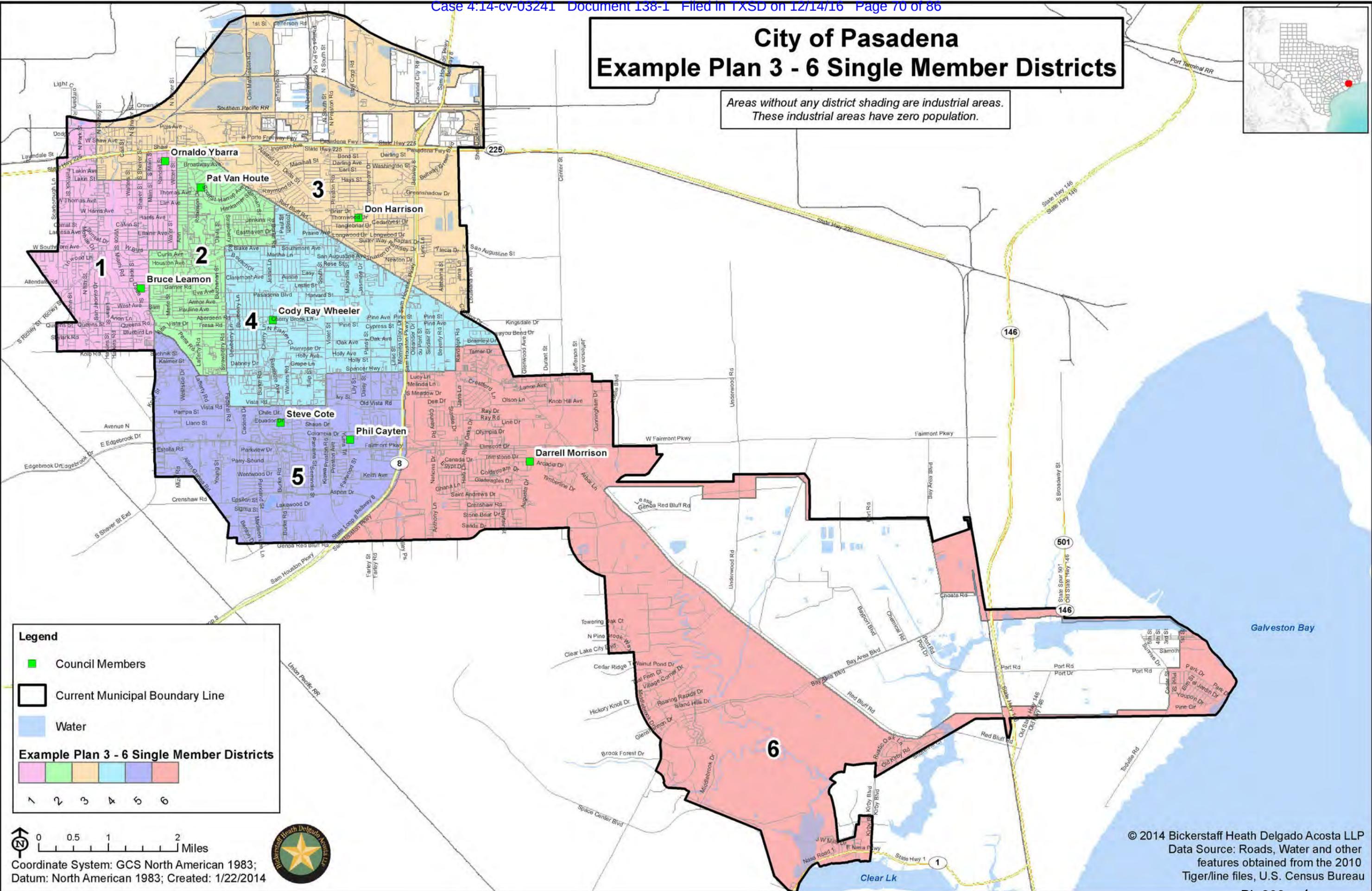
1/27/2014

PL 205- 4

PASADENA010136

City of Pasadena Example Plan 3 - 6 Single Member Districts

Areas without any district shading are industrial areas.
These industrial areas have zero population.



Legend

- Council Members
- Current Municipal Boundary Line
- Water

Example Plan 3 - 6 Single Member Districts

1 2 3 4 5 6

0 0.5 1 2 Miles

Coordinate System: GCS North American 1983;
Datum: North American 1983; Created: 1/22/2014



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Data Source: Roads, Water and other features obtained from the 2010 Tiger/line files, U.S. Census Bureau

City of Pasadena

Example Plan 3

Summary 2010 Census Total and Voting Age Population

District	Persons	Deviation	Hispanic % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Anglo % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Black % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Asian % of Total Population	Non-Hispanic Other % of Total Population
1	24,473	-1.67%	83.07%	14.68%	1.22%	0.48%	0.55%
2	23,654	-4.96%	81.17%	16.12%	1.51%	0.36%	0.85%
3	24,563	-1.31%	70.61%	26.58%	1.57%	0.41%	0.82%
4	25,992	4.43%	65.14%	31.11%	2.26%	0.53%	0.96%
5	25,193	1.22%	50.21%	42.21%	2.96%	3.44%	1.18%
6	25,460	2.29%	24.58%	63.81%	2.38%	7.23%	1.98%
Totals	149,335		62.08%	32.75%	2.00%	2.11%	1.06%

Ideal Size = $149,335 / 6 = 24,889$ per district.

Total Maximum Deviation = $4.43\% - (-4.96\%) = 9.39\%$

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

District	Total VAP*	Hispanic % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Anglo % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Black % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Asian % of Total VAP	Non-Hispanic Other % of Total VAP
1	16,277	78.50%	19.09%	1.22%	0.61%	0.58%
2	15,332	76.17%	20.90%	1.64%	0.46%	0.82%
3	16,478	65.09%	32.10%	1.51%	0.50%	0.82%
4	18,103	57.71%	38.62%	2.09%	0.62%	0.96%
5	18,450	43.92%	48.64%	2.81%	3.60%	1.00%
6	18,860	21.20%	67.67%	2.10%	7.41%	1.61%
Totals	103,500	55.78%	38.97%	1.92%	2.35%	0.98%

