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An exploration of bilingual teachers attitudes regarding the use of Spanglish in different settings.

Norma Rivera-Jimenez
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AN EXPLORATION OF BILINGUAL TEACHERS ATTITUDES REGARDING THE USE OF SPANGLISH IN DIFFERENT SETTINGS

A Dissertation Presented

By

Norma Rivera-Jimenez

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
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School of Education

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DEDICATION

A todos los niños que sufren la
discriminación lingüística.
En especial a Tania Esmeralda.

Se le discrimina al pobre
por ser pobre y no poder
competir en esta lucha
donde el rico ha de vencer.

Se le discrimina al negro
por ser negro y por tener
un color distinto al blanco
y por a veces hablar
en un tono diferente y peculiar
con su acento y con su estilo
que lo hacen excepcional.

Se discrimina al hispano
que no ha aprendido inglés,
al cubano, al mejicano, al colombiano ya ves
al hondureño, al peruano,
tambien al dominicano
por hablar el "Espanglés".

Los niños en las escuelas
tambien sufren la presión
de maestros ignorantes
que creen en la obligación
de condenar en las aulas
cualquier tipo de expresión

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que no sea la del sistema,
imponiendo sus estandards
y trayendo a colación
la más terrible injusticia:
cohartar al estudiante sin ninguna explicación
del derecho mas preciado
el derecho a la expresión

Ya es hora de que digamos
¡No más discriminación. . .lingüística!

ABSTRACT

An Exploration of Bilingual Teachers Attitudes
Regarding the Use of Spanglish in
Different Settings

February 1984

Norma Rivera-Jimenez

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Directed by. Professor Gloria M. Figueroa de Guevara

This study explores attitudes of bilingual (English

and Spanish) teachers toward the use of the socio-

linguistic phenomenon of "Spanglish" in different settings:

classroom, community and home.

The study has three main purposes. The first

purpose consists of expanding the existing literature on

the linguistic phenomenon of "Spanglish." The second

purpose is to explore attitudes of bilingual (English and

Spanish) teachers regarding the use of "Spanglish" in order

to get to the third purpose which is to help develop

an awareness of the pedagogical implications of this

phenomenon.

The methodology employed in the research project was

the semantic differential scale in the form of a

questionnaire. Thirty seven teachers out of 58 returned completed questionnaires.

The data analysis consisted of a correlation examination of 13 independent and six dependent variables. A relationship among the demographic variables for the study was also established.

One of the major findings was that elementary level teachers disagreed on the use of "Spanglish" in school in general and on the use of "Spanglish" in school by children.

It was concluded from the study results that bilingual teachers, especially at the elementary level, do not agree with the use of "Spanglish" within schools but have no strong feelings about its use in other contexts, and probably favor its use within the community.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Motivation, moral support and constant guidance for this study have come from many people all who share a common commitment to promote successful education for all children, especially those children who in one way or another are linguistically different from the rest of the society.

To my husband Gilberto, and my daughter Tania Esmeralda, whose untiring patience, understanding and moral support have helped me achieve my greatest goal, I owe them the greatest debt. For their constant under-standing, especially the many occasions when I did not have the time for them--many thanks. I would also like to thank my sister-in-law Eneida, for babysitting with my daughter as she was her own.

My most deepest appreciation to the members of my doctoral committee. To my chairperson Gloria de Guevara, who dedicated countless hours out of her busy schedule to make my dream come true. At times, when discouragement seemed eminent, she was always available with the proper advice and encouragement. Her professionalism and dynamic personality made the task much easier to bear. From the bottom of my heart, thank you Gogui.

To Drs. Luis Fuentes, Jesse Ortiz and John Leche, without whose professional advice, constructive criticism and constant encouragement, this study would have been very difficult to achieve. To them my most sincere thanks.

Finally but not least to my parents Pedro Rivera and Esmeralda Torres, who always gave me the advice "Get an education first, then travel and when you achieve both then you can get married." They understood the value of an academic profession, especially for a woman. I did follow their advice, and to this day I am forever grateful. Thank you "Mami" and "Papi" for all your encouragement, advice and support--and for being you.

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to explore attitudes of bilingual teachers toward the use of "Spanglish" in different settings: classroom, community and home. It is most important, that bilingual teachers have a clear understanding of the social, linguistic, and instructional implications of this phenomenon. In addition it is necessary that they become aware of the phenomenon and most important of all, the alternatives for effectively dealing with it in the classroom. Teachers react to the phenomemon of "Spanglish" in different ways depending on their attitudes and experiences with the phenomenon.

While some research has been done on the phenomenon of "Spanglish", it has been on a very limited scale. Several authors look at it from different perspectives: politically, like Carlos Varo (1971); linguistically and socio-linguistically, like William Milan (1973) and Usher de Herreros (1976). However, no extensive research has ever been done on the effects of "Spanglish" on teaching-learning experiences. Since there is a scarcity of investigation, intensive research will be required to enhance the existing literature of "Spanglish", and to provide teachers with knowledge of the phenomenon.

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Statement of the Problem

The phenomenon of "Spanglish" has been the concern of many educators over the past several years. It can be defined as the alteration of the structure of Spanish or English caused by the constant contact of the two languages. There is a fusion of the two languages that gives rise to new patterns, words, expressions, etcetera. These new patterns, new words and alterations are referred to as "Spanglish".

Some of the existing literature contain derrogatory descriptions of the phenomenon of "Spanglish". For example Carlos Varo (1971) refers to it as a "chronic disease"; Keller (1978) looks at it as an "adefesio linguistico" (nonsense linguistics).

On the other hand Milan (1973), DiPietro (1970), and Usher de Herreros (1976) view it as "common every day linguistic changes that occur naturally in language evolution".

Di Pietro (1970) feels that "In any situations where two coexisting languages are widely spoken by the same population mutual influence is inevitable".

Usher de Herreros (1976) describes the linguistic phenomenon of "guarañol" in Paraguay. The two languages involved in the phenomenon are Spanish and Guarani (Indian

Language). In this case "there is a fusion of two languages: Spanish and Guarani to form a third language referred to as "guarañol".

The phenomenon of "Spanglish" has been increasing over the last several years. A large number of Spanish speakers living in the United States frequently utilize "Spanglish not only in the schools, but on the playground, recreational centers, at home and in the community at large. Therefore, it is a great concern to teachers, linguists, socio-linguists and others in the academic world as a whole. It is a particular concern of bilingual teachers. There is little or no agreement as to the appropriateness of "Spanglish" in different settings. The question then arises: "To what extent do bilingual teachers agree on the usage of "Spanglish" in the classroom?" This is the major research question addressed in this dissertation.

Purposes of the Study

There is a scarcity of research on "Spanglish", and generally there is a limited awareness of the pedagogical implications of linguistic pehnomena in the teaching-learning process.

The specific purposes of the study are:

1. To expand the existing literature on the linguistic phenomenon of "Spanglish".

2.   To explore attitudes of bilingual teachers
     regarding the use of "Spanglish" in different
     settings: classroom, community and home.
3.   To help develop better awareness of the pedagogical
     implications of this phenomenon.

Nature of the Study

The doctoral dissertation includes a research project
in the field of socio-linguistics. The research project
explores attitudes of bilingual teachers regarding the use
of "Spanglish" in different settings: classroom, community
and home. The study includes cross-cultural educational
research. Since language is part of every culture, aspects
of the two languages involved (English and Spanish) are
discussed.

Significance of the Study

Bilingual teachers (English-Spanish) are exposed to an
every day linguistic phenomenon called "Spanglish"
Teachers find themselves in a very difficult position when
called upon to display knowledge in an area that is rela-
tively new and very difficult to manage at the classroom
level. The students' position has not been clearly defined;
but there is enough room for asking the following questions:

1. How do bilingual teachers feel about the presence
    of this linguistic phenomenon which undoubtedly
    will be reflected in the teaching-learning process?
2. What position should the teacher assume when
    facing this day to day phenomenon? Should it be
    rejected or accepted? How should bilingual
    teachers effectively manage "Spanglish" within the
    classroom?
3. What are the pedagogical implications of the
    presence of this phenomenon in the classroom?
4. Should "Spanglish" be accepted outside the school
    and condemned in the classroom?

It is most important that bilingual teachers have a
clear understanding of the social linguistic and pedagogical
implication of the phenomenon. In addition, it is necessary
that they become aware of the reasons of the existence of
it and most important of all, they should have alternatives
for dealing with it effectively in the classroom.

The research that has been done in the area of
"Spanglish" is very limited and there is none done in
connection with the pedagogical implications.

The significance of this study will, then, be to:

1. Provide a piece of research to add to the area of
    "Spanglish" by finding out how bilingual teachers
    in the area of Springfield feel about this

linguistic phenomenon and to what extent do
bilingual teachers agree on the usage of it in
the classroom.

2. Provide teachers with some direction in order to
    assist them in developing the requisite knowledge,
    skill and awareness to affectively deal with such
    a phenomenon.

