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Spanish-English Bilingual Adolescents' Attitude towards Home Language:
Effects on Narrative Language
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BY

Rebecca M. Hunt

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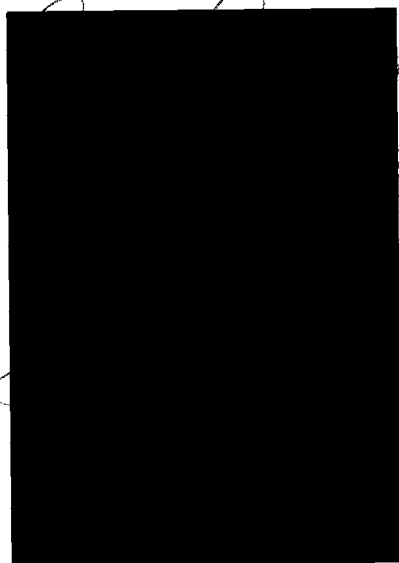
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Spanish-English Bilingual Adolescents' Attitude towards Home Language:

Effects on Narrative Language

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Eastern Illinois University

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Abstract

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the relationship between use of English as a second language in academic and social settings, and attitude towards home language (Spanish) in bilingual adolescents in a Central Illinois high school. In addition, the study evaluated the possible relationship between home language attitude and the structure of a personal narrative. Participants included include 11 Spanish-English bilingual high school students who resided in Spanish-speaking homes. Participants completed a questionnaire pertaining to self-rated proficiency of English and Spanish, frequency of use in various settings, and attitude towards English, Spanish, and bilingualism. English narrative samples were obtained and transcribed. Each narrative was coded for instances of Spanish influence. Narratives and survey data were then analyzed using SPSS to evaluate a possible relationship between narrative structure and attitude.

All 11 participants reported their English proficiency as average or better. Three of the 11 participants did not display any of the linguistic and cultural differences examined in this study. All of the students, regardless of the presence of linguistic and cultural features in the narrative samples, identified as having either a neutral or positive attitude towards Spanish, English, and bilingualism. A positive correlation was found between self-rated English proficiency and use of Spanish in the community setting. A negative correlation was also found between attitude towards Spanish and the use of orientation and evaluation statements in personal narratives. No other significant correlations were found between language use, attitude, or personal narrative structure. However, these results aligned with previous research suggesting that bilingual children who feel positively towards L2 will become sufficiently proficient in that language, as well as potentially adopt the structural conventions of a personal narrative in L2.

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Chapter I

Introduction

For the past several decades in the United States (U.S.), the number of bilingual school-age children has steadily increased. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, between 1980 and 2009 the number of children between the ages of 5 and 17 who spoke a language other than English at home increased from 10% to 21%. In addition, the number of bilingual children who spoke English with difficulty (i.e., “less than very well”) has decreased from 41% in 1980 to 24% in 2009. As bilingual children get older, they become more proficient in English. Seven percent of bilingual children between the ages of 5 and 9 years spoke English with difficulty in 2009. By the age of 14, that percentage decreased to 4% (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2011). The number of bilingual children born in the U.S. also exceeded the number of those immigrating with their parents. For example, between 2000 and 2010, 7.2 million Mexican-American children were born in the U.S., compared to the 4.2 million who immigrated to the U.S. after birth (Pew Research Center [PRC], 2011). Seventy-three percent of the 2.7 million children who came from non-English speaking homes in 2009 spoke Spanish (NCES, 2011).

These changes in the demographics of the U.S. indicate a need to understand bilingualism and its effects on language development. It is important to consider a child’s primary language background, as well as his attitude towards that background, in order to understand his cultural beliefs and identity. There are many factors influencing the proficiency of both primary (L1) and secondary (L2) languages. Throughout this paper, L1 will typically refer to English. The desire to fit into a particular society or group, the feeling that a particular language is needed to gain employment, and the willingness to integrate into a different culture can drive a child’s attitude

towards L1 or L2 (Spolsky, 1989; Gardner, 2006). A child must be internally motivated to learn and maintain either or both languages. Additionally, external factors such as the setting in which L1 and L2 are used can play a major role in the development of either language (Gardner, 2006). The academic setting strongly encourages school-aged bilingual children to learn English because it is the primary language teachers and peers in American schools speak. Therefore, bilingual children are encouraged to learn and speak English by teachers and monolingual peers in order to have friends and to succeed in their schoolwork. This kind of influence could impact how a child feels (i.e., attitude) about his or her primary language.

As bilingual children continue to grow and develop in the U.S., English becomes a larger and more important part of their identity. To express their identity and describe life events to others, children and adults alike tell stories (Bell, 2002). It is important to consider how a bilingual child's native language and culture affects English as a second language, particularly the way the child tells a story. The way in which a narrative is constructed differs across cultures (Bell, 2002). Structure (e.g., event sequencing, topic, characters, verb tense) of a Spanish narrative could transfer to the structure of a narrative in English. For example, a Spanish-English bilingual child could tell a story in English using mostly the present tense (Sebastian & Slobin, 1994) and place more emphasis on the way the character feels, rather than strictly adhering to sequencing of events (Silva & McCabe, 1996; Melzi, 2000; McCabe & Bliss, 2008). In addition, topic maintenance is not as important in a Spanish narrative as keeping the conversation active (McCabe & Bliss, 2008). These linguistic and cultural differences could shape the manner in which a Spanish-English bilingual child produces a personal narrative in English. Therefore, professionals working with bilingual children should first consider the cultural and linguistic effects of native language on the development of a secondary language.

In an English-dominant society, a child's native language and culture should not be overlooked by educational professionals. Environmental and internal factors need to be considered when examining the relationships between language use, attitudes, and proficiency of home language. However, there is little research describing these relationships. It is also unclear whether attitude towards home language correlates to linguistic and cultural influence of narrative structure in L2.

Chapter II

Review of Literature

Narratives

As defined by Labov and Waletzky (1967), an oral narrative is at least two independent clauses that are related or separated by a temporal juncture. Informally, a narrative can be described as the manner in which a past event is recounted by linking an arrangement of spoken clauses to the chronology of the actual event. Although not always identical in structure, English narratives generally share a similar overarching form that includes orientation, complication, evaluation, resolution, and coda. Orientation includes elements such as the setting and characters, which help the listener to understand the context of the story to come. The complication is the conflict that presents an obstacle for the characters to overcome. Evaluation provides the listener with relevance; the speaker uses information that emphasizes the overall point of the story that may be inferred by the listener. An evaluative statement does this by providing an internal or emotional response from the character of the story. The resolution typically comes after the evaluation, in which the conflict is resolved. The coda may be added after the resolution, in which the speaker transitions to the present day by continuing the story into the current time (Labov & Waletzky, 1967).

According to Shapiro and Hudson (1991), a narrative at its most basic level includes a beginning and end, setting, character depiction, dialogue, and action. There are also several elements that are integral to narrative telling: goals, internal responses, obstacles, repairs, cohesion, and coherence. Goals are the end desires of the characters and are often grouped within internal responses, which are the characters' reactions to the conflict of the story. Obstacles are any conflicts that arise during the story. Repairs refer to the resolution of the narrative (Shapiro

& Hudson, 1991). Coherence and cohesion ensure that a narrative's events are related in a manner that gives an overall meaning to the story, and are shaped by the knowledge and skill level of the speaker (Shapiro & Hudson, 1991). Coherence refers to the ability to convey every element of the narrative in a structured manner so that these elements fit together sequentially and logically. Cohesion refers to the linguistic reference devices used to connect the elements of the story, such as interclausal connectives (e.g., conjunctions; Shapiro & Hudson, 1991). These devices of coherence and cohesion are an integral component in the narrative structure, as they serve as part of the temporal juncture connecting the two independent clauses both sequentially and linguistically.

Typical Narrative Development

From the preschool age onward, several narrative types will begin to appear. Children begin to develop the skills necessary for basic conversation and narrative production by age 4 (Miller, Andriacchi, & Nockerts, 2011). One manner of narrative classification is high point analysis, which determines the presence or lack of high points in a story. High points are considered the climax of the conflict, when the action is stopped and the narrator lingers on the evaluation of the high point before resolving (Peterson & McCabe, 1983). According to high point analysis, there are seven narrative patterns that occur: classic, ending-at-the-high-point, leapfrog, chronological, impoverished, disoriented, and miscellaneous (Peterson & McCabe, 1983; McCabe & Rollins, 1994). In a classic narrative pattern, high points are identified when the action of the narrative is suspended in order to place emphasis on the climax of the story (Labov & Waletzky, 1967). High points can be found in many sections of a narrative, depending on the organization the speaker has chosen to use in the storytelling. Another manner of narrative organization described by Peterson and McCabe (1983) is the ending-at-the-high-point. In this

pattern, the high point is reached and emphasized, as in the classic pattern, but the story immediately ends. These two patterns are complex in nature; however, other patterns are categorized as simpler (i.e., leap-frogging, chronological, impoverished, disoriented, and miscellaneous patterns).

The leapfrog pattern occurs when a child skips from section to section in the story, leaving out important parts, unintentionally making it difficult for the listener to understand what originally happened. In the chronological pattern, a simple description of chronological events is given by simply stating the events as they successively happened (i.e., simple a-b format). The impoverished pattern may include the two consecutive clauses as required to formulate a narrative, but contain so little description that a subject matter or arrangement cannot be identified. The speaker will then continue to repeat these two ideas several times. The disoriented pattern occurs when the narrative structure is befuddled and confused to the point where the listener simply cannot comprehend the story. Any narrative sample that could potentially fit into one or more of these categories would be described as miscellaneous. Narratives that are completely fiction are also included in the miscellaneous category (Peterson & McCabe, 1983).