*Voting Age Population

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

1/28/2014

PL 206- 2

PASADENA010138

City of Pasadena

Example Plan 3

Detailed 2010 Census Total and Voting Age Population

District	Persons	Ideal Size	Deviation	Hispanic	% of Total Hispanic Population	Anglo	% of Total Anglo Population	Black	% of Total Black Population	American Indian	% of Total American Indian Population	Asian	% of Total Asian Population	Hawaiian-Pacific Islander	% of Total Hawaiian-Pacific Islander Population	Other	% of Total Other Population	Two or More	% of Total Two or More Population
1	24,473	24,889	-1.67%	20,329	83.07%	3,593	14.68%	298	1.22%	29	0.12%	118	0.48%	1	0.00%	17	0.07%	88	0.36%
2	23,654	24,889	-4.96%	19,199	81.17%	3,812	16.12%	357	1.51%	35	0.15%	86	0.36%	16	0.07%	27	0.11%	122	0.52%
3	24,563	24,889	-1.31%	17,345	70.61%	6,529	26.58%	386	1.57%	49	0.20%	100	0.41%	11	0.04%	18	0.07%	124	0.50%
4	25,992	24,889	4.43%	16,932	65.14%	8,086	31.11%	588	2.26%	66	0.25%	137	0.53%	2	0.01%	18	0.07%	163	0.63%
5	25,193	24,889	1.22%	12,649	50.21%	10,634	42.21%	745	2.96%	59	0.23%	867	3.44%	9	0.04%	36	0.14%	193	0.77%
6	25,460	24,889	2.29%	6,258	24.58%	16,247	63.81%	607	2.38%	74	0.29%	1,840	7.23%	29	0.11%	54	0.21%	348	1.37%
Totals	149,335			92,712	62.08%	48,901	32.75%	2,981	2.00%	312	0.21%	3,148	2.11%	68	0.05%	170	0.11%	1,038	0.70%

Ideal Size = 149,335 / 6 = 24,889 per district.

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

District	Total VAP*	Hispanic VAP	% of Total Hispanic VAP	Anglo VAP	% of Total Anglo VAP	Black VAP	% of Total Black VAP	American Indian VAP	% of Total American Indian VAP	Asian VAP	% of Total Asian VAP	Hawaiian-Pacific Islander VAP	% of Total Hawaiian-Pacific Islander VAP	Other VAP	% of Total Other VAP	Two or More VAP	% of Total Two or More VAP
1	16,277	12,777	78.50%	3,108	19.09%	198	1.22%	24	0.15%	100	0.61%	1	0.01%	12	0.07%	58	0.36%
2	15,332	11,679	76.17%	3,205	20.90%	252	1.64%	31	0.20%	71	0.46%	13	0.08%	15	0.10%	66	0.43%
3	16,478	10,726	65.09%	5,289	32.10%	248	1.51%	40	0.24%	82	0.50%	7	0.04%	11	0.07%	77	0.47%
4	18,103	10,447	57.71%	6,992	38.62%	378	2.09%	52	0.29%	113	0.62%	2	0.01%	14	0.08%	105	0.58%
5	18,450	8,104	43.92%	8,975	48.64%	518	2.81%	43	0.23%	665	3.60%	8	0.04%	25	0.14%	109	0.59%
6	18,860	3,998	21.20%	12,762	67.67%	396	2.10%	59	0.31%	1,397	7.41%	14	0.07%	25	0.13%	206	1.09%
Totals	103,500	57,731	55.78%	40,331	38.97%	1,990	1.92%	249	0.24%	2,428	2.35%	45	0.04%	102	0.10%	621	0.60%

*Voting Age Population

Some percentages may be subject to rounding error.

City of Pasadena
 Example Plan 3 - 6 Single Member District
 2010 Voting Age Population and 2011 Registered Voters- Spanish Surname Registered Voters

District	Total VAP	All Registered Voters	SSRV	Percent SSRV
1	16,277	7,251	4,034	55.64%
2	15,332	6,148	3,255	52.94%
3	16,478	9,112	4,378	48.05%
4	18,103	9,254	3,228	34.88%
5	18,450	10,053	2,738	27.24%
6	18,860	15,361	2,134	13.89%
Totals:	103,500	57,178	19,767	34.57%

SNYDER, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega servicio en todos los restaurantes y en todas las barberías; ni siquiera se les permite, el que se asean el calzado en las barberías. El Dr. J. G. Hicks le negó servicio dental a la madre de un soldado americano de origen mexicano; la enfermera informó a la paciente que el Dr. Hicks no atendería a la gente de color.

ROBSTOWN, TEXAS. A personas de origen mexicano se les niega servicio en el Steak House. En el Hospital Robstown de que es dueño el Dr. N. T. Gibson, personas de origen mexicano han sido segregadas y se les ha obligado a esperar en la sala designada para los negros. Dos de estas personas fueron el Reverendo Jesús Ríos, Ministro de la Iglesia Bautista de Robstown y su esposa. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas elementales de Robstown, Texas.

ELUNTZER, TEXAS. Los niños mexicanos están separados de los niños anglo-americanos en las escuelas elementales. El mejor edificio lo usan los anglo-americanos mientras que los niños mexicanos se educan en un local destaralado.

MIDLAND, TEXAS. Los mexicanos son segregados y se les obliga a que usen un balcón en la sección reservada para Negros en los teatros Yucca, Ritz y Rex. A los mexicanos se niega el servicio en los restaurantes. En el Ritz Cafe hay un rótulo que dice: "AQUI NO SE ADMITEN MEXICANOS." A cinco soldados americanos de origen mexicano se les negó servicio en dicho cafe por su origen mexicano. La policía local es muy injusta con las personas de extracción mexicana. El siguiente incidente refleja la actitud de la policía hacia los mexicanos. Un día un soldado americano, de origen mexicano, iba caminando por la acera acompañado de una señorita de origen alemán, y un policía llamó a la señorita y le dijo que no se anduviera asociando con mexicanos, que era una desgracia el que la gente "blanca" se acompañara con mexicanos. A los niños mexicanos se les segrega en todas las escuelas elementales. A las personas de origen mexicano no se les permite entrar a la Iglesia Católica durante la hora de servicios religiosos para anglo-americanos. El domingo 7 de mayo de 1944 a las nueve de la mañana se les indicó a dos muchachos mexicanos que se salieran de la iglesia. El portero les dijo que aquella misa era para gente "blanca" únicamente.

MELVIN, TEXAS. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas elementales. Un edificio conocido con el nombre de "Community Center and Library Building" construido por la "National Youth Administration" ha sido negado varias veces a líderes de origen mexicano que lo han pedido para reuniones de la Sociedad de Padres y Maestros. Los "toilets" de dicho edificio han sido negados a señoras de origen mexicano.

CORPUS CHRISTI, TEXAS. A un Cancellier del Consulado de México se cobró diez centavos por una soda que valía solamente cinco, en el "Drive-In Stand." Cuando preguntó porqué se le cobraba esa cantidad, se le contestó que porque era mexicano. En varios establecimientos públicos se discriminan a los mexicanos. Además, hay distritos residenciales en donde se les prohíbe el privilegio de residir. El Concejo Municipal de Corpus Christi se rehusó a expedir una ordenanza que prohiba la humillación de mexicanos en establecimientos comerciales.

NIXON, TEXAS. En el "White Spot Cafe" se niega servicio a mexicanos.

O'DONNELL, TEXAS. A personas de origen mexicano se les niega servicio en el "Liddell's Cafe."