3. One unique contribution of the study is its
    combination of linguistics and education in this
    interesting and controversial phenomenon of
    "Spanglish". There has always been a separation
    between the two fields which might be broken by
    doing this type of research.

Delimitations of the Study

The intent of this study is limited to the objectives
already stated. (The research project included bilingual
teachers in Springfield, Massachusetts.)

The study explores attitudes of bilingual teachers
regarding the use of "Spanglish" in different settings:
classroom, community and home. The results of this study
can not be generalized to other areas or populations.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This introduction has provided the background and explanation to a problem that bilingual educators have encountered in the classroom: the "Spanglish phenomenon". An attitude study has been proposed to examine the extent to which bilingual teachers agree on the usage of "Spanglish" in the classroom.

The remainder of the study consists of a review of the literature related to the phenomenon of "Spanglish", the phenomenon of Black English as a linguistic phenomenon similar to "Spanglish" and teachers attitudes toward linguistic differences and their implications on the teaching learning process (Chapter II), a presentation and discussion of the methodology followed (Chapter III), a presentation and discussion of findings (Chapter IV).

The concluding Chapter includes a discussion of implications of this study for bilingual education as well as recommendations for additional research (Chapter V). We turn now to the review of the literature.

C H A P T E R II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter contains a review of relevant literature. The purposes of the review are presented in three sections. The first part gives a detailed description of the socio-linguistic phenomenon of "Spanglish". The description of the phenomenon is presented by establishing and providing the different definitions of "Spanglish" by authors who look at it from different prospectives: from a political point of view, from a traditional linguistic point of view and a sociolinguistic point of view. Historical information and facts that lead the reader to understand the "why" and "when" of the "Spanglish" phenomenon is noted. The structure of "Spanglish" is discussed and examples of the different characteristic features of "Spanglish" are provided.

The second part of the review of literature takes a brief look at non-standard English as a sociolinguistic phenomenon that is similar to "Spanglish". Definitions of non-standard English are also presented. Pertinent information regarding the structure of non-standard English is provided and examples of this phenomenon are included.

Finally, the third part of the review of literature
presents   research done on teacher attitudes and
expectations as these relate to linguistic differences.
A definition of "attitude" in general is given. Specifi-
cally, the teachers' attitudes toward linguistic
differences in the classroom are discussed; taking into
consideration their effect on the teachers expectations
of the children and how these expectations affect the
teacher-pupil relationship in the teaching-learning
process.

Historical Development of "Spanglish"

The Puerto Rican community has lived in various
localities in the United States for over one hundred years.
The initial migration and establishment of a Puerto Rican
community in the United States came after the turn of the
present century and followed the American occupation of
Puerto Rico. The continuous migratory flow until World
War II, and the massive movement after World War II,
including the current dispersal and circulation of Puerto
Ricans to different parts of the United States, must be
taken into consideration when trying to explain a
linguistic phenomenon from a sociolinguistic point of view
or in a sociological context. Another important fact to
be considered is the evolution of the economic and

political relationship between Puerto Ricans and the

United States to explain the subsequent development of the

Puerto Rican community within the American society. The

"Centro de estudios puertoriqueños" (1979) states that:

> It would seem from the history of the relationship
> that the unique politico-economic aspects of
> Puerto Rican experience differentiate this community
> from other immigrant communities.
>
> In order to understand the language situation of the
> Puerto Rican community in the United States it should
> be understood 'that the migration patterns which
> establish an ethnic or language minority community,
> together with social factors which affect the
> integration of that community into the wider society
> are of paramount importance to understanding the
> phenomenon of language survival or decline'. (Centro
> de estudios puertoriquenos, Language Policy Task
> Force, 1980).

Besides language survival or decline, some natural evolu-

tionary aspects of language could be pointed out, such as

development, change, and use, in order to better understand

linguistic differences and how these differences affect

the community. As the "Centro de estudios puertoriqueños",

Language Policy Task Force (1980) states:

> To fully comprehend the language situation in any
> speech community one must investigate the linguistic
> forms in use in the community (both as it concerns
> the language involved and dialect variation that
> exists within them), their distribution and functions
> in daily life, and community members' attitudes
> toward the linguistic state of affairs.

Research on attitudes toward linguistic differences are few and hard to find. The research study contained in this dissertation presents an attitudinal study using bilingual teachers as informants.

There is still a constant flow of people from Puerto Rico and other Latin American countries to the United States. The unique political relationship between Puerto Rico and the United States allows Puerto Ricans to flow freely to and from the United States constantly.

It is necessary to discuss the differences between a socio-linguist and a traditional linguist in order to better understand the work that the author presents. Socio-linguistics involves the study of the relationship between the features and the variations of language and social variables of speakers and speech situations. Linguistic attitude enters the socio-linguistic field when we consider the fact the individuals "internalize associations between particular characteristics of language and the people who speak that language" (Williams, 1976).

When the word language is heard, people react in different ways according to what they feel language is. Everybody accepts that language serves as a means of communication. But, even when people agree on the fact

Table 2. Percent Spanish Origin Persons by Type of Spanish Origin: 1980

(For meaning of symbols, see Introduction. For definition of terms, see Definitions and Explanations)

United States Regions and Divisions States	Total persons	Spanish origin					Not of Spanish origin
		Total	Mexican	Puerto Rican	Cuban	Other Spanish	
United States.............................	100.0	6.4	3.9	0.9	0.4	1.3	93.6
REGIONS AND DIVISIONS							
Northeast.................................	100.0	3.3	0.2	3.0	0.4	1.7	96.7
New England.............................	100.0	2.6	0.1	1.4	0.1	0.8	97.4
Middle Atlantic.........................	100.0	6.3	0.2	3.6	0.4	2.0	93.7
North Central.............................	100.0	2.2	1.4	0.3	0.1	0.4	97.8
East North Central.....................	100.0	2.6	1.6	0.3	0.1	0.4	97.4
West North Central.....................	100.0	1.2	0.9	0.1	-	0.3	98.8
South.....................................	100.0	5.9	4.1	0.2	0.7	0.9	94.1
South Atlantic.........................	100.0	3.2	0.5	0.4	1.3	1.0	96.8
East South Central.....................	100.0	0.8	0.3	0.1	-	0.3	99.2
West South Central.....................	100.0	13.3	11.9	0.1	0.1	1.2	86.7
West......................................	100.0	16.3	11.0	0.3	0.2	3.0	83.3
Mountain...............................	100.0	12.7	8.4	0.1	0.1	4.4	87.3
Pacific................................	100.0	15.1	11.9	0.4	0.2	2.7	84.9
STATES							
New England:							
Maine..................................	100.0	0.4	0.1	0.1	-	0.2	99.6
New Hampshire..........................	100.0	0.6	0.1	0.1	-	0.3	99.4
Vermont................................	100.0	0.6	0.1	0.1	-	0.4	99.4
Massachusetts..........................	100.0	2.3	0.1	1.3	0.1	0.9	97.3
Rhode Island...........................	100.0	2.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	1.6	97.9
Connecticut............................	100.0	4.0	0.1	2.8	0.2	0.8	96.0
Middle Atlantic:							
New York...............................	100.0	9.3	0.2	5.6	0.4	3.2	90.3
New Jersey.............................	100.0	6.7	0.2	3.3	1.1	2.1	93.3
Pennsylvania...........................	100.0	1.3	0.2	0.8	-	0.3	98.7
East North Central:							
Ohio...................................	100.0	1.1	0.3	0.3	-	0.3	98.9
Indiana................................	100.0	1.6	1.0	0.2	-	0.3	98.4
Illinois...............................	100.0	5.6	3.6	1.1	0.2	0.7	96.4
Michigan...............................	100.0	1.8	1.2	0.1	-	0.4	98.2
Wisconsin..............................	100.0	1.3	0.9	0.2	-	0.2	98.7
West North Central:							
Minnesota..............................	100.0	0.8	0.5	-	-	0.2	99.2
Iowa...................................	100.0	0.9	0.6	-	-	0.2	99.1
Missouri...............................	100.0	1.1	0.7	0.1	-	0.3	98.9
North Dakota...........................	100.0	0.6	0.4	-	-	0.2	99.4
South Dakota...........................	100.0	0.6	0.3	-	-	0.2	99.4
Nebraska...............................	100.0	1.8	1.4	-	-	0.3	98.2
Kansas.................................	100.0	2.7	2.1	0.1	-	0.4	97.3
South Atlantic:							
Delaware...............................	100.0	1.6	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.3	98.4
Maryland...............................	100.0	1.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.9	98.5
District of Columbia...................	100.0	2.8	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.9	97.2
Virginia...............................	100.0	1.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.8	98.3
West Virginia..........................	100.0	0.7	0.3	-	-	0.3	99.3
North Carolina.........................	100.0	1.0	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.3	99.0
South Carolina.........................	100.0	1.1	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.3	98.9
Georgia................................	100.0	1.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	98.9
Florida................................	100.0	8.8	0.8	1.0	4.8	2.2	91.2
East South Central:							
Kentucky...............................	100.0	0.7	0.4	0.1	-	0.3	99.3
Tennessee..............................	100.0	0.7	0.4	0.1	-	0.3	99.3
Alabama................................	100.0	0.9	0.3	0.1	-	0.3	99.1
Mississippi............................	100.0	1.0	0.6	-	-	0.3	99.0
West South Central:							
Arkansas...............................	100.0	0.8	0.5	-	-	0.2	99.2
Louisiana..............................	100.0	2.4	0.7	0.1	0.2	1.4	97.4
Oklahoma...............................	100.0	1.9	1.3	0.1	-	0.3	98.1
Texas..................................	100.0	21.0	19.3	0.2	0.1	1.4	79.0
Mountain:							
Montana................................	100.0	1.3	0.8	-	-	0.4	98.7
Idaho..................................	100.0	3.9	3.0	-	-	0.8	96.1
Wyoming................................	100.0	5.2	3.4	0.1	-	1.7	94.8
Colorado...............................	100.0	11.8	7.2	0.1	0.1	4.4	88.2
New Mexico.............................	100.0	36.4	17.9	0.1	-	18.5	63.4
Arizona................................	100.0	16.2	14.6	0.1	-	1.4	83.8
Utah...................................	100.0	4.1	2.4	0.1	-	1.4	95.9
Nevada.................................	100.0	6.7	4.4	0.2	0.3	2.0	93.3
Pacific:							
Washington.............................	100.0	2.9	2.0	0.1	-	0.8	97.1
Oregon.................................	100.0	2.3	1.7	0.1	-	0.7	97.5
California.............................	100.0	19.2	15.6	0.4	0.3	3.2	80.8
Alaska.................................	100.0	2.4	1.1	0.2	-	0.9	97.6
Hawaii.................................	100.0	7.4	0.9	2.0	-	4.4	92.6