There are several essential components that result in a coherent and successful narrative. According to McCabe and Bliss (2003), appropriate narrative production requires the following six elements: topic maintenance, event sequencing, conjunctive cohesion, referencing, fluency, and informativeness. Topic maintenance refers to the ability to focus on a central theme. Event sequencing is placing events in a sequential or meaningful order. Referencing is the ability to refer to appropriate characters, places, characteristics, and events. Conjunctive cohesion is the use of linking words or phrases (e.g., and, but), which can provide both semantic information (e.g., causality or temporality) and pragmatic information (e.g., to change the focus or end the

event). Fluency refers to how the narrative is actually presented (e.g., false starts, fillers, repetitions, self-corrections). Informativeness is the overall “completeness of a story, conveying the important facts, “optional details,” and the use of “description, action, and evaluation” (McCabe & Bliss, 2003).

To gauge a child’s narrative as age-appropriate, it is important to understand when narrative characteristics occur during development. The leapfrog pattern typically occurs at age 4, and the ending-at-high-point at 5 years. Children should be producing classic narrative patterns by 6 years. Beyond the age of 6, children should be able to produce a classic narrative structure (McCabe & Bliss, 2003). The chronological structure may occur at any age, and is considered an appropriate but simple narrative structure. The impoverished, disoriented, and miscellaneous structures do not appear at any particular age (McCabe & Rollins, 1994; Peterson & McCabe, 1983). Children begin developing the skill of topic maintenance by 3 years, with mastery around early elementary school. Children should be able to properly sequence events in a story by age 5, and provide conjunctive cohesion around 4 to 6 years. Fluency should develop around 5 to 6 years of age, and children start to reference anywhere from 5 to 7 years. By the age of 9, a child’s narrative should provide appropriate informativeness (McCabe & Bliss, 2003). An effective adolescent or adult narrative should include all six elements.

As children continue to develop into adolescence, their cognitive abilities change and improve, which in turn allows them to produce more complex narratives. Older children begin to shift from using concrete to abstract thinking (Santrock, 1996; Schickedanz, Schickedanz, Forsyth, & Forsyth, 2001). This shift allows older children to engage in “hypothetical-deductive reasoning,” and to use abstract thinking to solve and talk about complicated problems. To tell more complex stories, older children begin to use more complex syntax and longer sentences in

general (Nippold et al., 2014). By adulthood, narratives may include a much more complex web of background information and character evaluative statements. They also include more “lexical markers and plot-advancing sequentiality,” (i.e., cohesion and coherence; Sebastian & Slobin, 1994). Adult narratives also differ from child narratives in that they typically include more generalizations about what has happened and what will happen, as well as recapitulations of what has happened and brief summaries of what will happen before going into greater detail (Sebastian & Slobin, 1994).

Bilingual Development of Foundational Skills for Narrative Language

Becoming proficient in either or both L1 and L2 may be difficult for the bilingual child, who is simultaneously learning two languages. A bilingual child may face additional challenges if he or she is not proficient in the primary language when the second language is being developed (Cárdenas-Hagan & Carlson, 2007).

McCabe and Bliss (2005) advocate that personal narratives, rather than narratives elicited by picture books, should be used in assessment of a bilingual child. As with English speakers, a personal narrative comes from the bilingual child himself, and does not require the child to use any unfamiliar concepts, which will be a more accurate depiction of the child’s language and discourse abilities (McCabe & Bliss, 2005). Therefore, when analyzing personal narrative, it is important to consider a bilingual child’s length and type of exposure to L1 and L2 as well as cultural variations and linguistic differences.

Exposures to L1 and L2. Hammer et al. (2012) found that the length and timing of exposures to L1 and L2 was a significant contributor to bilingual development. In the study, 191 Latino families completed the Background and Language Questionnaire, which provided information on the children’s exposure to both Spanish and English, as well as parent

educational status and demographic characteristics. Subtests in the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey – Revised, which included vocabulary and story recall in both English and Spanish, were administered to the participating children to gauge their vocabulary and story recall abilities in both Spanish and English. Performance on the subtests depended on many factors (e.g., age of exposure, conversational partners) that affected the children’s oral language proficiency in either Spanish or English.

The results of this study found that the longer a child lived in the United States, the higher his or her English vocabulary, substantiating that residing in a primarily English-speaking region helped increase English vocabulary and proficiency. Exposure to only Spanish during infancy and to English once in school also appeared to solidify the foundation for a child’s Spanish proficiency. In general, the study revealed the potential importance and timing of exposure to the secondary language in bilingual children and the level of impact the exposure may have on the development of both L1 and L2 (Hammer et al., 2012).

Gutiérrez-Clellen (2002) found that sampling a child’s oral narrative production may reveal language preparedness for the academic setting, as well as measure progress in expressive language in bilingual children. The study included 33 typically developing 7 and 8-year-old children of Mexican-American or Puerto Rican descent. The participants were prompted to produce spontaneous narrative samples from two different wordless picture books and recall two stories. Twenty-eight of the 33 participants were educated in both Spanish and English at school, while the remaining children received instruction only in English. All but one child was born in the United States, and parent education ranged from less than 6 years to more than 13 years. To participate in the study, the children had to be exposed to Spanish in the home at least 20% of the time.

The wordless picture book *Frog, Where Are You* (Mayer, 1969) was used to elicit the English narrative, while *Frog Goes to Dinner* (Mayer, 1974) was used for the Spanish narrative; both samples were used to assess each child's proficiency in both English and Spanish. The students were then asked to recall two stories: *The Tiger's Whisker* (Stein & Glenn, 1979) in English, and *El Naufragio*, or *Shipwrecked* (Verdick, 1973), in Spanish. Factual questions (e.g., who or what), and inferential questions (e.g., why and what if), were asked in a story comprehension task. Transcriptions of the story recalls were completed in the SALT program and segmented into events: setting, initiating event, internal response, attempt, direct consequence, and reaction (Gutiérrez-Clellen, 2002). Story comprehension answers were also transcribed.

The study found that all participants struggled more with the comprehension and recall of the Spanish stories than with English stories, but in general performed age-appropriately. The greatest differences were seen in the narrative recall task. Most children tended to perform better in English than in Spanish. Most of the children were able to produce coherent narratives that included important events and consequences. Many children struggled in recalling a story, focusing so much on remembering all of the elements and the complex grammar that they tended to omit important narrative elements. Common errors included the omission of the important events, effects from the story's conflict, and the addition of superfluous information.

Most of the participants exhibited better narrative recalls in English than in Spanish. Thus, Gutiérrez-Clellen (2002) found that children who are bilingual might not perform equally on a narrative proficiency task in both languages. Most of the children were able to generate adequate grammar, even at the most limited level of proficiency, in both languages. This demonstrated that the children were able to transfer their knowledge of one language to

successfully use the second. A majority of the students performed better in their second language, English. These results might be influenced by English being the greater focus in bilingual classroom programs.

Linguistic and Cultural Differences in Narrative. The linguistic and cultural rules of L1 can affect the manner in which a narrative is produced in L2. A child's narrative may reflect his or her individual culture, rather than what is expected of a typical story told in American English (McCabe & Bliss, 2005). According to Melzi (2000), the goals of discourse between a child and parent are particular to the "cultural beliefs, values, and expectations of a community." The first language of a bilingual child or adult could affect narratives told in the second language. For example, Chen and Yan (2011) investigated the use of evaluative statements in English monolingual and Chinese-English bilingual children and adults. The study found that both monolinguals and bilinguals used more evaluative statements as they grew into adulthood. However, the Chinese-English bilinguals used more evaluative statements in English than the English monolinguals, possibly indicating that their native language, in which evaluative statements were more common, had an effect on narrative production in their second language.

Typical narratives of native English speakers tend to place importance on sequencing and inclusion of specific events, or actions, and grammatical elements (e.g., setting, conflict, and resolution; Melzi, 2000). Narratives of native Spanish speakers generally emphasize orientations (e.g., setting), descriptions, and internal responses (i.e., evaluations), instead of placing focus on specific events and sequencing (Silva & McCabe, 1996; Melzi, 2000; McCabe & Bliss, 2008). Due to the lack of importance placed on sequencing, Spanish narratives also do not focus using the specific past tense, but rather include more past progressive verbs (e.g., "was walking"). Using past progressives is a typical characteristic of the Spanish language (Sebastian & Slobin,

1994; as cited in McCabe & Bliss, 2004). The past tense may not be used at all; rather, Latino children may also be prone to using the present tense when giving information about the past (Sebastian & Slobin, 1994). In addition, topic maintenance is strongly emphasized in Spanish narratives, as Latino mothers stress maintaining the conversation in general, rather than a specific event (McCabe & Bliss, 2008).

Conversational partners can greatly influence children's language development. Latino mothers place a considerable amount of emphasis on helping their children become *bien educados* (Melzi, 2000). Although this term is literally translated as "well educated" in English, Latino mothers place another meaning on the term. *Bien educado* does not only mean well educated, but it also means well versed in conversation and social expectations. Therefore, Latino mothers place importance on effective discourse skills. Spanish-speaking mothers also tend to prompt narratives about family members and routines, often including extended family as well, and tend not to prompt conversation about specific past events (Melzi, 2000; Silva & McCabe, 1996). In addition, Hammer et al. (2012) found that mothers appeared to be influential in recall tasks. Mothers and teachers who read to their children in English helped to build a basis for the child's developing narrative skills. However, children tended to believe that fathers and teachers valued speaking English more than mothers. Therefore, the child's conversational partner played a role in the development of L1 and L2.

Melzi (2000) conducted a study with 31 mothers and their preschool children born in Central America who spoke predominantly Spanish in the home, and 15 native-born European American mothers who spoke only English and their preschool children, none of whom had any known communication disorder. The participants were visited in their homes by a bilingual researcher and mothers were asked to converse with their children, discussing recent events in

the children's lives. A total of four events were discussed: two about shared experiences between the mother and child, and two experienced only by the child. The researcher asked the mothers to start a conversation about one particular experience at a time, and to refrain from drawing from films or stories.

The narrative samples were analyzed using four different categories: quantitative narrative measures, types of prompts, conversational functions of prompts, and types of narrative information (Melzi, 2000). The quantitative narrative measures analyzed the mothers' conversation using number of words and mean length of utterance (i.e., the average number of words utilized in one utterance). Types of prompts used by the mothers included closed-ended questions (i.e., a question receiving a yes or no response), open-ended questions, (i.e., wh questions), memory prompts (e.g., reminding the child that something happened in the recent past and asking about it), statements (e.g., giving the child specific information), and other elements of the discourse that were non-narrative. Conversational function of prompts included initiations, elaboration, maintenance through repetition, maintenance through other devices (e.g., using interactional markers) and other functions, or guiding the child through the conversation. Narrative elements included description, event, evaluation, reported speech, and generic (e.g., an utterance that continued discourse, but did not fit into any other category for the mothers' speech).