SEMINOLE, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en el "Chuck Wagon Cafe."

HASKELL, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en la Reid's Drug Store.

BRADY, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en el F. Y. Barbecue Pit. En el parque público de Brady se colocó un rótulo con esta inscripción. "ESTE PARQUE ES PARA BLANCOS. LOS NEGROS Y LOS MEXICANOS DEBEN PERMANECER FUERA." Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas elementales. A los mexicanos, inclusive a los soldados americanos de origen mexicano, se les niega servicio en los restaurantes y boticas. En el Waffle Shop también se discrimina a los mexicanos.

NEW GULF, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega servicio en establecimientos comerciales en New Gulf, Wharton, Boling y lugares circunvecinos.

LAMESA, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega servicio en los establecimientos comerciales. Dos de éstos son Bill's Cafe y The Blue Bonnett Cafe.

WICHITA FALLS. En los siguientes establecimientos se niega empleo a mujeres de origen mexicano, inclusive a las esposas de soldados mexicano-americanos: Domestic Egg Plant, Inc., 1900 Bluff St., Wichita Laundry, 602 Austin St., Pond Laundry, 602 Ohio St.

NEWBRAUNFELS, TEXAS. En el Ivey Green Cafe se niega servicio a mexicanos. En el parque Landa se niega la entrada a mexicanos. Sud-americanos han sido segregados en el parque Landa. Se les ha dicho: "Aquellas mesas son para Sudamericanos." Estas son para gente blanca.

WACO, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se coloca juntamente con los Negros en la cárcel del Condado de McClennan.

BOERNE, TEXAS. Los mexicanos son segregados en el teatro Cascade. A los mexicanos se niega la entrada a la alberca municipal, propiedad de la ciudad de Boerne.

VICTORIA, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos, inclusive a soldados de origen mexicano, en los establecimientos siguientes: Hi-way Cafe, South Moody, propietario E. H. Jay; Omas Cafe, 211 South Main St.; Rips Cafe, Port Lavaca Highway; Baker's Place, South Main St.; Round House Bar, 211 South Cameron St.

EDNA, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos, inclusive a soldados de origen mexicano, en los establecimientos siguientes: Dahlstrom Eats; Ed's Cafe; Cozy Cafe; Ronnels Cafe. También se les niega servicio en dos restaurantes más.

FORT STOCKTON, TEXAS. En el teatro Pecos se admite a los mexicanos sólo en el balcón. Se les prohíbe la entrada al Comanche Swimming Pool.

PECOS, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega servicio en los hoteles, restaurantes, cantinas y centros de recreo anglo-americanos. En los teatros sólo tienen asiento con los Negros. En las tiendas anglo-americanas se atiende primero a los anglo-americanos, no obstante que los mexicanos hayan llegado primero.

BALMORHEA, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega la entrada al parque público, aún los Boy Scouts de origen mexicano son excluidos. Al Diputado Borunda de Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, México, se le negó servicio en un restaurant.

TAHOKA, TEXAS. En los siguientes establecimientos se niega servicio a mexicanos. D. and E. Drugs, Luncheonette; Lee's Cafe, propietario Lee Montadilen; Victory Cafe, propietario Joe T. Mosley. Hay otros establecimientos en donde también se niega servicio a mexicanos.

SUGARLAND, TEXAS. Los mayordomos tratan mal a los trabajadores mexicanos en los campos agrícolas. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas públicas. Los mexicanos son colocados juntamente con los Negros en el hospital.

RUNGE, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en Manda's Cafe, cuya propietaria es una señorita Groos.

LULING, TEXAS. En el Cottage Inn se sirve a los mexicanos en la cocina únicamente. Es propietario Gus Terrell. En el Hi-way Inn Cafe se sirve a los mexicanos pero éstos son segregados de los anglo-americanos; es propietario T. A. Landrith. En French's Sandwich Shop se niega servicio a los mexicanos. En J. R. McKey Drug Store cuyo propietario es C. R. Mackey, se niega servicio a los mexicanos dentro del establecimiento. Se les venden helados pero tienen que comerlos fuera del establecimiento. En los siguientes lugares también se niega servicio a los mexicanos, (se les venden helados pero tienen que comerlos afuera.) Mehner Drug Company, propietario Geo. Mehner; Watkins Drugs, propietario Bill Watkins; Green Cross Pharmacy, propietario Dr. Clay Nichols. En el Southern Cafe se niega servicio a mexicanos. El Dr. J. T. O'Banion segrega a los mexicanos en su consultorio.

STRAWN, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en todas las barberías anglo-americanas, y se les segrega en el teatro.

SINTON, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en el Dodson Cafe, cuyo propietario es un individuo de apellido Dodson, y en el Steak House Cafe.

BIG SPRING, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en los establecimientos siguientes: Pales Lunch Room, 104 Main St.; Waffer Cafe, Quick Lunch, Main St.; A. F. Eunch, 207 Main St.; Clever Grill Cafe.

COLEMAN, TEXAS. Los mexicanos son puestos con los Negros en los teatros Dixie, Gem y Howell. Diez restaurants anglo-americanos niegan servicio a los mexicanos.

ROCK SPRINGS, TEXAS. En Agosto de 1944, se negó servicio al Sr. Luis González en el Cafe Smith. En ese mismo lugar se ha negado servicio a varios otros soldados americanos de origen mexicano; uno de éstos es el Sr. Trinidad Pérez. Tanto el Sr. Pérez como el Sr. González portaban el uniforme del Ejército de Estados Unidos cuando fueron humillados. Pérez fue herido en acción y ahora se halla dado de baja.

SUBEN, TEXAS. Blondie Cafe, propietario Blondie Puckett. El 7 de octubre de 1944, dicho propietario negó servicio a dos señores de origen mexicano que habían ido al restaurant acompañados de un anglo-americano amigo de ellos. El anglo-americano los había invitado a tomar una tasa de café. Cuando entraron el dueño del restaurant les preguntó a los señores mexicanos si eran mexicanos y cuando éstos contestaron que sí, el propietario les ordenó que salieran del lugar.

GERONIMO, TEXAS. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas públicas.

SLATON, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega servicio en varios establecimientos comerciales.

COLORADO, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se niega servicio en varios establecimientos comerciales.

PEARLAND, TEXAS. A los niños se segrega hasta el séptimo año en las escuelas públicas.

CAMERON, TEXAS. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en algunas escuelas hasta el séptimo año en los planteles públicos. A los mexicanos se les segrega en algunos teatros. Hay almacenes de ropa en que no se les permite que se prueben la ropa antes de comprarla. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en varios establecimientos comerciales.

JUNCTION, TEXAS. City Cafe, Gerente John R. Kenard. Cozy Cafe, gerente Buddie Hunt. Se niega servicio a mexicanos.

HUTTO, TEXAS. Hay un restaurant en donde se prohíbe a los mexicanos entrar por el frente del establecimiento. Se les dice que lo hagan por la puerta de atrás, que es donde se les sirve a los negros.