that the language functions to communicate, some believe there is one right way to speak or write, and any other form would be "incorrect" or "inferior".

A traditional linguist sees language as the "instrument" used for communication. He studies language separated from society, as an independent entity from the social context. He studies the grammatical aspect of language and the language of the dictionaries. Traditional linguists do not take into consideration the social function of language. A traditional linguist only accepts "standard" language as the correct form of communication.

A sociolinguist, however, does not view any particular variety or dialect as being "superior" or better able to express logical relationships than any other (Williams, 1976). Sociolinguists are interested in the social aspect of language, they wish to know about the "interactional aspects of speech and discourse" (Williams, 1976). Sociolinguists' study groups of people representing a speaker population, using the methods of sociology. The traditional linguist often bases his conclusions on only one or a few informants, but sociolinguistic researchers predict variation of the use of phonemes or linguistic patterns according to social status and the degree of formality or informality of the

speech situation. Sociolinguists also take into consideration the frequency with which linguistic variations are found. Whereas, the traditional linguist's interest is usually placed in the qualitative description of language. The traditional linguist, as Frederick Williams (1976) states:

> Attempts to abstract from his observation of speech events the most thorough yet simplest description of language, as in finding the one set of phonemes that could account for the basic sounds of that language.

The traditional linguist, as pointed out by Sharp (1973) is primarily interested in language as a system for organizing 'meanings', in contrast with the sociolinguist who looks at the social function of the language and the needs of the speaking community. McMillan in Glenn (1974) views the traditional linguist as concerned with the phonology, the morphology, the syntax and the lexicology of a language, while the sociolinguist sees the speaker in a sociological context. For a sociolinguist, a complete linguistic study "combines description of speaker, linguistic variable, situations, and range of variation" (Williams, 1976).

All through this research project, the author views the linguistic phenomenon in question ("Spanglish") from a sociolinguist's view. For, language serves a socio-logical function.

"Spanglish" as a Sociolinguistic Phenomenon

Toda lengua es pues necesariamente una mezcla de
multiples elementos, venidos de los otros idiomas
con quien se ha comunicado el pueble que la habla,
y cuanto mas complicada es la historia de un
pueblo, mas fuentes extrañas de su lexico tiene.
(Del Rosario, 1972).

All languages are necessarily a mixture of many
elements that come from other lnaguages people
who speak the original language have come in
contact with, and the more complex the history
of the people the more complicated its lexicon
will be. (Translation by author)

Definition of "Spanglish"

The phenomenon of "Spanglish" has been the concern
of many authors. Some look at it politically, like Carlos
Varo (1971), and others linguistically and socio-
linguistically, like William Milan (1973) and Usher de
Herreros. Although they have explained it, and given
examples, no one has provided a concise definition.

It is necessary then to provide a definition as a
basis for studying this phenomenon. "Spanglish" is the
alteration of the structure of Spanish or English caused
by the constant contact of the two languages, producing
a fusion of the structure, grammar, words, expressions,
and other linguistic patterns. These new patterns, new
words and alterations are referred to as "Spanglish".

There are other definitions with derogatory implications,
like the description of "Spanglish" as "adefesio
linguistico" (nonsense linguistics) (Keller, 1978).
Others define "Spanglish" as a ". . . continuous code
switching" (Felix, 1980).

Commenting on Wolfram's <u>Socio-linguistic Aspects of
Assimilation: Puerto Rican in New York City</u>, Attinasi
(1974) says that the book

> . . . should be studied by linguists, by
> anthropologists interested in urban and ethnographic
> communication systems, and by serious educators who
> are aware that language variation is neither wrong
> nor unstructured, but is rather an intricate
> mechanism of social action with pattern, regularity
> and artfulness, which can be viewed in relation to
> its own context of appropriateness.

"Spanglish" says Attinasi (1974) "is not a language;
it is a speech situation in which most American Hispanics
live. It is a range of linguistic competence based on
varieties of both English and Spanish considered 'sub-
standard'". Attinasi claims that speakers of Spanglish
often have two phonological systems, which merge and
interfere at times, but that are kept distinct "allowing
perfect switches from "palabras espanolas" to English
words within a single sentence".

Ahukana, Fund and Gentile (1981) claim that sus-
ceptibility to interference effects in language learning
is related to a number of factors. Their study on Inter-

and Intra-Lingual Interferences Effects in Learning a
Third Language, with 80 subjects whose native language
was Igbo, second language was English and third language
was French, points out some interesting findings.
According to these authors, the amount of experience with
the target language is an important factor during the
interference process. Beginning language learners show
more interference from base languages than do more pro-
ficient users. The type of similarity between the target
and the base language appear to be another factor in
interference. Some languages appear to cause interference
more than do others, possibly due to their greater degree
of similarity to the target language. It was also found
that a potential for interference increases with the
number of languages a student knows.

There are various definitions of language interference.
Weinreich (1953) in Aguirre (1978), defines interference
as "instances of deviation from the norms of either
language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a
result of their familiarity with more than one language
at a time". Haugen (1956) also in Aguirre (1978) sees
interference as "linguistic overlapping when certain items
must be assigned to more than one language at a time".

Mackey (1970) considers interference as ". . . the use of elements from one language while speaking or writing another".

Code switching is also defined in various ways. Weinreich (1953), in Aguirre (1978) describes code switching as "a transitional stage in the shift from the regular use of the other". Haugen (1956) describes it as a first stage in linguistic diffusion. Others look at the phenomenon as simply "language mixture". Hernandez-Chavez, et al; (1975) in Aguirre (1978) considers code switching as a complex ability commanded by bilinguals that "reflects the intricate socio-cultural situation of language contact". Gumperz in Alatis (1970) sees code switching as "a communicative skill, which speakers use as a verbal strategy in much the same way that skillful writers switch styles in a short story".

Fishman (1971) recommends the use of the word transference instead of interference. According to this author the use of a term with . . . "such pejorative and disruptive connotations" should be avoided. Clyne (1967) in Aguirre (1978) also feels that the term "interference" may not be objective in that it points partially to the cause of the phenomenon, where as his term "transference" merely describes it.

Gumperz and Hernandez (1971) give an example of a conversation between two educated Mexican Americans in which the mixture of English and Spanish is obvious. The following are sentences extracted from this recorded conversation.

1. a. W. Well I'm glad that I met you. O.K.?

    b. M. Andale, pues (O.K., swell) And do come again. Mm.

2.   M. Con ellos dos (with the two of them). With each other. La señora trabaja en la caneria orita, you know? (The mother works in the cannery right now.) She was . . . con Francine jugaba . . . (She used to play with Francine. . .) with my little girl.

3.   M. There's no children in the neighborhood, Well. . . (si hay criaturas) (There are children).

4.   M. those friends from Mexico que tienen chamaquitos (who have little children).

5.   M. that has nothing to do con que le hagan esta. . . (with their doing this).

6.   M. But the person . . . de . . . de grande (as an adult) is gotta have something in his mouth.

7.   M. And my uncle Sam es el mas agabachado

             (is the most Americanized).