Melzi (2000) discovered no significant differences in the length of discourse between the mothers of the two cultures. Both Central American and European American mothers utilized a comparable amount of statements. However, there were many cultural differences in the manner in which both groups of mothers encouraged and helped their children form narratives. The European American mothers chose to encourage continuation of events only the child

experienced by asking closed-ended questions. This group of mothers also emphasized a chronological, single event in their children's narratives, placing great importance on correct narrative sequencing and structure. Overall, the European American mothers were very active in building the narrative, participating in their children's stories as co-narrators. In contrast, the Central American mothers tended to ask their children open-ended questions. Emphasis was also placed on encouraging the Central American children to transition from event to event to create a whole narrative. The Central American mothers were less directly involved in their children's storytelling, choosing to listen to their narratives, rather than co-construct them. In effect, the Central American mothers were more active listeners.

Linguistic and cultural differences can affect the manner in which an individual produces a personal narrative. However, attitude towards L1 or L2 could also have a potential impact on narrative language. Attitude can drive language use, and vice versa, which could strengthen or weaken the influence one language has over another for a bilingual speaker.

Attitude towards Language

Attitude towards the primary or secondary language may play a role in general language and narrative development of either L1 or L2. The socio-educational model of second language acquisition (Gardner, 2006) provides several assumptions in the process of learning two languages, all pertaining to attitude and motivation. First is that learning a second language is an arduous task that requires a hefty time commitment. The second is that while natural ability of language acquisition plays a great role in L2 proficiency, so does individual motivation. These attitudes are in turn affected by environmental elements (e.g., cultural, social, academic). Cummins (1976) stated that logically, students who feel positively about a second language would succeed in that L2, while a negative view of L2 may contribute to a child failing to reach

proficiency in two languages. However, this view did not consider the effects of attitude specifically on proficiency of L1.

According to Spolsky (1989), attitudes have the power to drive any decision or action, and can be divided into two categories. The first is integrative motivation, which is based on the desire to join a particular language group. Gardner (2006) described the concept of “integrativeness” as the willingness to apply aspects of a different linguistic culture to one’s own social behavior. The second is instrumental motivation, which is the acquisition of a second language due to economic or class desires (e.g., finding employment). Both integrative and instrumental motivations impact language acquisition and use in different settings (i.e., academic or social contexts; Maietta, 1996).

A bilingual speaker’s attitude towards both L1 and L2 could potentially affect the manner in which he presents his personality to others. Koven (2004) investigated the differences in narrative production of a young bilingual adult in both her native language of Portuguese and her second language of French. The young woman preferred French, commenting that she felt she could not adequately express herself using Portuguese because she had access to more colloquial and vulgar language in French. When observed by strangers, the young woman seemed like a different person when telling the same story in Portuguese and in French. In Portuguese, the young woman merely explained the sequence of events, lacking in any specific and emotional language. In French, the young woman appeared to unfamiliar listeners as an angry personality, using colorful and descriptive language to describe a fight with her mother. This study found that preferred language could have an effect on attitude, and thusly, on conveyance of personality (Koven, 2004). This study cannot provide any definitive conclusions due to small sample size.

However, it does raise an intriguing question; does attitude towards a language affect the manner in which it is spoken?

Language Setting and Attitude. When considering language attitude, it is important to acknowledge that primary languages hold varying social statuses in different regions. Some regions feel a strong national pride for their native languages. However, others do not feel as positively about them. García (2014) argued that, although there is no official language spoken in the United States, the United States overwhelmingly encourages the use of English, particularly in the academic setting. English may be considered by many English monolinguals as the *lingua franca*, or primary language of the United States. Due to this favoritism towards English, educational policies in the U.S. may portray a negative attitude towards Spanish-English bilingualism. Despite the negative sentiments that sometimes surround bilingualism in the United States, the U.S. Department of Education has sought to increase Spanish programs in schools. However, these programs have not been entirely successful, possibly due to the fact that English monolingualism is still considered to be an important part of the American identity, and that Spanish is a foreign language that should “be kept separate from English” (García, 2014, p. 60). Negative attitudes towards Spanish in the academic setting could potentially impact how a Spanish-English bilingual child feels about Spanish.

The setting in which a language is learned and used may contribute to behaviors toward language such as attitude, anxiety, desire to use the language, and level of confidence in using it. According to the socio-educational model (Gardner, 2006), the setting in which a language is learned and practiced is also considered a factor in the acquisition process. Theoretically, there are essentially two settings of L2 acquisition: social and academic.

Another related model for native Spanish speakers includes two different language settings, or “domains:” private and public (Maietta, 1996). The private domain consists of home or church environments. Bilingual students may primarily use Spanish in the home or with family, particularly when Spanish is the primary or sole language spoken in the home. The public domain consists of social environments. Particularly in the academic setting, teachers may have an influence on which language children will tend to speak more. If a teacher encourages solely English use in the classroom, children may be apt to speak more English than Spanish in general (Maietta, 1996). As bilingual children spend more time at school, their interactions with English monolingual peers increases. This exposure encourages use of English in public, social settings, in addition to school. In fact, use of L2 in this social context may overshadow continued use of L1 because of the importance of forming friendships and engaging in typical competition with peers. In as little as three years, a child can alter linguistic preference from the home language to L2 or peer language. Peer influence can be so strong that bilingual children may begin to refuse to speak their L1 at home altogether. However, bilingual children may retain L1 comprehension when hearing it. Parents may speak Spanish to their children, while the children answer in English (Oller, Jarmulowicz, Pearson, & Cobo-Lewis, 2010). The weight of peer influence on secondary language use could diminish use of the primary language.

Assessment of Language Attitude. Evaluating attitude and motivation, as well as the amount and setting of language use, may be helpful in determining a community’s language priorities considering education, employment, and public amenities (e.g., public signs). There are some established assessments that evaluate students’ attitude towards second language acquisition. The *Attitude/Motivation Test Battery* (AMTB; Gardner, 1985) was created in order to assess components of the socio-educational model of second language acquisition. The AMTB

consists of five categories (i.e., integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, language anxiety, and instrumentality), each of which contains one to three scales (for 11 scales total). Participants rate their perceptions of and attitudes towards English based on several questions in the AMTB survey. However, both the socio-educational model and the AMTB focus strictly on L2 (i.e., English). The survey does not include perceptions of L1 (i.e., Spanish), or the maintenance of L1 in bilingual children.

Baker (1992) developed an attitude questionnaire for bilingual students that evaluates attitude towards both L1 (Welsh) and L2 (English). This survey was designed for Welsh-English students, and assessed the following areas: gender, age, language background, type of school, youth culture, language attitudes towards Welsh, language attitudes towards bilingualism, and language ability. The questionnaire used a 5-point scale to rate responses (i.e., very often, fairly often, sometimes, rarely, or never). Seven hundred and ninety-seven Welsh children ranging in age from 11 to 18 years from three different schools participated in the study. Approximately 44% were girls, and 57% were boys. Approximately 50% of the participants rated themselves as having average proficiency in Welsh. By conducting correlational analyses on the questionnaire results, Baker (1992) found that there were relationships between gender, age, language background and extra-curricular activities. Baker (1992) discovered that extra-curricular activities played an integral role in students' attitudes toward the Welsh language. Extra-curricular activities provided social contexts in which to use Welsh, and this kind of exposure held a stronger influence over attitudes than the background exposure or level of proficiency. The social immersion of extra-curricular activities motivated students to maintain the less widely used Welsh language. Essentially there were two environments within youth culture, those involving Welsh culture, and those involving popular society. These findings suggest that L2,

being in many cases English, is widely used in social, public contexts. In contrast, L1 is often used in more private settings, such as in the home or at religious events.

Maietta (1996) replicated Baker's study, investigating the effects of attitude on native Spanish-speaking students living in the United States. The questionnaire was modified to fit the Spanish-speaking population, and included the following categories based on Likert scales: youth culture, language background and use, attitudes toward the use, value, and status of Spanish, attitudes toward the use, value, and status of English, general attitudes towards Spanish, and attitudes towards bilingualism. Essentially, the modified questionnaire assessed language use in different settings and attitude towards Spanish, English, and bilingualism.

The modified questionnaire was given to 217 participants, ranging from 10 to 20 years of age. Approximately half of the participants had parents born in Mexico. Sixty-eight percent of participating students were born in the United States. Participants were asked to rate their language proficiency. From their responses, it was determined that 18% of the participants were Spanish dominant, 41.5% were English dominant, and 19% were bilingual. Data was analyzed by frequency and through factor analysis. Responses in the youth culture category revealed that students deemed social activities, literary and sports activities, and activities related to family as the most important. Approximately half of the participants related speaking mostly Spanish with grandparents, one-third speaking mostly Spanish with parents, and only 10% using Spanish with friends and siblings. Generally, participants conveyed positive or neutral attitudes toward both English and Spanish. However, attitudes toward English were more positive than Spanish. This could be explained by a socio-economic influence on bilingual children to shift from identifying themselves with the Spanish language to the English language. A bilingual American may not

feel negatively about his native language, but there are more economic advantages to identifying with English (Zentella, 1990).

Questionnaires can be an effective way to assess attitude towards language, particularly in a region with controversial views on bilingualism. In addition to a questionnaire, personal interviews can be beneficial to assessing bilingual attitude. Cherciov (2012) investigated the relationship between attitude and L1 attrition in Romanian-Canadian English bilingual migrants in Canada, using both a questionnaire and personal interviews. Participants included 20 Romanian-Canadian English bilinguals, and two control groups consisting of 15 Romanian monolinguals and 15 Canadian English monolinguals. Bilingual participants migrated from Romania after the age of 17 and lived in Canada for at least 10 years.