ROUND ROCK, TEXAS. Hay dos restaurants en donde se les niega servicio a mexicanos.

FORT WORTH, TEXAS. En restaurant propiedad de M. A. Johnson, 114 E. Weatherford Street, se niega servicio a mexicanos inclusive soldados americanos de origen mexicano. Cuando se le pregunta al propietario porqué, contesta que no se sirve a mexicanos y que no tiene tiempo de dar explicaciones.

LOLITA, TEXAS. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas públicas.

MCALLEN, TEXAS. W. E. Hester, propietario de la Broadway Service Station, no permite a los mexicanos que tomen agua en su establecimiento.

PANDORA, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en varios establecimientos comerciales.

ROSEBUD, TEXAS. En el hospital público a los mexicanos se les segrega y coloca juntamente con los Negros. Para entrar en el hospital los mexicanos tienen que hacerlo por una puerta que tiene un rótulo que dice: "Entrada para Negros y mexicanos." A los mexicanos se les niega servicio en el Café Imperial. El dueño publicó un aviso en un periódico local el cual dice: "Aviso: No se sirve a mexicanos en el Café Imperial." Hay un dentista que segrega a los mexicanos y no permite que los mexicanos entren por la misma puerta que lo hacen anglo-americanos.

Ordena que los mexicanos entren por una puerta de atrás a un cuartito designado para Negros, y sienta a los mexicanos en el sillón que usan éstos. Cobra más por sus servicios a los mexicanos que a los anglo-americanos.

ELGIN, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en varios establecimientos comerciales. En los restaurants se les dice que vayan a la cocina si desean que se les sirva. A los soldados americanos de origen mexicano se les trata de la misma manera. El Cafe Elgin y el Hotel Mc-Lellan niegan servicio a mexicanos.

BASTROP, TEXAS. Hay varios establecimientos comerciales en donde no se les sirve a los mexicanos. El dueño de un restaurant situado por la calle principal dice despoliticamente: "No servimos a mexicanos." En algunos restaurants se les sirve en la cocina.

McQUEENEY, TEXAS. A los mexicanos no se les permite que visiten Brezze Lake. Ni siquiera les venden "hamburgers" en un puestecillo establecido allí. Soldados americanos de origen mexicano han sido humiliados de la misma manera en dicho lugar.

NEW BRAUNFELS, TEXAS. Marion Cafe, 180 San Antonio Avenue. En éste y en otros restaurants se niega servicio a mexicanos.

POST, TEXAS. Solamente uno de los cinco restaurants anglo-americanos que hay en este lugar sirve a mexicanos. Los otros cuatro niegan servicio a mexicanos y tienen rótulos que dicen: "No Mexicans Served" y "No Mexicans Wanted."

LOCKHART, TEXAS. El 4 de julio de 1941, algunos mexicanos asistieron a un baile que se estaba celebrando en una de las calles principales de Lockhart. Como a las once de la noche el anunciador de la orquesta dijo textualmente lo siguiente: "Se me ha pedido que anuncie lo siguiente: que todas las personas de origen hispanico que se hallan reunidas aqui deben salir de esta cuadrá. Puesto que esta es una celebración americana, es para gente blanca solamente." Se niega servicio a mexicanos, inclusive asoldados americanos de origen mexicano, en el South Cafe y en todas las barberías anglo-americanas. El primero de diciembre de 1943 un soldado americano de origen mexicano, entró a una barbería anglo-americana para que se le lustrara el calzado. Un negro le dijo que no lo podía hacer y que hablara con el patrón si deseaba saber porqué. Cuando el militar mexicano le preguntó al patrón éste lo cogió del cuello, amenazó con darle un puñetazo y empezó a empujarlo para afuera. El militar se fue después al South Cafe acompañado de un primo suyo y ordenó café para los dos. La mesera les dijo que no podía servirles allí. Entonces el militar y su compañero se dirigieron a la oficina del Sheriff para formular su queja por lo que les habia sucedido. Seguramente que el Sheriff ya tenia aviso de los incidentes porque nomás entró el soldado a su oficina y el Sheriff le dijo: "No naciste en un restaurant." El militar le contestó que solamente habia pedido una tasa de café, y acto seguido el Sheriff se levantó y le dió una bofetada ordenándole que se saliera.

GONZALES, TEXAS. A cuatro jóvenes mexicanos, bien vestidos, se les negó servicio en el Michelson Cafe.

FORT STOCKTON, TEXAS. Al soldado de primera clase L. A. Moreno, perteneciente a la Tropa A, Quinto Regimiento de Caballería, Fort Bliss, Texas, se le negó servicio en el Hollywood Cafe en Fort Stockton. Se le dijo que si queria algo de comer, tendria que salirse y entrar a la cocina.

SÁN MARGOS, TEXAS. A las mexicanas no se les permite usar el "toilet" para mujeres anglo-americanas en la casa de Corte. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en varios restaurants y boticas. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas públicas.

ANSON, TEXAS. Sommer's Cafe. Se niega servicio a mexicanos.

ROSCOE, TEXAS. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en todos los restaurants y barberías anglo-americanas.

STERLING CITY, TEXAS. Hay un restaurant que niega servicio a mexicanos, y sólo se les sirve siempre que tomen dichos alimentos fuera del establecimiento.

LITTLE FIELD, TEXAS. Hay una refresquería que niega servicio a mexicanos a menos que tomen sus refrescos fuera del establecimiento.

AUSTIN, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se les segrega de los anglo-americanos en el hospital público. Hay varios distritos residenciales en que no se permite a los mexicanos que residan, sin importar su posición social.

NATALIA, TEXAS. Cox Place, Dick's Cafe, owner W. R. Lay. Se niega servicio a mexicanos.

GANADO, TEXAS. Lee Koonce Cafe, Macon Cafe. Se niega servicio a mexicanos en el mismo salón en que se sirve a los anglo-americanos. A los mexicanos se les dice que pasen a un departamento para negros.

GOLIAD, TEXAS. Hay un restaurant en que se niega servicio a mexicanos. Un día un mexicano le preguntó al propietario por qué se rehusaba a servir a mexicanos, y en respuesta el dueño sacó una pistola y le ordenó que saliera del establecimiento.

MASON, TEXAS. King's Cafe. Se niega servicio a mexicanos.

CLEBURNE, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se les segrega en todos los hospitales de las compañías ferrocarrileras. Los mexicanos son colocados juntamente con los pacientes negros.

HONDO, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se les segrega en el teatro Ray. Se les dice que no deben sentarse con los anglo-americanos porque los mexicanos no son "blancos."

HAPPY, TEXAS. Hay un restaurant en donde se niega servicio a mexicanos.

BORGER, TEXAS. DeLuxe Barber Shop. Se niega servicio a mexicanos.