Gumperz and Hernandez (1971) claim that

> It would be futile to predict the occurrence of
> either English or Spanish in the above utterances
> by attempting to isolate social variables which
> correlate with linguistic form. Topic, speaker and
> setting are common in each case. Yet the code
> changes, sometimes, in the middle of a sentence.

McMenamin (1973) questions Gumperz and Hernandez's

claim and states that

> Although code switching among Chicano bilinguals is
> an extremely complex phenomenon which must be
> studied in far more detail before it is to be
> understood; it does not seem to be as unpredictable
> as Gumperz and Hernandez have stated.

McMenamin (1973) suggests that correlative sociological

variables such as sex, age, degree of bilingualism,

geographical background, education, domain, and careful

or spontaneous switching seem to function as determinants

of switching in Chicano bilinguals. He sees switching

not as an indication of language shift among Chicanos,

but as a code mixing approach as opposed to a code

switching approach.

   Gumperz and Hernandez (1971) point out that there is

a fear that Mexican American children are losing their

language, and thus, by implication denying their proper

cultural heritage. Some have said that a new variety of

language termed "Spanglish" is developing; that it is

more than simply a technique of switching, mixing or
incorporating loan words, and that it ". . . is in fact
a variety of Spanish, and places it somewhere between a
dialect and Creole" (Milan 1976).

Carlos Varo looks at the phenomenon of "Spanglish"
from a political point of view. He describes the
phenomenon of "Spanglish" as follows: "El 'Spanglish' en
mi opinion es una enfermedad crónica, como puede serlo el
sentimiento de dependencia y frustración que busca un
escape por la droga, el alcohol o la violencia física o
sexual" (Varo, 1971). "Spanglish" in my opinion is a
chronic disease such as the feeling of dependency and
frustration that seeks an escape in drugs, alcohol or
physical and/or sexual violence" (English translation by
author).

Del Rosario (1972) points out that there is "a need
to put aside the political passion if we really want to
obtain a more clear and objective idea of the relationship
between the language and the Puerto Rican community"
(English translation by author). This political passion
is an impediment to objectivity in making an intelligent
analysis of a socio-linguistic phenomena. This "political
passion" is behind expressions such as "enfermedad
cronica" (chronic illness) to describe "Spanglish" and

its speakers. Carlos Varo for example refers to speakers of "Spanglish" as "enfermos cronicos" (chronically ill people). Eduardo Seda Bonilla (1970) describes "Spanglish" as a "lexical and syntactical potpourri known as pidgin". Seda Bonilla looks at "Spanglish" from a political point of view like Carlos Varo. He states that

> The linguistic potpourri is known as pidgin, and that this potpourri is characteristic of colonial situations where there is an attempt to erradicate and lower the language and culture of a subjugated nation. (Seda Bonilla, 1970).

He describes the phenomenon of "Spanglish" as a "crutch", as a colonial and absurd condescension". It seems that Seda Bonilla ignores the sociological aspect of language, and like Carlos Varo, sees the political relationship between Puerto Rico and the United States as the only factor responsible for "Spanglish".

Without a doubt, the political situation of Puerto Rico as a colony of the United States has influenced the use of "Spanglish". But, should the investigation of this phenomenon be limited to a political situation or should other factors be considered as important? For example: If the political situation in Puerto Rico is the factor responsible for the "Spanglish" how is its existence explained in Mexican-American communities, such as Texas

and California, Florida and the Cubans, New York and the
Dominicans, etcetera. The political relation between
Cuba and the United States is totally different from the
political situation between Puerto Rico and the United
States. Puerto Rico is a Commonwealth of the United
States. On the other hand, Cuba is an autonomous state
with a socio-political structure very different to that
of the United States. Therefore, there must be other
factors, besides the political situation, responsible for
bringing about socio-linguistic changes in certain
communities. Some socio-linguistic needs are common
among these groups (Cubans, Dominicans, Mexican-Americans,
Puerto Ricans), and these needs permit the same
phenomenon to occur in these non Puerto Rican communities.
The needs are present in all these groups, even though
there might not be any political relationship between the
United States and the countries from which these ethnic
groups come. There must be some common social conditions
among these groups and within their communities that
contribute to the development of the "Spanglish"
phenomenon and this condition is not necessarily the
political relationship with the United States.

In our inquiry of the phenomenon other factors in
addition to the political aspect must be taken into

consideration. However, Varo did not consider the socio-
linguistic aspect in his analysis of "Spanglish". Also,
the place where this type of phenomenon occurs is one of
the factors that requires attention. In a community where
two languages are used and heard continuously one must
expect that a phenomenon of this nature will occur.

Milan says when referring to "Spanglish", "We should
be viewing it within the historical continuum of language
evaluation" (Milan, 1973). DiPietro's second universal
states,

> Since language evolution is taking place, the presence
> of another language within that context will be a
> major factor in the evolutionary process. In any
> situation where two coexisting languages are widely
> spoken by the same population, mutual influence is
> inevitable. (DiPietro, 1970)

Whenever there is a community where two languages are used
constantly, changes occur in the languages that are un-
controlled. Carlos Varo (1971) makes an observation in
reference to other ethnic groups that have come to the
United States. He mentions the Italians, Greeks, Germans,
etcetera, who have migrated to the United States and have
gone through the process of "linguistic assimilation".
These ethnic groups established themselves in the United
States during a single intensive period of immigration,
and are integrated into the wider American society. Among
the European immigrants who came during the 19th and early

20th century, for example, the mother tongue has either been lost or is spoken mainly by the older generation, or is used in small sectors of the community only. We understand this process of "linguistic assimilation" on the part of English since it has been a proven fact that they come to the United States to remain. These groups see assimilation as the solution to social problems in a racist society. Puerto Ricans, on the other hand, resist assimilation not only linguistically, but culturally in general.

This attitude of resistance to assimilation is explained by the current status of Puerto Rico, and also by the Puerto Rican dream of returning home sooner or later even though this is not accomplished in many cases. Among other groups, such as the Mexican-Americans, the movement from the mother country has not stopped, and they still maintain the mother tongue. Others continue to speak the national language because the community consists mainly of recent arrivals as is the case of ethnic groups like the Dominicans, Cubans, Ecuadorians, and Colombians. (Centro de estudios puertorriquenos, Language Policy Task Force, 1980)

Thompson (1974) in Bratt Paulston (1980) states:

Immigrant languages disappear because they do not transfer from one generation to the next. Typically in the United States, the first generation is bilingual, and the third claims English as its mother tongue, learning the immigrant language mainly through contact with the grandparents. The Spanish language seems to be an exception.

There is no desire or need to create an alternative pseudo language. . .when there are already two major languages which offer the full range of opportunities for communication. Therefore, the concern is for children to be given the opportunity to learn both Spanish and English well through bilingual education without having to resort to the confusing habit of mixing both languages (La Fontaine, 1975)

La Fontaine's position is the traditional linguistic point of view. But in the case of "Spanglish", it is not a matter of creating an "alternative pseudo-language", since the language is already present in the hispanic community. It has to be dealt with pedagogically. It is the approach used by educators to deal with the phenomenon in the classroom and the attitude of teachers toward these linguistic differences that will make a difference in the teaching-learning process. The confusion comes when the linguistic differences are not taken into consideration and the teacher asks the students to perform in standard Spanish or English when they are not capable of doing so.

La Fontaine's attitude of "Spanglish" is best described by his following words:

The reality of the mixture of the two languages which is prevalent in our city where a kid substitutes words from another language while

they are speaking one language, is Spanglish.
This happens all over, but I would like to see it
reduced. Spanglish suggests that we don't have the
ability to learn either Spanish or English well. I
don't believe that. I think we have the same
intellectual capacity that any other group of people
have, so that we can learn English well and we can
learn Spanish well. There are kids who say, voy a
lonchar, or ponte el coat, or abre the window. They
use these words not because there isn't an
equivalent word in Spanish, but because they haven't
practiced Spanish and at the same time English.

To the question: Is it possible that what has
happened to many Mexican Americans in the Southwest in
terms of language (so that they now speak "pocho") will
also happen to Puerto Ricans in this country?

In response to this question La Fontaine feels that
"there are a number of Puerto Rican youngsters who do not
speak a word of Spanish and there are others who mix in
the few words they know with English".

Lance (1969) observes that:

When Mexican Americans mix English and Spanish
together in the same sentence the result is not,
as some have claimed, a creolized language, but
instead a very relaxed and arbitrary switching
of codes, both of which are available for use
at any time.

Contrary to what La Fontaine suggests Lance also states
that "The switching occurs not because the speaker does
not know the right word but because the word that comes
out is more readily available at the time of production".

McClure (1977) emphasizes that children's language choice is not random or due to a language deficit, but based on grammatical and social principles.