To assess attitude, participants were given a personal background questionnaire, consisting of questions related to social history, language use in various settings and attitude towards language. Questions were divided into two categories, *language choice* (e.g., language setting and partners) and *language contact* (e.g., amount of use), as both potentially affect language attitude. In addition, participants were interviewed and asked to share information regarding their lives in both Romania and Canada, language use in various settings, perceptions of L1 proficiency and struggles with L2 acquisition. Open-ended questions were used during the interviews in order to obtain more in-depth information about the participants. To assess general proficiency, a C-test (i.e., a written task with missing word endings) and a verbal fluency (VF) task (i.e., a task involving rapid naming of category items) were administered in both Romanian and English. In addition, two panels consisting of 10 Romanian monolingual judges and 10 English monolinguals rated participants' proficiency on a four-point Likert scale after listening

to the bilinguals' provide a one-minute narration of the film *Modern Times*. The Likert scale was used to judge whether a participant sounded like a native Romanian or native English speaker.

Two of the Romanian-Canadian English bilinguals were identified as L1 attriters (i.e., someone who has lost proficiency in L1) by the C-test and VF task. Both attriters received high attitude, choice and contact scores on the questionnaire. However, one attriter expressed both negative and positive attitudes in her interview, differing from her results of the questionnaire. She reported rarely using L1 and expressed the importance she placed on integrating into the Canadian English culture. In contrast, she also expressed a desire to teach her children both Romanian and English, even though she rarely used Romanian since moving to Canada. The second attriter, though she had a positive attitude towards Romanian, lost some proficiency through disuse and convenience of English. These results indicated that, while questionnaires do provide salient information in a range of topics, personal interviews allow the bilingual person to express true emotional connections to either L1 or L2. For this reason, questionnaires and interviews should be used in tandem in order to obtain a complete evaluation of language attitude and proficiency (Cherciov, 2012).

Rationale

Personal narratives differ in structure across cultures and languages. Generally, native Spanish speakers tell stories to maintain a conversation, not focusing on the inclusion of all story elements. Internal responses and descriptions tend to be emphasized in Spanish narratives. In addition, native Spanish speakers tend to produce narratives using the present tense when telling a story about the past. In contrast, native English speakers place more importance on telling a story that includes all elements and chronological sequencing of those elements (Silva &

McCabe, 1996; McCabe & Bliss, 2008). Native English speakers also generally use only the past tense (Sebastian & Slobin, 1994).

These linguistic and cultural differences in narrative production could also potentially reflect a child's attitude towards L1 or L2. The attitude a child holds towards either L1 or L2 could have an effect on his narrative development in either language. Gardner (2006) argued that learning a second language is a demanding task, the development of which is greatly affected by the environment. Although it is not the official language, English is the dominant language used in social and academic settings in the United States; therefore, bilingual children must learn English proficiently in order to interact with peers and succeed in school. Bilingual children are also intrinsically motivated to learn and use L2 in order to maintain social relationships and find employment in a predominantly English-speaking society (Gardner, 2006). However, there is no research that describes the environmental and internal factors' (i.e., self-motivated) effect on attitude and proficiency of L1. There is also a lack of research on adolescent bilingual production of English narratives. It is important to consider a child's native language and culture, as the integrity of that linguistic culture should be preserved in the United States. Thus, the purpose of the current study is to investigate the effect of L2 usage in academic and social settings on attitude towards home language in bilingual Spanish-English adolescents in the United States. In addition, the study evaluates the possible effects of home language attitude on the structure of a personal narrative produced by bilingual Spanish-English adolescents. The following research questions are examined:

- I. Are there differences between:
 - a. Language use (i.e., frequency of Spanish or English) in various settings (i.e., home, school, and community)?

- b. Self-rated language proficiency and language use in various settings?
 - c. Language use in various settings and attitude towards language (i.e., positive, neutral, or negative)?
 - d. Attitude towards Spanish, English, and bilingualism?
- II. To what extent are the following Spanish narrative features in a narrative produced in English:
- a. Linguistic features (i.e., code switching, verb tense)?
 - b. Cultural features (i.e., element types, element sequencing)?
- III. Is frequency of Spanish features in English narratives related to:
- a. Spanish attitude?
 - b. English attitude?

Chapter III

Methods

Research Design

This descriptive study included between-subjects and within-subjects comparisons of bilingual high school students' responses on a questionnaire and language use when telling a personal narrative in English. The between-subjects analysis compared students' self-perceived attitude towards a secondary language (English) and a home language (Spanish), and differences in narrative structure across participants. The within-subjects analysis compared the self-perceived language use and attitude in the questionnaire to the personal narrative structure of each student.

Participants

Participants were recruited from Arcola High School in Arcola, Illinois. Approximately 42% of the Arcola school district's students are Hispanic (Illinois State Board of Education [ISBE], 2014). As of 2010, about 30% of the population in Arcola (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010), Illinois are of Hispanic origin, as compared to 20% in 2000 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). To be included in the study, participants had to identify as Hispanic, and reside in homes where Spanish was spoken. Typical cognitive abilities were also required, as reported by classroom teachers. Eleven students participated in the study, 8 girls and 3 boys. The average age of the participants was 16-years, 7-months. Nine of the 11 participants qualified for free or reduced lunch. All students were placed in regular education classrooms.

Procedures

This study was granted approval by the Institutional Review Board at Eastern Illinois University. Before data was collected, consent was obtained from the students' parent or legal guardian. Consent forms were provided in Spanish for parents who were not sufficiently proficient in English.

All participants were given a language questionnaire to be filled out at home and returned to the school. The questionnaire used was an abbreviated version of one first developed for Welsh speakers by Baker (1992) and modified for Spanish speakers by Maietta (1996). Questions about both English and Spanish were divided into the following sections: Proficiency Self-Rating, Language Use and Setting, and Language Attitude. For the complete questionnaire, see Appendix A.

The Proficiency Self-Rating section consisted of two self-rating scales of language proficiency, one for Spanish proficiency and one for English proficiency. Participants could rate proficiency of each language: a) near the top; b) better than average; c) about average; d) below average; e) near the bottom. The Language Use and Setting section consisted of a list of conversational partners and a list of situations, and a rating scale for which language the participants spoke or listened to with each partner and in each situation. Questions included: a) in which language do you speak to the following people; b) in which language do the following people speak to you; c) which language do you use when doing the following? Participants could answer: a) always in Spanish; b) in Spanish more often than English; c) in Spanish and English equally; d) in English more often than Spanish; e) always in English.

The Language Attitude section was divided into two parts, the first of which consisted of different situations and how important Spanish and English were in each situation. Participants

could answer: a) important; b) somewhat important; c) does not matter; d) somewhat unimportant; e) unimportant. The second portion of the Language Attitude section consisted of various statements about bilingualism and a rating scale for level of agreement with those statements. Participants could answer: a) strongly agree; b) agree; c) neither agree nor disagree; d) disagree; e) strongly disagree.

Each participant provided a narrative sample in English during one school day. Students were given the prompt: “Tell me a story about your favorite vacation or trip.” Further prompting, “Tell me more details about a particular event or experience you had during the trip,” was given, if necessary. Each sample was audio recorded, transcribed using the Systematic Analysis of Language Transcripts (SALT) program, and coded for linguistic and cultural differences. Each utterance in the English narrative samples was coded for linguistic and cultural differences. Linguistic codes included code switching (CDS) and verb tense (VBT). Cultural codes included element type (EMT), and element sequencing (EMS). See Appendix B for complete code descriptions.

Data Analysis

The items of the use and setting section of the questionnaire were coded for setting (i.e., home, school, community). A 5-point scale was used to score participants’ responses. Five points were awarded for always using Spanish in a given setting, four points for using Spanish more often than English, three points for using Spanish and English equally, two points for using English more often than Spanish, and one point for always using English. The attitude portion of the questionnaire was divided into Spanish attitude, English attitude, and bilingual attitude. A 5-point scale was also used to assess attitude. Five points were awarded for a strongly positive

attitude, four points for a positive attitude, three points for a neutral attitude, two points for a negative attitude, and one point for a strongly negative attitude.

Participants could receive a total of 70 points for home items. To be classified as using mostly Spanish at home, participants must have received a score of at least 50 points.

Participants needed to receive a score between 30 and 50 points to be considered equal users of Spanish and English at home. Participants were considered to use mostly English at home with a score of 30 points or less. A total of 35 points were available for school items. To be classified as using mostly Spanish at school, participants must have received a score of at least 25 points.

Participants needed to receive a score between 15 and 25 points to be considered equal users of Spanish and English at school. Participants were considered to use mostly English at school with a score of 15 points or less. Participants could receive a total of 40 points for community items.

To be classified as using mostly Spanish in the community, participants must have received a score of at least 30 points. Participants needed to receive a score between 20 and 30 points to be considered equal users of Spanish and English in the community. Participants were considered to use mostly English in the community with a score of 20 points or less. The following table provides a summary of score equivalents for language use and setting.

Language Use and Setting Score Equivalents

	Home	School	Community
Mostly Spanish	50 or more	25 or more	30 or more
Equally Spanish and English	Between 30-50	Between 15-25	Between 20-30
Mostly English	30 or less	15 or less	20 or less

Participants could receive a total of 160 points for Spanish attitude items. To be considered as having a positive attitude towards Spanish, participants needed to receive 110 points or more for Spanish attitude items. To be considered as neutral towards Spanish, participants needed to receive a score between 65 and 110 points for Spanish attitude items. For

participants to be classified as having a negative attitude towards Spanish, they needed to receive a score of 65 points or less for Spanish attitude items.

A total of 85 points were available for the English attitude items. For participants to be classified as having a positive attitude towards English, they needed to receive 60 points or more for the English attitude items. To be considered as having a neutral attitude towards English, participants need to receive a score between 35 and 60 points on English attitude items. To be considered as having a negative attitude towards English, participants needed to receive a score of 35 points or less for English attitude items.