BEEVILLE, TEXAS. Gunn Rooming House. A un artesano de origen mexicano que se hallaba ocupado en trabajo de defensa nacional, se le negó un cuarto por el simple hecho de ser mexicano; a tres obreros anglo-americanos que lo acompañaban, se les proporcionaron cuartos, pero no así al mexicano.

DEVINE, TEXAS. Gene's Grill, dueña la Sra. Thelma Bohl. El día 14 de agosto de 1943, dos mexicanos distinguidos entraron y se sentaron a una mesa donde anglo-americanos se hallaban sentados en otro extremo. La propietaria se acercó a los mexicanos y les dijo: "porque se sentaron ustedes aquí? Que no ven que un hombre blanco está comiendo en esta mesa? No conocen ustedes la diferencia entre un hombre blanco y ustedes?"

CALVERT, TEXAS. La Oficina de Racionamiento de Gasolinadel Concedido de Robertson se ha rehusado a expedirle cupones de gasolina a un agricultor mexicano, no obstante que él probó ser acreedor a ellos. El quejoso dice que se le trató así por el simple hecho de ser mexicano.

OZONA, TEXAS. Hancock's Cafe, Ozona Drug Store, Ozona Hotel, Butler Cafe, Smith Drug Store. En estos establecimientos se niega servicio a mexicanos. Los niños mexicanos están segregados en las escuelas elementales y superiores de Ozona. A los mexicanos se les segregan en el Teatro Ozona. Al Sr. Alejo Lara, que tiene dos hijos en el ejército, que han sido heridos en acción, se les negó servicio en la Ozona Drug Store. Uno de dichos hijos acaba de ser internado en el Hospital del Fuerte Sam Houston. Tiene la espina dorsal paralizada a consecuencia de las heridas que recibiera en la línea de fuego.

ALICE, TEXAS. A los mexicanos se les niega servicio en todos las barberías anglo-americanas. Los niños mexicanos están segregados de los niños anglo-americanos hasta el séptimo grado en las escuelas públicas.

ALPINE, TEXAS. A los mexicanos, inclusive los soldados americanos de origen mexicano, se les segrega en el teatro y se les coloca con los negros. El propietario de un salón de billares prohíbe a los mexicanos inclusive a los soldados y marineros de origen mexicano, que jueguen allí.

MARATHON, TEXAS. Un rótulo grande que estaba colocado en el frente de un restaurant y que decía: "No Mexicans Allowed," fue motivo para que el pueblo mexicano protestara. Entonces el dueño quitó dicho rótulo y puso otro más grande.

HARLINGEN, TEXAS. A un grupo de jóvenes de origen mexicano se les negó la entrada a una alberca pública, pero en cambio, a otro grupo de jóvenes, entre los que se hallaban varios de origen alemán y japonés, se les permitió hacer uso de dicha alberca.

POINTE, TEXAS. En un baile que tuvo verificativo el cuatro de junio del presente año, en una de las calles de Poteet, se les dijo a los mexicanos presentes, que se fueran a bailar a otra parte porque allí no se les quería.

SEGUIN, TEXAS. Una tropa de jóvenes exploradores de América (Boy Scouts) de origen mexicano fueron expulsados de Starcke Park (un parque municipal), no obstante que llevaban la bandera americana. Se les dijo que aquel parque era para gente "blanca" solamente.

WHARTON, TEXAS. En varios establecimientos comerciales se niega servicio a mexicanos. Hasta este año, a los mexicanos no se les permitía que votaran en las elecciones primarias en el Condado de Wharton.

Horton, Texas- Richmond, Texas- Matagorda, Texas- Brazoria, Texas- Bay City, Texas- Angleton, Texas- Stanton, Texas- Amarillo, Texas- Greenville, Texas- Jacksonville, Texas- Cleveland, Texas- Braunfield, Texas- Levelland, Texas- Shmrock, Texas: En todas estas ciudades y poblaciones, existen establecimientos comerciales en donde se niega servicio a mexicanos.

En la mayoría de las ciudades y poblaciones del Estado de Texas se tiene a los niños mexicanos segregados en las escuelas públicas.

En la mayoría de las ciudades y poblaciones de Texas también hay distritos residenciales en donde no se permite que residan los mexicanos.

El propósito ha sido tener al mexicano humillado y tratarlo como un ser inferior.

La misma situación prevalece en los Estados de Arizona, Colorado, California y parte de Nuevo México.

(NOTA: Los actos discriminatorios se han repetido en varias de estas ciudades, pero solamente se anotan uno o dos incidentes. En algunas de estas ciudades ya no se han repetido los casos de discriminación racial, pero éstos no suman más de un 20% de los puebles anotados.)

LIST CONTAINING THE NAMES OF CITIES IN TEXAS WHERE SERVICE HAS BEEN DENIED TO MEXICANS, EITHER IN RESTAURANTS, THEATERS, BARBER SHOPS, SWIMMING POOLS, ETC.

SAN ANGELO, TEXAS. Curry Drug Store, Texas Grill, N. Chadbourne St., owner George Wylie; Coney Island Sandwich Shop; Manning's Cafe, S. Chadbourne St.; Wilson's Lunch, 125 N. Chadbourne St.; Red Top Inn, 1302 N. Chadbourne St., owner Ed. Motl. Service is denied to Mexicans.

ROTAN, TEXAS. City Barber Shop; Vittitow Barber Shop; Alton Parker Barber Shop. All these barbershops refuse service to Sargent Alejandro Martinez, paratrooper Frank Velez; soldier Guillermo Gonzalez and to an additional fifty Mexican-American soldiers. Also, service is denied to Mexicans in restaurants and in drugstores in this place.

FREDERICKSBURG, TEXAS. Downtown Cafe, 323 East Main St. On March 7, 1944, the following members of the American Army were told that they could not be served in the restaurant but they could be served in the kitchen. E. Jose Alvarez Fuentes, Second Class Marine, soldier Jose D. Sales. # 38557190, Company B, battalion 65 M.R.T.C.; Soldier Paul R. Ramos, # 38557007, Company B, Battalion 65 M.R.T.C.; and Marine Juan Garcia.

UVALDE, TEXAS. Dinette Cafe. On April 8, 1944, service was denied to Private First Class Cruz M. Rodriguez and W.A.C. Lydia Rodriguez, both belonging to the United States Army. In the following establishment, service is also denied to Mexicans, including members of the Armed Forces of the United States: New Port Cafe, owner Mr. Midget; Shadowland Cafe and Beer Parlor, owner Robert Filling water; Walgreen Drug Store, owners Spears Bros; Hanger Six Cafe; Palace Drug Store; Andy Shoppe; Manhattan Cafe; Casey Jones Cafe and Beer Parlor, owner Casey Jones; Casal Cave, owner Henry Casal.