Gumperz and Hernandez (1971) state: "To some extent the juxtaposition of English and Spanish symbolizes the duality of value." According to Gumperz and Hernandez (1971), Spanish occurs most in episodes dealing with typically Mexican American experiences, while English is present when non Mexican American experiences are discussed. Aguirre (1978) provides support to Rubin (1968), when he suggests that among bilingual people use of one language versus another is determined by the nature of the interaction situation. Aguirre (1978) reported his finding that all respondents, regardless of linguistic dominance reported more English in the school hallway situation than in the neighborhood situations. Patella & Kuvlesky's (1973) in Aguirre (1978) found that the use of Spanish decreases in situations successfully further from the home, in their case, the neighborhood.

Ziros (1976) presents two types of bilingual children. The "coordinate bilingual" who possesses two independent language systems and is proficient in both English and Spanish. The second type is the "compound bilingual" who uses one language functionally (Spanish) and understands

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the second language on a limited basis. According to
Ziros (1976) it is around the compound bilingual students
that the question of language interference centers.

Ziros (1976) presents Garcia's point of view that
phonemes and morphemes from the one language may intrude
on the other. This is the phenomenon called "inter-
ference" caused by the contact of the two languages.

Timm (1975) corraborated and exemplified with his
findings what has been pointed out by other authors when
he concluded that a switch to Spanish is a device for
indicating such personal feeling as affection, loyalty,
commitment, respect, pride, challenge, sympathy, or
religious devotion; and understandably, a switch to
Spanish is likely when the topic of conversation turns
to aspects of Mexican culture or life in the barrios. A
switch to English often signals a speaker's feelings of
detachment, objectivity, alienation, displeasure, dislike,
conflict of interest, aggression, fear, or pain; or it
may reflect a shift of topic to matters typically Anglo
American.

John J. Gumperz (1969) in Alatis (1970) presents a
case of "language mixture" which tends to be disparaged
and referred to by prejorative terms such as Tex mex.
According to Gumperz it is rarely reported in the

literature and frequently dismissed as "abnormal".
Gumperz sees "Spanglish" or this apparent mixture as a
common feature of informal conversation in urban bilingual
societies. In Alatis (1970), Gumperz (1969) gives an
example of a Puerto Rican mother in Jersey City calling
to her children as follows:

"Ven aqui, ven aqui".

If the child would not come immediately, this would be
followed with:

Come here, you.

In this example the English is used for stylistic effect
to convey meaning. An English speaking mother under
similar conditions might respond to her child's failure
to obey with something like:

John Henry Smith, you come here right away.

Both mothers indicate annoyance but they use different
verbal strategies for doing so.

It seems clear that in cases like this, what the
linguist sees merely as an alteration between two systems,
serves definite and clearly understandable communicative
ends which is indicative that one observes a feature of
linguistic alteration in addition there is a sense of
urgency in the command.

Nash (1970) refers to "Spanglish" as English-influenced Spanish, making the observation that "Spanglish" has at least one characteristic of an autonomous language: a large number of native speakers (Nash, 1970).

"Spanglish" is a socio-linguistic phenomenon and because of this, it is in constant evolution. A language cannot be maintained intact, or "pure". Rosenblatt in Levitt (1975) qualifies the notion of language purity as "a kind of linguistic chauvinism, customs protectionism, limited, petty, impoverishing, like every chauvinism". The reality is that "Spanglish" continues to evolve and not even the "Royal Academy of Spanish" (Real Academia Española) or any other group can control it. An example of this is Paraguay, where Beatriz Usher de Herreros (1976) describes the existence of "Guaranol", a mixture of Spanish and the Guarani Indian language. In this case:

> There is a fusion of new grammatical structuring of the storehouse of the linguistic contributions of one language as much as the other to form a third language called "Guarañol".

The existence of "Guarañol" demonstrates that the community which speaks the language controls and determines its development.

"It is undoubtedly that the Guarani, because of the contact with the Spanish language has been losing its distinctiveness to the point that one speaks of a Paraguayan Guarani" and in the same way, because of a similar linguistic process, one speaks of a "Paraguayan Castillian", a third language (Usher, 1976, p. 120).

There is the possibility that this will happen with English and Spanish in the United States sometime in the future.

This is another example which shows that the language development is solely controlled by the community who speaks it. As Sharp (1973) points out, "Language doesn't exist--it happens."

Finglish might be described as the mixing of Finnish and English. Finglish is a peculiar kind of Americanese spoken by the Finnish immigrant in this country long before the first "Vortsulai" (July 4, 1776).

Puotinen in Glenn (1974) explains that Finnish settlers, who came by ship with Dutch navigator, Peter Minuet in 1638 and located on the present site of Wilmington, Delaware, probably developed several dialects. According to Puotinen in Glenn (1974) "Finglish and all foreign language dialects of the English language, evolve basically from the immigrant's failure to learn the

English alphabet and the essentials of pronunciation".
The man did of necessity go out into the confusing
complicated, even prejudiced and antagonistic world
which was industrial America; that he was forced into a
situation where in order to survive he had to learn
English at once with no time for schooling. The Finn
went to work in industry where together with immigrants
of other nationalities he learned the jargon and shop-
talk, of the mills, lumbercamps, mines and saloons.

This researcher questions if the reason why Finglish
was developed, was the failure of the immigrants to learn
the English alphabet and the essentials of pronunciation
or were there other reasons, as described by them. To
comment on this specific Finglish linguistic phenomenon,
however, it has been proven that one can learn to speak
a language without knowing its alphabet.

Some examples of Finglish words are:

cheesecloth	- siislots
porkchops	- porksops
cow barn	- kau parn
potatoes	- tatus
ice cream	- ais kriim
superintendent	- supitenti
cheese and coffee	- juusto kaffi

Linguistic phenomena like Finglish have been happening
for years, but only during the last 20 years have socio-
linguists been studying them. In Trinidad, a Caribbean
island, according to Richards (1970), the majority of
Trinidadians are speakers of Trinidadian Creole, a version
of English in many ways distinct from Standard English.
It is mainly spoken by Trinidadians without formal edu-
cation and those who live in rural areas. Educated
Trinidadians speak a Trinidadian version of Standard
English, but they at times do speak folk speech. For
example, speakers of English-based Creole use Standard
English interrogatives in asking questions, but do not use
the inverted word order common in Standard English. They
rely on intonation to convey meaning.

Besides Guaranol, Finglish, "Castellano Andino",
there is another linguistic phenomenon in Pennsylvania
called "Pennsylfaanisch". According to Weissenborn (1983),
pedestrians migrations in Europe and German emigrations
overseas have carried German dialects abroad. In the
case of "Pennsylfaanisch" or Pennsylvania German, other
dialects have been produced that show considerable lexical
and phonetic differences from those originally spoken in
Central Europe. In 1969 it was estimated that there was
more than half a million speakers of Pennsylvania German
in North America and it was reported that its use as a

literary language was increasing. Pennsylfaanisch is
spoken in Southeastern Pennsylvania, Maryland, New Jersey
and Virginia. "Pennsylfaanisch" is derived from the
Rhenish Palatinate and shows, besides words borrowed from
English, an admixture of the Alsatian, Franconian Swiss
Platt, Swabian Bavarian and even Silesian dialects.

The following factors referring to Pennsylfaanisch
are considered by Weissenborn (1983) as very important
for the retention of one's mother tongue: the size and
shape of the linguistic island where it is spoken, the
proximity of that territory to external linguistic
influences and the "territorial association" or bonding
of the speakers who settle the area. Weissenborn (1983)
states:

> In a multilingual society, the resolve to retain
> one's mother tongue and ethnic identity is often
> weakened by the temptation to acculturate or
> assimilate with the dominant group. This
> influence may come in the form of either gentle
> persuasion or direct pressure.

A study done by the "Instituto Nacional de
Investigación y Desarrollo de la Educación" (1979) in
Puno, Peru, presents a linguistic situation involving
Spanish, Quechua and Aymara. The study addresses three
questions: sociocultural implications of the linguistic
situation, bilingualism and socioeconomic relations and
the pedagogical implications of the linguistic phenomenon.

The study shows that there is interference between the Standard Spanish and the Quechua, Aymara and other languages. According to the study there are phonological, morphosyntactic and lexical peculiarities from Standard Spanish in the other languages and vise versa. These peculiarities and these elements correspond to the characteristics of the "Castellano Andino", Spanish of the interior of Peru, which possesses characteristics of the Indian languages, especially the Quechua, Aymara and Knoki. Once more, one sees interference, code-switching or mixture of language in a bilingual situation where the community decides the "density" of the languages involved in this case Spanish, Quechua and Aymara.

Structure of "Spanglish"

Milan (1973) discusses the following examples suggested by Galanes et al in which reference is made to "characteristic features":

Semantic reassignment.