Participants could receive a total of 70 points for bilingual attitude items. In order to be classified as having a positive attitude towards bilingualism, participants needed to receive a score of 50 points or more for bilingual attitude items. To be considered as having a neutral attitude towards bilingualism, participants needed to receive between 30 and 50 points for bilingual attitude items. To be considered as having a negative attitude towards bilingualism, participants needed to receive 30 points or less for bilingual attitude items. The following table provides a summary of score equivalents for attitude.

Attitude Score Equivalents

	Spanish	English	Bilingualism
Positive	110 or more	60 or more	50 or more
Neutral	66-109	36-59	31-49
Negative	65 or less	35 or less	30 or less

Each utterance in the English narrative samples was coded for Spanish linguistic and cultural differences. Linguistic codes included code switching (CDS) and verb tense (VBT). The CDS code was used if an utterance included Spanish words. The VBT code was used if an utterance included verbs in the present tense. Cultural codes included element type (EMT) and element sequencing (EMS). The EMT code was used if a narrative frequently contained

orientation and evaluation statements, and few other elements. The EMT code was given if a narrative contained only orientation and evaluation statements, or if the number of orientation and evaluation statements exceeded the combined number of all other elements (i.e., introduction, conflict, resolution, coda). The EMS code was used if a narrative did not follow a traditional American-English progression, or chronological sequence.

Each code was placed on a continuum of low to high frequency. Frequency results were then compared to the participants' attitude towards Spanish (i.e., positive, neutral, or negative), as reported by the language questionnaire. In addition, percentages of feature frequency were compared to the participants' attitude towards English (i.e., positive, neutral, or negative).

Reliability

All samples were transcribed by a graduate speech-language pathology student, and then reviewed by an undergraduate speech-language pathology student to evaluate inter-rater reliability for 100% of the samples. The same graduate student and undergraduate student also independently coded each narrative sample, and then compared codes to resolve any discrepancies for 100% of the samples.

Chapter IV

Results

The purpose of the current study was to examine the effect of L2 usage in academic and social settings on attitude towards home language in bilingual Spanish-English adolescents in the United States. The study also evaluated the possible effects of home language attitude on the structure of a personal narrative produced by bilingual Spanish-English adolescents.

Questionnaire results were analyzed with narrative samples to investigate the possible relationship between language use, attitude, and narrative language. A graduate student in speech-language pathology collected questionnaires and narrative samples in the spring of 2015. The questionnaires were scored by use in each setting, and by attitude towards each language. Each English narrative was coded for grammatic elements, as well as for components typical of narratives in Spanish. Results are presented by individual data from the questionnaire and narrative sample, as well as group trends.

Individual Language Questionnaire Results

Participants rated their proficiency in Spanish and English as near the top (NTT), better than average (BTA), about average (AA), below average (BA), or near the bottom (NB). All participants who rated their proficiency viewed their Spanish skills as average or above. Four participants rated their Spanish proficiency as near the top, 4 as better than average, and 2 as about average. One participant did not indicate a self-rated Spanish proficiency level. Likewise, all participants who rated their proficiency indicated that their English skills were average or above. Six participants rated their English proficiency as near the top, 1 as better than average. One participant did not indicate a self-rated English proficiency level. Table 1 provides individual results of the Self-Rated Proficiency section of the questionnaire.

Table 1. Individual Results of the Questionnaire Self-Rated Proficiency Section

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
English	BTA	AA	NTT	BTA	NTT	BTA	NTT	--	BTA	NTT	AA
Spanish	NTT	AA	NTT	NTT	AA	NTT	NTT	--	AA	BTA	NTT

AA - about average; BTA - better than average; NTT - near the top

Language use in each of three settings (i.e., home, school, community) was scored using a 5-point scale (i.e., 5 points for always using Spanish, 4 points for using Spanish more often than English, 3 points for equally using Spanish and English, 2 points for using English more often than Spanish, and 1 point for always using English). Six of the 11 participants identified as using mostly Spanish at home, and the remaining 5 identified as using Spanish and English equally. At school, all 11 participants identified as using mostly English. Four of the 11 students identified as using Spanish and English equally in the community (e.g., with neighbors), and the remaining 7 identified as using mostly English in the community. Table 2 provides individual results of the Language Use section of the questionnaire.

Table 2. Individual Results of the Questionnaire Language Use Section

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Home	Equal	Equal	MS	Equal	MS	Equal	MS	Equal	MS	MS	MS
School	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME	ME
Community	Equal	Equal	ME	ME	Equal	ME	ME	ME	Equal	ME	ME

ME - mostly English; Equal - English and Spanish equally; MS - mostly Spanish

Language attitude for Spanish, English, and bilingualism was scored using a 5-point scale (i.e., 5 points for a very positive response, 3 points for an indifferent response, and 1 point for a very negative response). None of the participants identified on the questionnaire as having a negative attitude towards Spanish, English, or bilingualism. Eight of the 11 participants identified as having a positive attitude towards Spanish, and the remaining three students identified as having a neutral attitude towards Spanish. Nine of the 11 participants identified as having a positive attitude towards English, and two students identified as having a neutral

attitude. Eight of the 11 participants identified as having a positive attitude towards bilingualism in general, and the remaining three students identified as having a neutral attitude. Table 3 provides individual results of the Language Attitude section of the questionnaire.

Table 3. Individual Results of the Questionnaire Attitude Section

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Spanish	+	+	=	+	+	=	+	+	+	=	+
English	=	+	+	+	+	+	=	+	+	+	+
Bilingualism	+	+	+	=	+	+	=	+	+	=	+

(+) - positive; (=) - neutral

Individual Narrative Results

Each utterance in the narrative samples was coded for grammatic elements, as well as coded for the linguistic differences (i.e., code switching and present verb tense). Each narrative as a whole was coded for cultural differences (i.e., element type and element sequencing). Percentages of frequency of linguistic features in individual narratives were calculated. None of the participants included code switching in his or her narrative sample. Four of the 11 participants included one or more utterance using the present verb tense. Participant 3 used the present tense in 10% of utterances. Participant 7 used the present tense in 5% of utterances. Participant 8 used the present tense in 30% of utterances, and Participant 10 used it in 5% of utterances. Of the 11 narratives, 6 were coded as element type, or using more orientation and evaluation statements. Of the 11 narratives, 6 were coded as element sequencing, or providing elements in a non-sequential manner typical of a narrative in English. Table 4 provides individual results of the narrative samples.

Table 4. Individual Results of the Narrative Samples

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Code Switching	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Verb Tense	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	3	0	3	0
Element Type	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Element Sequencing	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No

Group Comparison Results

Three of the 11 participants did not display any of the linguistic and cultural differences used for this study. All of the students, regardless of the presence of linguistic and cultural features in the narrative samples, identified as having either a neutral or positive attitude towards Spanish, English, and bilingualism.

Correlational analyses were completed for all variables using the SPSS software. For more specific correlational analyses, the Spanish attitude section was divided into two parts. The first section consisted of different activities during which Spanish may or may not be important to know and use. The structure of this section was identical to the English attitude portion of the questionnaire, so it was scored using the same 5-point scale as the English attitude section (i.e., Important, Somewhat Important, Does Not Matter, Somewhat Unimportant, Unimportant). Therefore, Spanish section 1 was only analyzed against the English section in SPSS. The second section of Spanish attitude consisted of statements about Spanish use and value. The structure of this section was identical to the bilingual attitude portion, so it was scored using the same 5-point scale as the bilingual attitude section (i.e., Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree Nor Disagree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree). Thus, Spanish section 2 was only analyzed alongside the bilingual section in SPSS. The combined Spanish sections, or total Spanish portion of the language questionnaire, was also analyzed with both the English and bilingual portions.

There was a positive correlation between self-rated English proficiency and use of Spanish in the community setting. However, there were no other significant correlations between self-rated proficiency of Spanish and English, and use in other settings. Table 5 provides analyses of proficiency and use in different settings.

Table 5. Analyses of Self-Rated Proficiency and Use in Different Settings

		Correlations				
		ProfSp	ProfEng	UseHom	UseSch	UseCom
ProfSp	Pearson Correlation	1	.059	-.562	.249	-.274
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871	.091	.488	.444
	N	10	10	10	10	10
ProfEng	Pearson Correlation	.059	1	.050	.569	.743*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871		.892	.086	.014
	N	10	10	10	10	10
UseHom	Pearson Correlation	-.562	.050	1	-.091	.311
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.091	.892		.791	.352
	N	10	10	11	11	11
UseSch	Pearson Correlation	.249	.569	-.091	1	.529
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.488	.086	.791		.094
	N	10	10	11	11	11
UseCom	Pearson Correlation	-.274	.743*	.311	.529	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.444	.014	.352	.094	
	N	10	10	11	11	11

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

ProfSp – Spanish proficiency; ProfEng – English proficiency; UseHome – Use at home; UseSch – Use at school; UseCom – Use in the community

There were no significant correlations between self-rated proficiency of Spanish and English, and attitude. Table 6 provides analyses of proficiency and attitude.

Table 6. Analyses of Self-Rated Proficiency and Language Attitud

		Correlations						
		ProfSp	ProfEng	AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil
ProfSp	Pearson Correlation	1	.059	.456	.036	.456	.567	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871	.186	.922	.185	.088	.699
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
ProfEng	Pearson Correlation	.059	1	.413	.057	.364	.454	-.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871		.236	.877	.301	.187	.728
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	.456	.413	1	-.260	.533	.910**	.474
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.186	.236		.440	.091	.000	.141
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	.036	.057	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.922	.877	.440		.500	.289	.815
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	.456	.364	.533	.228	1	.355	.662*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.185	.301	.091	.500		.284	.026
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	.567	.454	.910**	-.351	.355	1	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.088	.187	.000	.289	.284		.721
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.140	-.126	.474	.080	.662*	.122	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.699	.728	.141	.815	.026	.721	
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

ProfSp – Spanish proficiency; ProfEng – English proficiency; AttSpaTot – Attitude towards Spanish sections 1 and 2; AttEng – Attitude towards English; AttBil – Attitude towards bilingualism; AttSpa1Eng – Attitude towards Spanish section 1; AttSpa2Eng – Attitude towards Spanish section 2

In addition, there were no significant correlations between proficiency of either language and narrative features of Spanish influence. Table 7 provides analyses of proficiency and narrative features.