LUBBOCK, TEXAS. To Mexican-Americans members of the North American Army and to people of Mexican origin in general, service is denied in the following establishments: Ben's Cafe, 813 13th St. 805 Broadway, owner Ben Kinnard; Brown's Drug Store, Cafe department, Broadway Avenue; Luby's Cafeteria, Broadway Avenue; Weiss Motor Company; TEXAS Avenue; Cammack Drug Company, Broadway Avenue; Jack-o-lantern Cafe, 1220 Broadway Avenue; F. W. Woolworth Company, Restaurant Department, Broadway Avenue; Post Office Drug Store, Cafe department, Avenue G. At Anglo-American barbershops, all Mexicans are segregated - in the bus stations (City Bus Station.) Several hotels and apartment houses do not rent rooms to Mexicans, and they are denied the right to reside in some sectors of the city.

SEAGRAVES, TEXAS. To Mexicans, they are denied service in all restaurants, as well as access to the city theater.

Mc CAMEY, TEXAS. Mexicans are denied service in all American barber shops as well as the Club Café and three more restaurants.

BIG SPRING, TEXAS. To Mexicans, service is denied in all restaurants and they are segregated in theaters. In the Army Air Field, there is a sign that reads: "ANY SOLDIER THAT CONSIDERS HIMSELF WHITE MUST NOT CROSS TO THE MEXICAN SECTOR OF THE CITY."

SPUR, TEXAS. Mexicans are denied service in the following establishments: Do's Barber Shop; Spur Barber Shop; Cayce's Barber Shop; Johnson's Barber Shop; City Drug Company; Red Front Drug. In the City Drug Store soldier Pedro Hernandez was denied a glass of water despite the heat outside being very intense. There are two dentists that have chairs for exclusive use by Mexicans. At the PALACE Theater, Mexicans are segregated.

SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS. In the barber shop of Gus Siebenniecker, located on Cupples Road, service is refused to Mexicans. At the Terrell Wells swimming pool that is owned by H.F. Stumberg, entrance is refused to Mexicans, regardless of their social position. There are several other establishments in Bexar County where they discriminate against Mexicans. There are also several residential districts where they are denied the right to reside, no matter what their social position is.

SNYDER, TEXAS. To Mexicans, service is refused in all the restaurants and all the barber shops, and Mexicans are not even allowed to clean their shoes at the barber shops. Dr. J.G. Hicks denied dental service to the mother of an American soldier of Mexican origin; the nurse informed the patient that Dr. Hicks would not see people of color.

ROBSTOWN, TEXAS. To people of Mexican origin, service is denied at the Steak House. At the Robstown Hospital, whose owner is Dr. N.T. Gibson, people of Mexican origin have been segregated; they have been forced to wait in the area designated for blacks. Among these people were Reverend Jesus Rios, a Minister at the Baptist Church in Robstown and his wife. Mexican children are segregated in elementary schools in Robstown, Texas.

BLUNTZER, TEXAS. Mexican children are separated from Anglo-American children in elementary schools. The best building is for Anglo-Americans while Mexican children are educated at a beat-up shack.

MIDLAND, TEXAS. Mexican are segregated and they are forced to use the sections reserved for Blacks at the Yucca, Ritz and Rex theaters. At the Ritz Cafe, there is a sign that reads: "MEXICANS ARE NOT ADMITTED HERE." To five American soldiers of Mexican origin, service was denied because of their Mexican origin. Local policemen are very unfair toward people of Mexican extraction. The following incident

reflects the attitude of the police toward Mexicans: One day, an American soldier of Mexican origin was walking on the sidewalk escorting a young lady of German origin, when a policeman called the "*Señorita*" and told her she should not get involved with a Mexican; he said it was a disgrace that a "white" person was accompanied by a Mexican. Mexican children are segregated in all elementary schools. People of Mexican origin are not allowed to enter the Catholic Church during the time of religious services for Anglo-Americans. On May 7, 1944 at nine in the morning, two young Mexicans were instructed to leave the church. The doorman told them that that particular mass was exclusively for "white" people.

MELVIN, TEXAS. Mexican children are segregated in all elementary schools. A building known by the name of "Community Center and Library Building", built by the "National Youth Administration" has been denied on several occasions to leaders of Mexican origin who have requested it to have meetings organized by the Society of Parents and Teachers. The "toilets" of this building have been denied to ladies of Mexican origin.

CORPUS CHRISTI, TEXAS. An officer of the Mexican Consulate was charged 10 cents for a soda that was only five cents at the "Drive-In Stand. "When I asked why was I charged that amount, I was told that it was because I was Mexican." In several public establishments, Mexican are discriminated against. In addition, there are residential districts in which they are forbidden the privilege of living. The Municipal Council of Corpus Christi refused to issue an ordinance that would prohibit humiliation to Mexicans in commercial establishments.

NIXON, TEXAS. In the "White Spot Cafe" service is denied to Mexicans.

O'DONNELL, TEXAS. People of Mexican origin are denied service in the "Liddell's Cafe."

SEMINOLE, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans in the "Chuck Wagon Cafe".

HASKELL, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans in the Reid's Drug Store.

BRADY, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans at E.Y. Barbecue Pit. At the public park in Brady, a sign was posted with the following message. "THIS PARK IS FOR WHITES. BLACKS AND MEXICANS MUST STAY OUT." Mexican children are segregated in elementary schools. Service is denied in restaurants and drugstores to Mexicans, including American soldiers of Mexican origin. At the Waffle Shop, Mexicans are also discriminated against.

NEW GULF, TEXAS. Mexican are denied service at commercial establishments in New Gulf, Wharton, Boiling and surrounding places.

LAMESA, TEXAS. To Mexicans, service is refused in commercial establishments. Two of these are Bill's Cafe and The Blue Bonnet.

WICHITA FALLS. The following establishments deny employment to women of Mexican origin, including the wives of Mexican-Americans soldiers. Domestic Egg Plant, Inc., 1900 Bluff St., Wichita Laundry, 602 Austin St., Pond Laundry. 602 Ohio St.

NEW BRAUNFELS, TEXAS. The Ivey Green Cafe refuses service to Mexicans. Landa Park refuses entry to Mexicans. South-Mexicans have been segregated at the Landa Park. They have been told: "Those tables are for South- Americans. These are for white people."

WACO, TEXAS. Mexicans are placed together with blacks in the McClennan County Jail.

BOERNE, TEXAS. Mexicans are segregated in the Cascade Theater. Mexicans are denied entry into the municipal swimming pool, property of the city of Boerne.

VICTORIA TEXAS. Refused service to Mexicans, including soldiers of Mexican origin, in the following establishments: Hi-way Cafe. South Moody, owner E.H. Jay; Omas Cafe, 211 South Main St.; Rips Café, Port Lavaca Highway; Baker's Place, South Main St.; Round House Bar, 211 South Cameron St.