> This feature consists of a transference of meaning from a word in one language to a word in another language which originally had a different meaning of its own. For example, carpet in English refers to something used to cover the floor. There is a Spanish word 'carpeta' that is commonly used to refer to a small portfolio or loose-leaf binder. In contemporary New York City Puerto Rican speech the word 'carpeta' has assumed a new meaning: something used to cover floors; thus it has become a true cognate of the corresponding English word. (Milan, 1973)

Another example is that of 'application'. The word 'applicacion' in Spanish and the English word "application" do share a common meaning. They both correspond to postverbal nominalization of the verb to apply (Spanish: "aplicar"). So in addition to being acoustic correlates, they are also cognates on at least one count. However, the word "application" also refers to the set of documents that one fills out in order to be considered for employment, membership in an organization or some other type of benefit; this meaning is not shared by "application" in standard Spanish (Milan, 1973).

This brings forth another example. The word "yarda", (measure unit) in Spanish does share a common meaning with the word "yard" in English. In addition to accoustic correlation, they are also cognates. However, the word "yard" also refers to a space out-of-doors. The word for this Spanish would be "patio" but in contemporary New York City Puerto Rican Spanish, the word is "yarda".

Large-scale word borrowing. This is considered one of the most prominent characteristic features of New York City Spanish. In this category we can list "bil" (English "bil"), which replaces the Spanish word "cuenta" and "factura". Another is "jol" (English "hall") which replaces the Spanish word "pasillo" (Milan, 1973). Other examples are the

following: "ticket", "building", "parking", "taxes", and "party", which replace: "taquilla", "edificio", "estacionamiento", "impuestos", and "fiesta", respectively.

Loan translation. This phenomenon consists of the adaptation of an expression from the second language into the every day usage of the native tongue. It is the literal translation of the expression from one language to the other. The expression "take advantage of this opportunity" becomes the often heard New York City Spanish construction "tome usted ventaja de esta oportunidad." Yet standard Spanish expression is "aprovechese usted de esta oportunidad" (Milan, 1973). Another common example is the expression "I am supposed to" which becomes the often heard New York City Spanish construction "yo estoy supuesto a . . ." The standard Spanish, however, should be "se supone que yo . . ."

Levitt (1975) gives some examples of loan translations. "Esta siendo", "is being" as in "El automovil esta siendo reparado","The automobile is being repaired", is considered an anglicism. Purists prefer "Se repara el automovil". An expression like "la accion a tomar", "the action to take", instead of "la accion por tomar" is attributed to French. Forms like "una carta recomendando" (a letter recommending) and "un mapa mostrando" (a map showing) are also regarded as anglicisms. Purists would

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insist on "una carta que recomienda" and "un mapa que muestra". Sentences beginning with "es" plus a noun phrase or pronoun plus "que" are considered English or French in syntax, as in "Es por esta razon que he consentido". "It is for this reason that I have consented." Purists recommend, "Esta es la razon por la cual he consentido," "This is the reason for which I have consented."

Morphosyntactic readjustments. This fourth "characteristic feature" is the most subtle one therefore, the least noticeable, shift of word order. For example: "Que usted piensa?" The verb is after the pronoun. This is a restructuring of the Spanish word order to fit the English syntax as in "What do you think? The standard Spanish construction would be: "Que piensa usted?" with the pronoun following the verb (Milan, 1973).

Phonemic distinctions. The fifth characteristic feature by Milan refers to the phonemic qualities of the vowels /E/ and /O/. He stresses the fact that these phonemic distinctions are not found exclusively in the Spanish spoken in New York City. In 1928 Navarro Tomas found cases in Puerto Rican insular Spanish where the original plural marker /S/ in words ending in /e/ and /o/ had already gone through the aspiration stage and completely

disappeared, leaving an open final vowel /E/ or /o/ as the corresponding plural markers, and this in turn yielded a minimal pair on each pluralization. An example of this is the word "niño" changed to the plural form "niños", which becomes "niño". The original form has gone through the aspiration stage leaving an open final vowel /o/ as the corresponding plural marker. What Milan has found in New York City Puerto Rican Spanish is a proliferation of these phonemic qualities, especially among informants who are New York born and raised and seem to have no ties whatsoever with those dialectal zones in the Island where the phenomenon has been documented.

Milan (1973) proposes the following hypothesis: The phonemic quality of Puerto Rican Spanish /E/ and /o/ as opposed to /e/ and /o/ was brought into New York by speakers of Puerto Rican dialects in which the distinction already occurred. This distinction was then, according to Milan, reinforced in the mainland by the existence in English of bonafide phonemes /E/ and/o/ which also stood in opposition to /e/ and /o/. Once reinforced, the opposition continued to spread throughout the Puerto Rican community especially among those born and raised in New York, whose closer familiarity with English made the distinction more obvious.

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If that characteristic feature was found in Puerto
Rico by Navarro Tomas in 1928 and reaffirmed by Calhoun
in 1967, why couldn't we say that it was just brought
directly to New York by the Puerto Ricans who migrated:
that there is no connection between that phonemic quality
and the English language. This could be considered a mere
coincidence. Puerto Ricans who were born in New York City
picked it up from their parents, and not necessarily as
a result of phonemic interference with English.

It seems that this phonemic quality is a characteristic
of the Puerto Rican insular Spanish just like the dorsal
/Ɔ/ at the end of a word, the alteration of "s" and "h"
at the end of a word, "ehtoy", "lah", "cohtah", the velar
r: carro, ferrocarril, etcetera. The same could be said
about the dorsal /Ɔ/ as in "pan" /paŋ/ since it exists in
both standard English and Spanish spoken in New York City?

According to Ruben del Rosario (1972), these
characteristics, except for the velar r, exist in other
Caribbean countries. Jean M. Lope Blanch in his book
El Espanol de America (1968) states that peculiarities
(like velar r, existence of the phoneme, seven phoneme
vowel system with /E/ and /Ɔ/ as plural morphemes) could
be the result of the Indian and African influence. del
Rosario (1968) considers that

. . . the English language's influence over the
Puerto Rican Spanish is not as great in the phonetic
or lexicon as some linguists are inclined to think
(Translated from Juan M. Lope Blanch, El Espanol
de America, 1968.)

Rosario (1972) alludes to the existence of the seven vowel

phonemes, but he points out that this phenomenon exists

in other Spanish speaking zones. An in-depth study of the

seven vowel phenomenon is needed so as to determine if the

phonemes /E/ and /ɔ/ come from the influence of the English

language, or if it is just one more characteristic of the

insular Spanish, as in the cases mentioned previously.

Milan (1973) concluded his hypothesis by saying that

without the historical background on Puerto Rican insular

dialectology, a mere synchronic analysis of Puerto Rican

Spanish phonology in New York City could have concluded

that the phonemes /E/ and /ɔ/ were introduced into New

York City Puerto Rican speech directly from English as the

result of phonetic interference.

Milan (1973) looks at the phenomenon of "Spanglish"

from the point of view of language evolution. He sees the

five characteristic features as "common everyday linguistic

changes that occur naturally in language a factor that

could present a change, precipitate a change or shift it".

<u>Word component fusion</u>. A characteristic feature not
mentioned by either investigator is that of the fusion of
components of the two languages in contact creating new
words. Nevertheless this investigator has been able to
identify this feature and provide the following example:

    a. "shalpial" = "sharp" + "afilar": components of
the verb "sharpen" in English and the verb "afilar" in
Spanish are fused to produce the new word "shalpial".

    b. "pushiando" = "pushing" + "empujando":
components of the verb "pushing" in English and the verb
"empujando" in Spanish are fused to produce a new word.
The root of the English word "pushing" is fused with the
gerund of the Spanish word "empujando" to produce the new
word "pushiando".

    Other examples are:

    c. "lonchal" = "lunch" + "almorzar"

    d. "rufo" = "roof" + "techo"

    e. "likiando" = "leak" + "gotereando"

    f. "grasa" = "grass" + "grama"

A brief examination of the information presented by
some authors provided examples of the way in which this
phenomenon has been used.

    No doubt there are other characteristic features of
"Spanglish", but, there is a scarcity of investigation or

study. Intensive research will be required to enhance the existing literature on "Spanglish".

Teachers' Attitudes Toward Linguistic Differences and Their Effect in the Teaching Learning Process

Definition of Attitude

Since this study deals with attitudes, it is necessary at this point to define what an attitude is in general. Various dictionaries define an attitude as a position or bearing as indicating action, feeling, or mood; as behavior representative of feeling or conviction; a disposition that is primarily grounded in affect and emotion and is expressive of opinions rather than belief; a persistent disposition to act either positively or negatively toward a person, group, object, situation, or value.

From the psychological point of view an attitude is defined as a "positive or negative affective reaction toward a denotable abstract or concrete object or proposition" (Bruvold, 1970, in Wrightsman, 1977). It is interesting how McGuire (1969) in Wrightsman (1977) presents the proposition that people may take three existential stances in regard to the human condition--knowing, feeling, and acting. These three stances are reflected by the three components of the most frequent conceptualization of

an attitude--the cognitive, the affective, and the conative

components (Insko & Schopler 1967, Sheth, 1977, in

Wrightsman, 1977).