Table 7. Analyses of Self-Rated Proficiency and Spanish-Influenced Narrative Features
Correlations

		ProfSp	ProfEng	EMT	EMS
ProfSp	Pearson Correlation	1	.059	-.249	-.267
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871	.487	.455
	N	10	10	10	10
ProfEng	Pearson Correlation	.059	1	-.028	-.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871		.940	.760
	N	10	10	10	10
EMT	Pearson Correlation	-.249	-.028	1	.291
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.487	.940		.385
	N	10	10	11	11
EMS	Pearson Correlation	-.267	-.111	.291	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.455	.760	.385	
	N	10	10	11	11

ProfSpan – Spanish proficiency; ProfEng – English proficiency; EMT – Element type code; EMS – Element sequencing code

No significant correlation was found between language use in various settings and attitude. Table 8 provides analyses of use in various settings and attitude.

Table 8. Analyses of Use in Various Settings and Language Attitude

		Correlations							
		UseHom	UseSch	UseCom	AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil
UseHom	Pearson Correlation	1	-.091	.311	-.240	-.320	-.009	-.265	.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.791	.352	.477	.337	.979	.430	.746
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
UseSch	Pearson Correlation	-.091	1	.529	.321	-.531	-.040	.478	-.381
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.791		.094	.336	.092	.906	.137	.247
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
UseCom	Pearson Correlation	.311	.529	1	.332	-.136	.278	.250	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.352	.094		.319	.690	.408	.458	.917
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	-.240	.321	.332	1	-.260	.533	.910 ^{**}	.474
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.477	.336	.319		.440	.091	.000	.141
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	-.320	-.531	-.136	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.337	.092	.690	.440		.500	.289	.815
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	-.009	-.040	.278	.533	.228	1	.355	.662 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.979	.906	.408	.091	.500		.284	.026
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	-.265	.478	.250	.910 ^{**}	-.351	.355	1	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.430	.137	.458	.000	.289	.284		.721
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.111	-.381	.036	.474	.080	.662 [*]	.122	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.746	.247	.917	.141	.815	.026	.721	
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

UseHome – Use at home; UseScho – Use at school; UseCom – Use in the community;
 AttSpaTot – Attitude towards Spanish sections 1 and 2; AttEng – Attitude towards English;
 AttBil – Attitude towards bilingualism; AttSpa1Eng – Attitude towards Spanish section 1;
 AttSpa2Eng – Attitude towards Spanish section 2

A negative correlation was found between attitude towards Spanish and the use of orientation and evaluation statements (EMT) in personal narratives. Table 9 provides analyses of language attitude and the frequency of Spanish-influenced features in narratives.

Table 9. Analyses of Language Attitude and Spanish-Influenced Narrative Features

		Correlations					
		AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil	EMT
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	1	-.260	.533	.910**	.474	-.649*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.440	.091	.000	.141	.031
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.440		.500	.289	.815	.873
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	.533	.228	1	.355	.662*	-.443
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.091	.500		.284	.026	.173
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	.910**	-.351	.355	1	.122	-.458
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.289	.284		.721	.157
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.474	.080	.662*	.122	1	-.512
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.141	.815	.026	.721		.108
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
EMT	Pearson Correlation	-.649*	-.055	-.443	-.458	-.512	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.873	.173	.157	.108	
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

AttSpaTot – Attitude towards Spanish sections 1 and 2; AttEng – Attitude towards English; AttBil – Attitude towards bilingualism; AttSpa1Eng – Attitude towards Spanish section 1; AttSpa2Bil – Attitude towards Spanish section 2; EMT – Element type code

No significant correlation was found between attitude of English and Spanish. However, the mean of the group’s attitude towards English was higher than the mean of Spanish attitude. A positive correlation was found between the group’s attitude towards Spanish and towards bilingualism. Furthermore, the group mean for attitude towards Spanish was higher than the mean for attitude towards bilingualism. Table 10 provides analyses of Spanish 1, Spanish 2,

English, and bilingual attitude. Table 11 provides the descriptive statistics from the analyses (i.e., mean, standard deviation) of Spanish 1, Spanish 2, English, and bilingual attitude.

Table 10. Analyses of Spanish 1, Spanish, 2, English, and Bilingual Attitude

Correlations

		AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil	EMT
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	1	-.260	.533	.910**	.474	-.649*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.440	.091	.000	.141	.031
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.440		.500	.289	.815	.873
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	.533	.228	1	.355	.662*	-.443
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.091	.500		.284	.026	.173
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	.910**	-.351	.355	1	.122	-.458
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.289	.284		.721	.157
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.474	.080	.662*	.122	1	-.512
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.141	.815	.026	.721		.108
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
EMT	Pearson Correlation	-.649*	-.055	-.443	-.458	-.512	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.873	.173	.157	.108	
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

AttSpanTot – Attitude towards Spanish sections 1 and 2; AttEng – Attitude towards English; AttBil – Attitude towards bilingualism; AttSpa1Eng – Attitude towards Spanish section 1; AttSpan2Bil – Attitude towards Spanish section 2

Table 11. Descriptive Statistics of Spanish 1, Spanish 2, English, and Bilingual Attitude

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AttSpaTot	120.4545	15.00242	11
AttEng	68.8182	13.65151	11
AttBil	55.7273	6.82775	11
AttSpa1Eng	57.0000	13.61617	11
AttSpa2Bil	64.3636	5.73189	11
EMT	11.1818	8.48314	11

Chapter V

Discussion

The current study investigated the relationship between L2 usage in the academic and social settings, and attitude towards home language in bilingual Spanish-English adolescents in the United States. In addition, the relationship between home language attitude and the structure of a personal narrative produced by bilingual Spanish-English adolescents was examined. Correlational analyses were completed to determine the presence of relationships between ratings on each of these variables.

Proficiency, Use, and Attitude Analysis

All 11 participants reported their English proficiency as average or better. These results agree with the study conducted by Hammer et al. (2012), which concluded that bilingual children who resided in primarily English-speaking regions for long periods of time tended to have higher proficiencies in English. Specifically, only 4% of bilingual children had difficulty speaking English by age 14 (NCES, 2011). All participants in the current study were aged 14 or above, with an average age of 16-years, 7-months. So, the students' average to high self-rated English proficiency was not a surprising discovery. Furthermore, according to ISBE (2014), only 6% of students at Arcola High School identified as English language learners (ELLs). Due to this low percentage of ELLs in a school with a large Hispanic population (approximately 42%), it may be interpreted that although the participants spoke both English and Spanish, they did not identify as ELLs, but rather identified as English speakers.

Gardner (2006) described two major theoretical settings of L2 acquisition: social and academic. The current study, however, included three distinct settings in which language usage could be analyzed: home, school, and community. These three categories of setting also further

divided the private and public domains described by Maietta (1996), providing more specificity about the changes of participants' language use based on setting. Similar to the study conducted by Maietta (1996), participants in the current study tended to speak more Spanish at home, and more English in academic and social settings. Four of the 11 participants in the current study identified as using an equal amount of Spanish and English in the community setting. This could explain the positive correlation between self-rated English proficiency and use of Spanish in the community setting. Although most participants tended to speak more English in academic and social settings, participants may speak to neighbors and family friends in Spanish, rather than English.

In addition, eight of the 11 participants had a positive view towards English, which aligns with Cummins' (1976) summation that explains bilingual children who feel positively towards L2 will become sufficiently proficient in that language. Specifically, the single participant in the current study who rated English proficiency as better than average also displayed a very positive attitude towards English on the questionnaire. In this study, peer influence did not appear to hinder participants' attitude towards Spanish, as none of the students felt negatively towards Spanish or rated themselves as having less than average Spanish proficiency. In fact, a nearly equal amount of students felt positively towards Spanish (8/11) and English (9/11). In addition, the group mean for Spanish attitude was higher than that of attitude towards bilingualism, which further reinforces the exceptionally high view of Spanish the participants held. When questioned about their feelings towards being bilingual, three participants described Spanish as an advantage to finding employment opportunities. One participant also explained that she used Spanish to tease and joke with her monolingual friends, which indicated that the participant did not feel that Spanish was inappropriate in social settings. This indicated that at least one participant in the

current study did not feel hindered from identifying with Spanish by peer influence. In addition, the majority of the participants (9/11) received free or reduced lunch at school, which may be interpreted as a lower socioeconomic status. In spite of this, none of the participants felt negatively towards Spanish, and all rated themselves as having average or better proficiency in Spanish. This suggests that, unlike those who took part in the study conducted by Maietta (1995), the participants' attitude towards Spanish was not generally influenced by socioeconomic status.

Attitude and Narrative Analysis

Overall, the bilingual participants in this study utilized few features of Spanish influence in their personal narratives told in English. This could be related to the fact that the amount of bilingual students who speak English with difficulty is steadily decreasing (NCES, 2011). It is possible that English language education has improved over time, or that Spanish influence is becoming less prevalent in children's lives as they get older. Although there was a negative correlation found between Spanish attitude and the element type code, six of the 11 participants did tend to use more orientation and evaluation statements, and six participants displayed a lack of typical English element sequencing (Silva & McCabe, 1996; Melzi, 2000; McCabe & Bliss, 2008). These results could be due in part to the nature of the prompt. Asked to tell a story about a memorable vacation, unsurprisingly, the majority of the participants recalled trips with family members. In addition, the participants tended to produce as many details about the trip as possible, rather than to construct a narrative centered on a specific conflict or event. The negative correlation between attitude towards Spanish and the use of orientation and evaluation statements could be explained by such studies as those conducted by Hammer et al. (2012) and Gutiérrez-Clellen (2002). These studies found that early and prolonged exposure to a secondary language will affect its proficiency, which may further result in the proficiency of the secondary language

exceeding the first language proficiency. Although the participants in the current study felt generally positively towards Spanish, frequent and early English exposure could have heavily influenced development of narrative structure.

Limitations and Future Research

Due to the small sample size, there was not a sufficient amount of participants to represent the broader population or to make strong, generalizable correlational analyses. The lack of an English control group also prohibited a comparison of the narratives of the Spanish group to the narratives of native English speakers. Future research could include a control group for better comparison of narrative structure in English.