EDNA, TEXAS. Mexicans are denied service, including soldiers of Mexican origin, in the following establishments: Dahlstrom Eats; Ed's Cafe; cozy Cafe; Ronnels Cafe. They are also denied service in two more restaurants.

FORT STOCKTON, TEXAS. At the Pecos Theater, Mexicans are admitted only in the balcony. Are barred from entry to the Comanche Swimming Pool.

PECOS, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans in hotels, restaurants, bars and Anglo-American recreation centers. In theaters, only Blacks have a seat. In the Anglo-American shops, they wait first on the Anglo-American clients, regardless if Mexicans arrived first.

BALMORRHEA, TEXAS. Mexicans are denied entry to the public park, even the Boy Scouts of Mexican origin are excluded. Representative Borunda from Ciudad Juarez, Chihuahua, Mexico, was denied service in a restaurant.

TAHOKA, TEXAS. The following establishments refuse service to Mexicans. D. and E. Drugs, Luncheonette; Lee's Café, owner Lee Montadilen; Victory Café, owner Joe T. Mosley. There are other establishments where also refuse service to Mexicans.

SUGARLAND, TEXAS. The supervisors treat Mexican workers badly in the agricultural fields. Mexican children are segregated in public schools. Mexicans are placed together with Blacks in the hospital.

RUNGE, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans in Manda's Cafe, whose owner is Miss Groos.

LULING, TEXAS. At the Cottage Inn, Mexicans are served in the kitchen only. The owner is Gus Terrell. In the Hi-way Inn Café, Mexicans are served, but these are segregated from the Anglo-American: owner T.A. Landrith. Frenchis Sandwich Shop denies service to Mexicans. The J. R. McCkey Drug Store whose owner is C.R. Mackey, refused service to Mexicans inside the establishment. They sell ice cream, but have to eat it outside the establishment. In the following locations service is also refused to Mexicans. (They are sold ice cream, but have to eat it outside). Mehner Drug Company, owner Geo. Mehner; Watkins Drugs, owner Bill Watkins; Green Cross Pharmacy, owner Dr. Clay Nichols. In the Southern Cafe service is denied to Mexicans. Dr. J. T. O'Banion segregates Mexicans in his office.

STRAWN, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans and also at all Anglo-American barber shops; Mexicans are segregated in the theater.

STINTON, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans at the Dodson Cafe, whose owner is an individual named Adson, and in the Steak House Cafe.

BIG SPRING, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans in the following establishments: Pales Lunch Room, 104 Main St., Waffer Cafe, Quick lunch, Main St., A. F. Lunch, 207 Main St., Clever Grill Cafe.

COLEMAN, TEXAS. Mexicans are placed with Blacks in the Dixie, Gene and Howell Theaters. Ten Anglo-American restaurants deny service to Mexicans.

ROCK SPRINGS, TEXAS. In August 1944, service was denied to Mr. Luis Gonzalez in Smith Cafe. In that same place, service was refused to several other American soldiers of Mexican origin. One of these was Mr. Trinidad Perez. Both Mr. Perez and Mr. Gonzalez wore the uniform of the Army of the United States when they were humiliated. Perez was wounded in action and is now discharged.

SUDEN, TEXAS. Blondie Cafe, owner Blondie Puckett. On 7 October 1944, the owner refused service to two gentlemen of Mexican origin who had gone to the restaurant accompanied by an Anglo-American friend of theirs. The Anglo-American had invited them to have a cup of coffee. When they entered, the restaurant owner asked the Mexican gentlemen if they were Mexicans, and when they replied yes, the owner ordered them to leave the place.

GERONIMO, TEXAS. Mexican children are segregated in public schools.

SLATON, TEXAS. Mexicans were refused service in several commercial establishments.

COLORADO, TEXAS. Mexicans were denied service in several commercial establishments.

PEARLAND, TEXAS. Children are segregated until they reach seventh grade in public schools.

CAMERON, TEXAS. Mexican children are segregated in some schools until the seventh year in the public schools. Mexicans are segregated in some theaters. There were clothing stores where they were not allowed to try clothes before buying; refused service to Mexicans in several commercial establishments.

JUNCTION, TEXAS. City Café, manager John R. Kenard. Cozy Cafe, manager Buddie Hunt. Refuses service to Mexicans.

HUTTO, TEXAS. There is a restaurant where Mexicans are prohibited to enter through the front of the establishment. They are told to do so by the back door, where blacks are served.

ROUND ROCK, TEXAS. There are two restaurants where they denied service to Mexicans.

FORT WORTH, TEXAS. At restaurant property of M. A. Johnson, 114 E. Weatherford Street, service was denied to Mexicans, including American soldiers of Mexican origin. When asked the owner why, he answers that they are not serving Mexicans and that he has no time to give explanations.

LOLITA, TX. Mexican children are segregated in public schools.

Mc ALLEN, TEXAS. W. F. Hester, owner of the Broadway Service Station, does not allow Mexicans to drink water in his establishment.

PANDORA, TEXAS. Service was denied to Mexicans in several commercial establishments.

ROSEBUD, TEXAS. At the public hospital, Mexicans are segregated and placed together with Blacks. To enter the hospital, Mexicans have to do so by a door that has a sign that says: "Entrance for Blacks and Mexicans." Mexicans are denied service at the Cafe Imperial. The owner published a notice in a local newspaper that read: "Notice: Mexicans are not served in Cafe Imperial." There is a dentist that segregates Mexicans and does not allow Mexicans to enter in by the same door as the Anglo-Americans. He orders that Mexicans enter through a back door to a room designated for Blacks, and seats Mexicans in the chair that they use. Charges more for his services to Mexicans than to Anglo-American.

ELGIN, TEXAS. Refused service to Mexicans in several commercial establishments. In restaurants, they were told to enter by the kitchen if they wished to be served. American soldiers of Mexican origin are treated in the same way. Cafe Elgin and Hotel McLeller deny service to Mexicans.

BASTROP, TEXAS. There are several commercial establishments where they do not serve Mexicans. The owner of a restaurant located on main street said un-politically: "We do not serve Mexicans." In some restaurants, they are served in the kitchen.

Mc QUEENEY, TEXAS. Mexicans are not allowed to visit Breeze Lake. They are not even sold "hamburgers" by a small stand established there. American soldiers of Mexican origin have been humiliated the same way in that place.

NEW BRAUNFELS, TEXAS. Marion Cafe, 180 San Antonio Avenue. In this and in other restaurants service is refused to Mexicans.

POST, TEXAS. Only one of the five Anglo-American restaurants in this place serves Mexicans. The other four deny service to Mexicans and have signs that say: "No Mexicans served" and "non-Mexicans wanted."