The components of an attitude are presented as follows:

cognitive

affective   =   attitude

conative

The cognitive component includes the beliefs, the

perceptions, the information one has about the attitude

object. (Harding, Kutner, Proshansky & Chein (1969).

Stereotypes, overgeneralized, innacurate or partially

innacurate beliefs are part of the cognitive component.

The affective component in contrast to the cognitive one,

refers to the emotional feelings about, or the liking or

disliking of the attitude object. Positive feelings

might include respect, liking and sympathy; negative

feelings might be contempt, fear and revulsion. The

affective component is probably the most central aspect

of an attitude (Wrightsman, 1977). The conative component

refers to one's policy orientation toward the attitude

object, or one's stance "about the way in which persons or

attitude objects should be treated in specific social

contexts" (Harding et al; 1954 in Wrightsman 1977).

People who study attitudes in detail see them as
predispositions that affect the way people act and react
toward others. Attitudes are presumed to be related to a
variety of behaviors and actions. Attitudes possess three
central characteristics: They always have an object; they
are usually evaluative; and they are considered relatively
enduring. The fourth characteristic is often included in
the definition of an attitude: a predisposition toward
action, or "a state of readiness for motive arousal"
(Newcomb, Turner & Converse, 1965 in Wrightsman, 1977).
A. R. Cohen (1964) in (Wrightsman, 1977) states:

> Most of the investigators whose work we have
> examined make the broad assumption that since
> attitudes are evaluative predispositions, they
> have consequences for the way people act toward
> others, for the program they actually undertake,
> and for the manner in which they carry them out.
> Thus attitudes are always seen as precursors of
> behavior, as determinants of how a person will
> actually behave in his daily affairs.

This is the major concern and the main reason why the
researcher is studying the attitudes of teachers toward
linguistic differences, specifically attitudes of bilingual
teachers toward "Spanglish".

Many studies have demonstrated that the teacher has
the most important role in the educational process in the
classroom. Davino (1970), Emeruva (1970) in Stern and
Keislar (1977) state that "how the teacher feels about

the characteristics of the students and their life styles has an important impact on reading instruction." Brophy and Good (1969) state:

> Teachers do, in fact, communicate differential
> performance expectations to different children
> through their classroom behavior, and the
> nature of this differential treatment is such
> as to encourage the children to begin to respond
> in ways which would confirm teacher expectancies.

The question to be answered is the following: To what extent are teachers expectations determined or affected by their attitudes toward the students?

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) concluded that teacher expectations about student achievement many influence student performance on achievement tests. Brophy and Good (1969) assumed the following model in their research done in Texas:

> The teacher forms differential expectations for
> student performance. He/she then begins to treat
> children differently in accordance with his
> differential expectations. The children respond
> differently to the teacher because they are being
> treated differently by him. In responding to the
> teacher each child tends to exhibit behavior which
> complements and reinforces the teacher's particular
> expectations for him/her. As a result, the general
> academic performance of some children will be

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enhanced while that of others will be depressed, with changes being in the direction of teacher expectations. These effects will show up in the achievement tests given at the end of the year, providing support for the "self fulfilling prophecy" notion.

Brophy and Good (1969) proved that the teachers demanded better performance from those children for whom they had higher expectations and were more likely to praise such performance when it was elicited. In contrast, they were more likely to accept poor performance from students for whom they held low expectations and were less likely to praise their good performance from these students when it occurred, even though it occurred less frequently. The findings support the hypotheses of Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) concerning teacher expectation effects. The study provided evidence that the teacher's differential expectations for performance were being communicated in their classroom behavior.

Stern and Keisler (1977) present and analyze in a very interesting way the teacher attitudes toward study attributes. These two authors state that:

> Most people would agree that teachers attitudes toward students have an important impact on how students feel about themselves, as well as on the rate at which they acquire academic skills.

It has been too difficult to demonstrate a consistent correlation between teacher attitudes and student attitudes and achievement. However, Aiken (1970) in Keislar (1977) state. . . "fine grained analyses seem to indicate, that while a teacher with a positive attitude may have little influence, the teacher with a negative attitude can have an adverse affect."

Rothbart, Dalfen and Barret (1971) did a study to clarify the process linking teachers' expectations with changes in the students' behavior. Specifically, how would the teacher in a classroom setting behave differently toward "bright" than toward "dull" students? The data obtained suggests that teachers pay more attention to the "better" students, and that these students in turn respond by talking more. It was found that low-expectation students were evaluated as having greater need for approval. This finding can be interpreted in two different ways. First, it may be that the teacher's stereotype of a student with poor academic potential includes the trait of "high need for approval". Second, if the teacher is clearly showing more interest in the high-expectation students, the low-expectation students may recognize the teacher's expectations and conform to them (Rothbart, Dalfen, Barret, 1971). This is one more study that supports

previous research indicating that teachers expectations influence student performance. "Low teacher expectations toward students grow a fatalistic teacher's attitude that influences student performance" (Rothbart, Dalfen, Barret, 1971).

Research shows that teacher interaction with students perceived as low achievers is less motivating and less supportive than interaction with students perceived as high achievers. Research also shows that high achievers receive more response opportunities and are given more time to respond to questions (Kerman, 1979). This attitude of discriminatory interactions from the part of teachers toward students affects the student's achievement.

The Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools sponsored a three year study, under the direction of Sam Kerman, to find out whether, if teachers practiced specific motivating and supportive interactions more frequently with low achievers, statistically significant academic growth would result. They showed that teachers unconsciously interact more favorably with high achievers. A statistically significant number from each group (experimental and control) were observed interacting with their students prior to initiating inservice training for

the program. The teachers were observed on two occasions
approximately one week apart. The collected data clearly
substantiated the hypotheses that teachers unconsciously
interact more favorably with high achievers. All teachers
in the two groups practiced the identified 15 interactions
more frequently with high achievers. After, the teachers
participated in five workshops (inservice training) one
month apart, in which the teachers would identify and
discuss why all teaching techniques aren't being practiced
as frequently with low achievers as with high achievers.
At the conclusion of the three year study low achievers
in experimental classes showed statistically significant
academic gains. There was also a significant reduction
in discipline referrals.

Cohen (1964) in Wrightsman (1977) points out that;

> . . . since attitudes are evaluative predispo-
> sitions, they have consequences for the way
> people act toward others, for the program they
> actually undertake, and for the manner in which
> they carry them out. Thus, attitudes are always
> seen as precursors of behavior, as determinants
> of how a person will actually behave in his
> daily affairs.

Baez (1968) in Rothbart (1971) states: "A teacher's
expectation can influence at least some aspects of a
student performance."

According to Stern and Keislar (1977) the most
important attributes of a student are race or ethnicity,

socioeconomic status, divergent speech pattern of language, level of ability or achievement performance, sex and classroom behavior.

Race has been given a lot of attention as it has been proven that "both white and black teachers have biased attitudes toward black students" (Stern and Keislar, 1977). Some of the attitudes include: black children as being more introverted, more distractable, more hostile than white children. Attitudes toward Mexican American children are also extremely negative, becoming increasingly more so with grade level. Palomares (1970) in Stern and Keislar (1977) reported that many educators hold stereotypic views of the Mexican American child. Some of the attitudes suggest that Mexican American children have a negative self concept. But Palomares' thinks this attitude is as much a false stereotype as the caricature of the Mexican as lazy, fatalistic, and unable to delay gratification. The Mexican American child, adds Palomares (1970) is put in a situation where he has to either conform to the stereotypic behavior or reject his cultural heritage. The author feels that the same stereotypes are held of the Puerto Rican child by educators and members of the community at large, even though the two groups (Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans) are living in different parts of the United States.

The socioeconomic status of students is considered
to be another important factor in determining teacher's
behavior. It is felt by Stern and Keislar (1977: "that
children who present behavior problems are treated
differently, depending upon whether they come from middle
class or poor families." Both authors suggest that for
middle class students when a problem arises in school, the
teacher tries to have a parent conference, while with the
poor child the emphasis is on punitive action with retention
in grade as the most frequent recommendation.

Ability and sex are two more factors that influence
the attitudes of teachers. Many studies have indicated
that sex stereotyping is an important determinant of
differential teacher attitudes. The teacher's sex related
attitudes are considered most critical in the teaching of
reading (Stern and Keislar, 1977).

Speech is one attribute that Stern and Keislar, (1977)
bring to discussion as frequently confounded with race
and socioeconomic status. Studies show that there is a
great deal of confounding of attitudes toward ethnic
minorities and/or poverty environments. Studies have
also indicated that linguistic differences reflected
variations in ethnicity and socioeconomic status and "these
in turn were associated with stereotypic attitudes regarding
the personal traits and abilities of the speakers" (Stern

and Keislar, 1977). "Without exception, the research literature supports the finding that linguistic attitudes and stereotypes affect teacher's perceptions of students." "Non-standard speakers are consistently rated low in education, intelligence, socioeconomic status, and speaking ability" (Stern and Keislar, 1977).