Providing more specific instructions for the narrative sample might have yielded different story elements. If extensive, specific feedback and prompting was allowed, the students might have produced narratives with developed and varied grammatic elements. In addition, narrative samples were only collected in English. Obtaining narratives in Spanish may have yielded a better comparison of language influence in narrative structure. The current study was unable to determine whether the excessive use of orientation and evaluation statements was due to the open-ended nature of the prompt, or to the fact that the participants might have truly struggled with narrative production. Future research could complete more in-depth analysis of bilingual adolescent narrative production, using a monolingual English control group for comparison.

All participants in the current study rated their proficiency as average or better, and held a neutral or positive attitude towards Spanish. Attitude and proficiency can affect each other; however, it is unclear whether positive attitude results in higher proficiency, or vice versa. Future research could examine changes in attitude and proficiency over time in order to establish a cause/effect relationship between the two variables.

Conclusions and Clinical Implications

Although U.S. schools are heavily dominated by the English language, educational professionals should not overlook a child's native language and culture. There is little research on the cultural and linguistic influence of a child's, particularly an adolescent's, L1 on the development of general language and narrative skills in L2. There is also no research on adolescent bilinguals' production of English narratives, or if attitude towards L1 or L2 affects English narrative structure. As personal narratives provide a more accurate depiction of a child's language and discourse abilities (McCabe & Bliss, 2005), it is important to understand differences in narrative structure across cultures, as well as the possible influences native culture places on narrative in a second language.

Due to the general lack of research in the area of language attitude and narrative structure, the current study gathered a large amount of descriptive data. This study aimed to discover a possible relationship between language attitude and narrative structure, analyzing a number of variables in various combinations, in order to guide the focus of future research. Succeeding studies could evaluate the differences between the narratives of English monolingual controls and Spanish-English bilingual participants, as well as to compare English narratives produced by Spanish-English bilingual students with monolingual Spanish narratives. Although few correlations were found between the variables of language proficiency, language use in various settings, and language attitude, results of the current study confirmed that children who feel positively about L1 and L2 would also be adequately proficient in both languages by adolescence. This reinforces the concept of educators and professionals acknowledging a child's cultural and linguistic background, and encouraging the child to embrace both L1 and L2.

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Appendix A: Attitude Questionnaire

Language Questionnaire

Adapted from Baker (1992); Maietta (1996)

Please answer as honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers.

How proficient do you feel you are in Spanish?

- A. Near the top B. Better than average C. About average D. Below average E. Near bottom

How proficient do you feel you are in English?

- A. Near the top B. Better than average C. About average D. Below average E. Near bottom

In which language do you speak to the following people?

	A. Always in Spanish	B. In Spanish more often than English	C. In Spanish and English equally	D. In English more often than Spanish	E. Always in English
Father					
Mother					
Brothers/Sisters					
Friends in class					
Friends outside of school					
Teachers					
Neighbors					
Grandparents					
Other relatives					

In which language do the following people speak to you?

	A. Always in Spanish	B. In Spanish more often than English	C. In Spanish and English equally	D. In English more often than Spanish	E. Always in English
Father					
Mother					
Brothers/Sisters					
Friends in class					
Friends outside of school					
Teachers					
Neighbors					
Grandparents					
Other relatives					

Which language do you use when doing the following?

	A. Always in Spanish	B. In Spanish more often than English	C. In Spanish and English equally	D. In English more often than Spanish	E. Always in English
Watching TV/movies					
Going to church					
Reading for leisure					
Listening to music					
Shopping					
Playing school sports					
On the phone with family					
On the phone with friends					
Earning money					
School clubs					
Other leisure activities					

How important or unimportant do you think the Spanish language is for people to do the following? There are no right or wrong answers.

For people to:	A. Important	B. Somewhat important	C. Does Not Matter	D. Somewhat unimportant	E. Unimportant
Make friends					
Earn money					
Read					
Write					
Watch TV/movies					
Get a job					
Become smarter					
Be liked					
Go to church					
Play sports					
Raise children					
Go shopping					
Make phone calls					
Pass exams					
Be accepted in the community					
Talk to friends in school					
Talk to people out of school					

How important or unimportant do you think the English language is for people to do the following? There are no right or wrong answers.

For people to:	A. Important	B. Somewhat important	C. Does Not Matter	D. Somewhat unimportant	E. <u>Un</u> important
Make friends					
Earn money					
Read					
Write					
Watch TV/movies					
Get a job					
Become smarter					
Be liked					
Go to church					
Play sports					
Raise children					
Go shopping					
Make phone calls					
Pass exams					
Be accepted in the community					
Talk to friends in school					
Talk to people out of school					

Here are some statements about the Spanish Language. Please say whether you agree or disagree with these statements. Please be as honest as possible. There are no right or wrong answers.

	A. Strongly agree	B. Agree	C. Neither agree nor disagree	D. Disagree	E. Strongly disagree
I like hearing Spanish spoken					
Spanish should be taught to all students					
It's a waste of time to keep the Spanish language alive					
I like speaking Spanish					
Spanish is a difficult language to learn					
There are more useful languages than Spanish					
I'm likely to use Spanish as an adult					
Spanish is a language worth learning					
Spanish has no place in the modern world					
Spanish will disappear in Illinois because everyone can speak English					
We need to preserve the Spanish language					
Children should not be made to learn Spanish					
You are considered to be a lower class person if you speak Spanish					
As an adult, I would like to marry a Spanish speaker					
If I have children, I would like them to speak Spanish					

Here are some statements about the English and Spanish languages. Please say whether you agree or disagree with these statements. Please be as honest as possible.

	A. Strongly agree	B. Agree	C. Neither agree nor disagree	D. Disagree	E. Strongly disagree
It is important to be able to speak English and Spanish					
To speak one language is all that is needed					
Knowing Spanish and English makes people smarter					
Speaking both Spanish and English helps to get a good job					
All schools in the U.S. should teach students to speak in English and Spanish					
Road signs should be in English and Spanish					
Speaking two languages isn't difficult					
I feel sorry for people who cannot speak both Spanish and English					
Children in the U.S. should learn to read in both English and Spanish					
People know more if they speak English and Spanish					
People who speak English and Spanish can have more friends than those who speak only one language					
Speaking both English and Spanish is harder for older than younger people					
When I become an adult, I would like to be considered a speaker of English and Spanish					
If I have children, I would want them to speak both English and Spanish					

Appendix B: Narrative Prompt and Codes

Narrative Prompt:

“I would love to know more about you as a person who knows two languages. Tell me about a memorable experience you had because you knew English and Spanish.”

Additional Prompt:

“That’s very interesting. So, tell me more about what it’s like to have two different languages, one at home and one at school,”

Narrative Code Definitions:

Code Switching (CDS)	Verb Tense (VBT)	Element Type (EMT)	Element Sequencing (EMS)	Characters (CRT)
An utterance in English which contains Spanish words	An utterance describing past events which includes present tense verbs	An utterance categorized as an orientation or evaluation statement	An utterance which does not follow a traditional American-English progression, or chronological sequence	An utterance which consists only of family members as characters

Appendix C: Tables

Table A. Analyses of Self-Rated Proficiency and Use in Different Settings

		Correlations				
		ProfSp	ProfEng	UseHom	UseSch	UseCom
ProfSp	Pearson Correlation	1	.059	-.562	.249	-.274
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871	.091	.488	.444
	N	10	10	10	10	10
ProfEng	Pearson Correlation	.059	1	.050	.569	.743*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871		.892	.086	.014
	N	10	10	10	10	10
UseHom	Pearson Correlation	-.562	.050	1	-.091	.311
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.091	.892		.791	.352
	N	10	10	11	11	11
UseSch	Pearson Correlation	.249	.569	-.091	1	.529
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.488	.086	.791		.094
	N	10	10	11	11	11
UseCom	Pearson Correlation	-.274	.743*	.311	.529	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.444	.014	.352	.094	
	N	10	10	11	11	11

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table B. Analyses of Self-Rated Proficiency and Language Attitude

		Correlations						
		ProfSp	ProfEng	AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil
ProfSp	Pearson Correlation	1	.059	.456	.036	.456	.567	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871	.186	.922	.185	.088	.699
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
ProfEng	Pearson Correlation	.059	1	.413	.057	.364	.454	-.126
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871		.236	.877	.301	.187	.728
	N	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	.456	.413	1	-.260	.533	.910**	.474
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.186	.236		.440	.091	.000	.141
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	.036	.057	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.922	.877	.440		.500	.289	.815
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	.456	.364	.533	.228	1	.355	.662*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.185	.301	.091	.500		.284	.026
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	.567	.454	.910**	-.351	.355	1	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.088	.187	.000	.289	.284		.721
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.140	-.126	.474	.080	.662*	.122	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.699	.728	.141	.815	.026	.721	
	N	10	10	11	11	11	11	11

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table C. Analyses of Self-Rated Proficiency and Spanish-Influenced Narrative Features

		Correlations			
		ProfSp	ProfEng	EMT	EMS
ProfSp	Pearson Correlation	1	.059	-.249	-.267
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871	.487	.455
	N	10	10	10	10
ProfEng	Pearson Correlation	.059	1	-.028	-.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871		.940	.760
	N	10	10	10	10
EMT	Pearson Correlation	-.249	-.028	1	.291
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.487	.940		.385
	N	10	10	11	11
EMS	Pearson Correlation	-.267	-.111	.291	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.455	.760	.385	
	N	10	10	11	11