LOCKHART, TEXAS. On 4 July 1941, some Mexicans attended a dance that was being held in one of the main streets of Lockhart. Around eleven at night the announcer of the orchestra said literally as follows: "I have been asked to announce the following: that all persons of Hispanic origin that are gathered here should leave this block. Since this is an American celebration, it is for white people only." Service is denied to Mexicans, including American soldiers of Mexican origin, in the South Cafe and in all the Anglo-American barber shops. On the first of December of 1943 an American soldier of Mexican origin, came to an Anglo-American barber shop to get a shoeshine. A Black man told him that he could not clean his shoes, and to speak with the boss if he wanted to know why. When the Mexican-American military asked the boss, he grabbed the soldier by the neck, threatened to punch him and began to push him outside. The military went later the South Cafe accompanied by his cousin and ordered coffee for two. The waitress told them that she could not serve them there. Then the military and his companion went to the Sheriff's office to file a complaint for what had happened to them. Certainly, the Sheriff already had notice of the incidents because just as the soldier entered his office, the Sheriff told him: "You were not born in a restaurant." The military answered that he only had asked for a cup of coffee, and immediately afterwards the Sheriff got up and gave him a slap ordering him to leave.

GONZALEZ, TEXAS. Service was denied to four young, well-dressed Mexicans at the Michelson Cafe.

FORT STOCKTON, TEXAS. Soldier First Class L.A. Moreno belonging to the Troup A, Fifth Cavalry Regiment, Fort Bliss, Texas, was denied service at Hollywood Cafe in Fort Stockton. He was told that if he wanted something to eat, would have to leave and enter through the kitchen.

SAN MARCOS, TEXAS. Mexican women are not allowed to use the "toilet" for Anglo-American women in the Courthouse. Mexicans are refused service in several restaurants and pharmacies. Mexican children are segregated in public schools.

ANSON, TEXAS. Sommer's Café. Service is denied to Mexicans.

ROSCOE, TEXAS. Service is denied to Mexicans in all the restaurants and Anglo-American barber shops.

STERLING CITY, TEXAS. There is a restaurant that denies service to Mexicans, and they only serve them if they are to eat their food out of the establishment.

LITTLE FIELD, TEXAS. There is a soda stand that denies service to Mexicans unless you drink your refreshments outside the establishment.

AUSTIN, TEXAS. Mexicans are segregated from Anglo-American in the public hospital. There are several residential districts where it is not allowed for Mexicans to reside, regardless of their social position.

NATALIA, TEXAS. Cox Place, Dick's Cafe, Owner W. R. Lay. Refuses service to Mexicans.

GANADO, TEXAS. Lee Koonce Cafe, Macon Cafe. Refuses service to Mexicans in the same room in which Anglo-Americans are served. Mexicans are told to go to a section for blacks.

GOLIAD, TEXAS. There is a restaurant where service to Mexicans is denied. One day, a Mexican asked the owner why he refused to serve Mexicans, and in response the owner pulled out a gun and ordered him to leave the establishment.

MASON, TEXAS. King's Cafe. Refuses service to Mexicans.

CLEBURNE, TEXAS. Mexicans are segregated in all railroad company's hospitals. Mexicans are placed together with Black patients.

HONDO, TEXAS. Mexicans were segregated at the Ray Theater. They said that they should not sit with the Anglo-Americans because Mexicans are not "white."

HAPPY, TEXAS. There is a restaurant where service is refused to Mexicans.

BORGER, TEXAS. De Luxe Barber Shop. Service is refused to Mexicans.

BEEVILLE, TEXAS. Gaun Rooming House. To an artisan of Mexican origin that was engaged in national defense work, was denied a room by the simple fact of being Mexican; three Anglo-American workers who accompanied him were provided a room, but not to the Mexican.

DEVINE, TEXAS. Gene's Grill, owner Ms. Thelma Bohl. On 14 August 1943, two distinguished Mexicans came in and sat down at a table where Anglo-Americans were sitting on the other end. The owner approached the Mexicans and told them: "Why are you sitting here? Can't you see that a white man is eating at this table? You do not know the difference between a white man and you?"

CALVERT, TEXAS. The Office of gasoline rationing in the County of Robertson has refused to issue coupons for gasoline to a Mexican farmer, although he demonstrated to be a creditor to them. The complainant said that he was treated like that by the simple fact of being Mexican.

OZONA, TEXAS. Hancock's Cafe, Ozona Drug Store, Ozona Hotel, Butler Cafe, Smith Drug Store. In these establishments service is refused to Mexicans. Mexican children are segregated in elementary and high schools at Ozona. Mexicans are segregated at the Ozona Theater. Mr. Alejo Lara, who has two children in the Army, who have been wounded in action, was refused service at the Ozona Drug Store. One of his sons had just been admitted to the Hospital at Fort Sam Houston. The son has a paralyzed spine as a result of wounds he received in the line of fire.

ALICE, TEXAS. Mexicans are denied service in all the Anglo-American barber shops. Mexican children are segregated from the Anglo-American children up to seventh grade in the public schools.

ALPINE, TEXAS. Mexicans, including American soldiers of Mexican origin, are segregated in the theater and place them with Blacks. The owner of a billiards room prohibits Mexicans, including soldiers and marines of Mexican origin to play there.

MARATHON, TEXAS. A large sign which was placed in front of a restaurant saying: "No Mexicans Allowed." It was a reason for the Mexican people to protest. Then the owner removed the sign and put on a larger one.

HARLINGEN, TEXAS. A group of young Mexicans were denied entrance to a public pool, but on the other hand, another group of young people, among which were several of German and Japanese origin, were allowed to make use of the swimming pool.

POTEET, TEXAS. In a dance that had taken place on 4 July of this year, in one of the streets of Poteet, Mexicans present were told to go dancing to another place because they are not wanted there.

SEGUIN, TEXAS. A troop of young explorers of America (Boy Scouts), of Mexican origin, were expelled from Starcke Park (a municipal park), regardless that they displayed the American flag. They were told that the park was for "white people only."

WHARTON, TEXAS. In several commercial establishments service is refused to Mexicans. Until this year, Mexicans were not allowed to vote in the primary elections at Wharton County.

Horton, Texas - Richmond, Texas - Matagorda, Texas - Brazoria, Texas - Bay City, Texas - Angleton, Texas - Stanton, Texas - Amarillo, Texas - Greenville, Texas - Jacksonville, Texas - Cleveland, Texas - Braunfield, Texas - Levelland, Texas - Shamrock, Texas: In all these cities and towns, there are commercial establishments where service to Mexicans was refused.

In most of the cities and towns of the State of Texas, Mexican children are segregated in public schools.

In most of the cities and towns of Texas, there are residential districts where Mexicans are not allowed to reside.

The purpose has been to humiliate the Mexican person and treat him or her as an inferior being.

The same situation prevails in the states of Arizona, Colorado, California and part of New Mexico.

(NOTE: The discriminatory acts have been repeated in several of these cities, but only one or two incidents are noted.)

TRANSLATOR'S CERTIFICATION

I certify that the translation into English of the attached **5 - page** Spanish document is complete, true and accurate to the best of my abilities.

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