Table D. Analyses of Use in Various Settings and Language Attitude

		Correlations							
		UseHom	UseSch	UseCom	AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil
UseHom	Pearson Correlation	1	-.091	.311	-.240	-.320	-.009	-.265	.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.791	.352	.477	.337	.979	.430	.746
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
UseSch	Pearson Correlation	-.091	1	.529	.321	-.531	-.040	.478	-.381
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.791		.094	.336	.092	.906	.137	.247
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
UseCom	Pearson Correlation	.311	.529	1	.332	-.136	.278	.250	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.352	.094		.319	.690	.408	.458	.917
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	-.240	.321	.332	1	-.260	.533	.910**	.474
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.477	.336	.319		.440	.091	.000	.141
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	-.320	-.531	-.136	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.337	.092	.690	.440		.500	.289	.815
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	-.009	-.040	.278	.533	.228	1	.355	.662*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.979	.906	.408	.091	.500		.284	.026
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	-.265	.478	.250	.910**	-.351	.355	1	.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.430	.137	.458	.000	.289	.284		.721
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.111	-.381	.036	.474	.080	.662*	.122	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.746	.247	.917	.141	.815	.026	.721	
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table E. Descriptive Statistics of Use in Various Settings and Language Attitude

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
UseHom	50.0000	8.02496	11
UseSch	7.2727	2.61116	11
UseCom	17.5455	6.25082	11
AttSpaTot	120.4545	15.00242	11
AttEng	68.8182	13.65151	11
AttBil	55.7273	6.82775	11
AttSpa1Eng	57.0000	13.61617	11
AttSpa2Bil	64.3636	5.73189	11

Table F. Analyses of Language Attitude and Spanish-Influenced Narrative Features; Analyses of Spanish 1, Spanish 2, English, and Bilingual Attitude

		Correlations					
		AttSpaTot	AttEng	AttBil	AttSpa1Eng	AttSpa2Bil	EMT
AttSpaTot	Pearson Correlation	1	-.260	.533	.910**	.474	-.649*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.440	.091	.000	.141	.031
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttEng	Pearson Correlation	-.260	1	.228	-.351	.080	-.055
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.440		.500	.289	.815	.873
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttBil	Pearson Correlation	.533	.228	1	.355	.662*	-.443
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.091	.500		.284	.026	.173
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa1Eng	Pearson Correlation	.910**	-.351	.355	1	.122	-.458
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.289	.284		.721	.157
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
AttSpa2Bil	Pearson Correlation	.474	.080	.662*	.122	1	-.512
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.141	.815	.026	.721		.108
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11
EMT	Pearson Correlation	-.649*	-.055	-.443	-.458	-.512	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.873	.173	.157	.108	
	N	11	11	11	11	11	11

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table G. Descriptive Statistics of Spanish 1, Spanish 2, English, and Bilingual Attitude

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AttSpaTot	120.4545	15.00242	11
AttEng	68.8182	13.65151	11
AttBil	55.7273	6.82775	11
AttSpa1Eng	57.0000	13.61617	11
AttSpa2Bil	64.3636	5.73189	11
EMT	11.1818	8.48314	11

Appendix D: Consent Cover Letter

Dear Parents,

We would like to invite your child to participate in a short study. This study will be conducted by Rebecca Hunt (a student at Eastern Illinois University) and Dr. Angela Anthony (a faculty member at Eastern Illinois University). We would like to gather more information about how your child feels about being bilingual through a survey and a narrative sample. We are asking for your permission to:

- Use the results of your child's survey and narrative sample for our research study.
- Evaluate your child's self-rated proficiency in Spanish and English and his/her feelings towards both languages, as well as how your child tells a story in English. The survey will be sent home with your child, and will take 10-20 minutes to complete. The narrative sample will take 10-15 minutes during one school day.
- Collect some background information about your child from school records.

No names or identifying information will be used when reporting results of this project. If you would like a summary of your child's results, and/or the summary of findings for the group, we would be happy to provide this for you.

Please sign the final form in this document and return to your child's teacher within 1 week. You may agree to allow your child to participate in this study or decline participation, but we ask that you please return the form regardless of your decision.

If you have questions about this study, you may contact Dr. Angela Anthony at (217) 581-2712.

Sincerely,

Rebecca Hunt, B.S., B.A.
Graduate Student

Angela Anthony, PhD., CCC-SLP
Department Chair

Appendix E: Consent Forms**CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH****Spanish-English Bilingual Attitude Towards Home Language and its Effect on Narrative Language**

Your child is invited to participate in a research study conducted by Rebecca Hunt and Dr. Angela Anthony from the Department of Communication Disorders and Sciences at Eastern Illinois University. Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Please ask questions about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether or not to participate.

• PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study to investigate the effect of second language (English) learning on attitude towards the home language (Spanish) in English-speaking adolescents from Spanish-speaking families, and to investigate the possible effects of attitude towards Spanish on the structure of a personal narrative told in English.

• PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, your child will be asked to fill out a survey concerning the extent of his/her usage of both Spanish and English in different settings, his/her feelings towards Spanish and English, and his/her perceived language proficiency. The survey will be sent home for your child to complete and return to school. A Spanish version of the survey will be available if your child prefers to use his/her primary language. The survey will take 10-20 minutes to complete.

Your child will also be asked to tell a story to the researcher. All participants will be given a prompt regarding a memorable experience they have had as a bilingual individual. The narrative sampling will take 10-15 minutes during one school day. All samples will be taken at Arcola High School.

The narrative samples will be audio recorded. The researcher will record a code number at the beginning of the session instead of using your child's name. This system will be used to protect your child's confidentiality. The digital recorder will be placed near your child during the narrative collection to ensure the best sound quality.

• POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The potential risks and discomforts of this study are minimal. During a single day, your child will be removed from his or her regular classroom for a total of 10 to 15 minutes. During this time it is possible he or she might miss some instructional activities. Efforts will be made to minimize what your child misses by consulting with his or her classroom teacher.

There will be no compensation for participation in this study.

- **POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY**

Results of this study will be used to analyze the effects of second language learning and exposure on a bilingual adolescent's home language. Your child's participation will help guide understanding the effects of bilingual children's prolonged exposure to a second language and culture, as well as the maintenance of the language and culture of his/her home language.

- **CONFIDENTIALITY**

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Confidentiality will be maintained by means of assigning an identification number to your child, and using that number to identify any data (e.g., surveys, digital audio recordings). Any data given to the researcher will use this identification number. Only the researchers collecting the data will have access to the audio recordings. Digital files will be saved on password-protected drives at Eastern Illinois University.

- **PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL**

Participation in this research study is voluntary and not a requirement or a condition for being the recipient of benefits or services from Eastern Illinois University or any other organization sponsoring the research project. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind or loss of benefits or services to which you are otherwise entitled.

There is no penalty if you withdraw from the study and you will not lose any benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your child may also refuse to answer any questions he/she does not want to answer.

- **IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS**

If you have any questions or concerns about this research, please contact:

Rebecca Hunt
Graduate Student
Communication Disorders and Sciences
Eastern Illinois University
Telephone: (217) 273-6322
Email: rmhunt@eiu.edu

Dr. Angela Anthony
Department Chair
Communication Disorders & Sciences
Eastern Illinois University
Phone: (217) 581-2712
Email: abanthony@eiu.edu

- **RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS**

If you have any questions or concerns about the treatment of human participants in this study, you may call or write:

Institutional Review Board
Eastern Illinois University
600 Lincoln Ave.
Charleston, IL 61920
Telephone: (217) 581-8576
E-mail: eiuirb@www.eiu.edu

You will be given the opportunity to discuss any questions about your rights as a research subject with a member of the IRB. The IRB is an independent committee composed of members of the University community, as well as lay members of the community not connected with EIU. The IRB has reviewed and approved this study.

I hereby consent to the participation of _____, a
minor/subject in the investigation herein described. I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and
discontinue my child's participation at any time.

Signature of Minor/Handicapped Subject's Parent or Guardian Date

I, the undersigned, have defined and fully explained the investigation to the above subject.

Signature of Investigator Date

Dear Parents,

Thank you for allowing your child to participate in the study conducted by Rebecca Hunt (a student at Eastern Illinois University) and Dr. Angela Anthony (a faculty member at Eastern Illinois University. As you may recall, the study aims to gather information about how your child feels about being bilingual through a survey and a narrative sample. We would like to gather additional demographic information about your child. We are asking your permission to access your child’s birthdate and free/reduced lunch status.

No names or identifying information will be used when reporting results of this project. Demographic information will be used solely to provide additional information when analyzing your child’s narrative and questionnaire responses. If you would like a summary of your child’s results from this study, and/or the summary of findings for the group, we would be happy to provide this for you.

Please sign the attached form and return to your child’s teacher within 1 week. You may agree or decline to grant permission to access of this information, but we ask that you please return the form regardless of your decision.

If you have questions about this study, you may contact Dr. Angela Anthony at (217) 581-2712.

Sincerely,

Rebecca Hunt, B.S., B.A
Graduate Student

Angela Anthony, Ph.D., CCC-SLP
Department Chair

I hereby consent to allow the investigators to access the demographic information of

_____, a minor/subject in the investigation herein described. I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and discontinue my child’s participation at any time.

Signature of Minor/Handicapped Subject’s Parent or Guardian

Date

I, the undersigned, have defined and fully explained the investigation to the above subject.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix F: Institutional Review Board Approval

January 5, 2015

Rebecca Hunt
Communication Disorders and Sciences

Thank you for submitting the research protocol titled, "Spanish-English Bilingual Attitude Towards Primary Language and its Effect on Narrative Language" for review by the Eastern Illinois University Institutional Review Board (IRB). The IRB has reviewed this research protocol and effective 12/26/2014, has certified this protocol meets the federal regulations exemption criteria for human subjects research. The protocol has been given the IRB number 14-171. You are approved to proceed with your study.

The classification of this protocol as exempt is valid only for the research activities and subjects described in the above named protocol. IRB policy requires that any proposed changes to this protocol must be reported to, and approved by, the IRB before being implemented. You are also required to inform the IRB immediately of any problems encountered that could adversely affect the health or welfare of the subjects in this study. Please contact me, or the Compliance Coordinator at 581-8576, in the event of an emergency. All correspondence should be sent to:

Institutional Review Board
c/o Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
Telephone: 217-581-8576
Fax: 217-581-7181
Email: eiuirb@www.eiu.edu

Thank you for your cooperation, and the best of success with your research.

Richard Cavanaugh, Chairperson
Institutional Review Board
Telephone: 217-581-6205
Email: recavanaugh@eiu.edu