Williams, Whitehead, and Miller (1971) in Stern and Keislar (1977) found that "On the whole, judgments based on speech characteristics are predictive of how children are graded and assigned to classrooms." This is further shown by Rosenfeld (1973) in his study which confirmed that teachers form stereotypic expectations based on ethnic and social class cues, and that these are transmitted in both, the audio and visual modes." The most critical factor in establishing the prejudicial attitude was found to be the audio visual mode, in other words listening to speech.

Stern and Keislar (1977) state: "It is difficult to find objective experimental data relating attitudes of teachers toward specific linguistic or eclectic instructional models and outcomes with children."

According to De Stefano (1978) language attitudes are:

> . . . sets of judgments that place relative values on the 'worth' of some languages or varieties. An attitude toward language is a judgment about linguistic variation along a continuum of 'least worthy or valued' or 'most worthy or valued'.

These judgments are culturally constrained; each culture has its set of values concerning the varieties of a language and the languages it comes in contact with.

Webber (1979) states;

The vast majority of the literature emanates a reverence for children's language, which I feel certain must inculcate in all but the most insensitive teachers, a respect for children's language and a realization that a teacher who does not have this respect will make his pupils ashamed of their own language.

Halliday (1968) in Webber (1979) feels that,

A speaker who is made ashamed of his own language habits suffers a basic injury as a human being; to make anyone, especially a child, feel so ashamed is as indefensible as to make him feel ashamed of the colour of his skin.

The presumption that teachers' linguistic attitudes affect the teachers expectations of the students, consequently affecting the students progress in school, has served as motivation to do some research studies in this area. Williams (1976) suggests that,

Very definite relations can be found between particular variations of language and the attitudes of listeners. In other words, most studies have been able to draw conclusions that have some degree of applicability to types of speech and the reactions of listeners.

It could be assumed then that if one of the factors that affects the attitudes of teachers toward students is speech, a student who speaks a non-standard form of language will be disadvantaged, as it will affect the expectations of the teacher. The teacher in turn will

expect poor performance from these students for whom they hold low expectations.

The landmark U.S. district court decision Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School Children v Ann Arbor School District Board in July, 1979 established the importance of teachers' attitudes toward language. Judge Charles Joiner upheld the claim of eleven Black parents that the school system failed to take "their children's spoken dialect into account and it failed to teach them to read Standard English" (Kossack 1980, in Freeman 1982). The judge further stated that the language barrier is not Black English itself, but rather teacher attitudes, which cause black English speakers to feel inferior." (Kossack, 1980).

The judge also stated that an unconscious negative attitude of teachers toward Black English could be a reason Black-dialect speakers have problems learning to read. Furthermore, the refusal of teachers to recognize the legitimacy of that dialect may cause it to become a language barrier (Smith 1980 in Freeman (1982).

Many educators have supported the "deficit theory" of language variation. The theory is based on the premise that dialects and variations of standard English are structurally inferior; consequently they are limited in their ability to express logical and abstract thought.

Therefore, children who speak non-standard dialects are verbally deprived.

Studies dealing with teachers' attitudes toward language variation have consistently indicated that teachers have norms and expectations for language behavior. Further, teachers may make evaluations of a speaker's personality, ethnicity, education, or intelligence based on certain speech clues.

The matched-guise technique was introduced by Lambert et al in 1960. It involves judges reactions to speakers who are either bilingual or bidialectal. The speakers provide, unknown to the judge, recorded samples of each of their speech styles. Judges, therefore, believe themselves to be reacting to two different speakers rather than one speaker to two speech styles.

Ramirez Arce Torres, and Politzer (1976) in Freeman (1982), used the matched-guise technique to judge varieties of Standard English and "Hispanized" English on appropriateness for school correctness, and the speaker's likelihood to achieve in school. The participating teachers generally rated Standard English higher than the other speech varieties. Some pedagogical implications are derived from this study. An influence that can be drawn is that teacher attitudes and expectations toward a student's language are conveyed to students either directly

or indirectly. Negative teacher attitudes toward a student's language may generate teacher behavior, negative student attitudes and poor student achievement. This prophecy continues to perpetuate itself as negative teacher attitudes are reinforced by poor student oral and written language. Stokes (1976) in Freeman (1982) has pointed out that "unless teachers soften negative attitudes toward dialect and dialect speakers it is doubtful that any meaningful progress toward facilitating language teaching, learning and use can be successfully effected."

The review research has showed that teachers' attitudes affect their evaluations of children's oral language ability, including oral reading. A negative evaluation may result in underestimating achievement and using differential assessment norms for the dialect speaking child.

According to Freeman (1982) teacher attitudes can affect the reading instruction that dialect speakers receive. Goodman and Buck (1973) in Freeman (1982) explains:

> Rejection or correction by the teacher of any dialect based miscue moves the reader away from using his own linguistic competence to get to meaning toward a closer correspondence to the teacher's expected response to the text.

Goodman and Buck (1973) in Freeman (1982) have pointed out that the solution to reading problems of

divergent speakers resides in "changing attitudes of
teachers and writers of instructional programs toward the
language of learners."

Williams and Associates (1976) did a study to find
out how teachers attitudes toward different dialects might
be related to expectancy of pupils' classroom performance
in particular subject matter areas, and to what degree
stereotyping could be said to play a role in teacher's
evaluations of children's language. The results showed
that ratings of confidence-eagerness seem to reflect
perception of fluency in a situation. Ratings of ethnicity-
nonstandardness may be a direct reflection of the
grammatical characteristics exhibited in the child's
language. The correspondence between language character-
istics and language attitudes prompts considerations of a
major problem discussed in many contemporary urban league
studies. The tendency of teachers and educational
researchers is to confuse language differences with
deficits. As argued by the urban language researchers,
most minority group children are developing quite normal
and adequate linguistic systems to meet the demands of
the individual speech communities. Although it may be
accurate for a teacher to evaluate a child's language as
ethnic and nonstandard or reticent, it may be quite

inaccurate to always expect this performance in all speech situations.

The moderate relation between stereotyped ratings of ethnicity nonstandardness and other ratings suggests that teachers to some degree may be fulfilling their own expectations even in the evaluations of children. This predisposition, too, requires further exploration. To what degree in evaluating the speech of a child do teachers differ in their capability of being sensitive to dialect variations relative to their stereotyped attitudes?

One of the most practical implications of this research is a suggestion that the study of language variations in children, particularly minority group children, and attitudinal correlates be introduced into the curricula of teacher training. To prevent language attitudes from serving as false prophecies, teachers should be trained to be sensitive to variations in social dialects and variations in performance.

The results of this study were similar to the results of the French and English Canadian in which both Anglo and Mexican-American teachers held similar stereotypes of their school population as indicated by the fact that Anglo children were thought to possess more confidence and be less ethnic sounding as well as have higher academic expectancies than their Mexican-American counterparts. It

appears, that the social status of the Mexican-American
child will be a more important factor in making language
and academic judgments than the status of the Anglo child.
In the unrelated language arts assignments (music, arts,
physical education), Mexican-American children teachers
rated Mexican-American children as having better capa-
bilities. Both Anglo and Mexican-American teachers held
similar stereotypes of their school population as
indicated by the fact that Anglo children were thought to
possess more confidence and be less ethnic sounding as
well as have higher academic expectancies than their
Mexican-American counterparts.

Why do teachers of different ethnicities hold similar
stereotypes and make similar judgments of children's
speech and academic performance? It is Williams and
Associates' view that teachers of minority race may have
internalized the values and expectations of the majority
either through educational pressures or personal choice.
Williams and Associates (1976) also feel that in some
respects, the student may be misled if he feels that
a teacher of his own ethnicity may have a different or
more accurate insight into his capabilities and cultural
differences.

One questions this last statement and wonders if
"this internalization of the expectations of the majority

through educational pressures or personal choice", from part of the teachers is an appropriate speculation. Specifically, the author questions the part of the statement referring to the cultural differences. The author believes, and research has shown, that a teacher with the same ethnic background will have a more accurate insight of the cultural differences since he/she comes from the same cultural background as the child.

The Cross Cultural Southwest Ethnic Center did a study based on a questionnaire completed by teachers of Spanish from the El Paso area in West Texas. The purpose of the study was to attempt to identify specific language attitudes among El Paso public school teachers of Spanish. Twenty five teachers agreed to complete the instrument. The authors of the study consider the study to be a reflection of attitudes and trends in this area toward bilingualism/biculturalism. MacIntosh and Ornstein (1974) state that "prejorative views have been the rule regarding Southwest Spanish--a dialect which admittedly reflects very heavy English interference where such terms as 'Tex Mex', 'border lingo' and worse appellations are all common." They also bring up the fact that the Chicano militancy of recent years has exercised an influence in favor of according legitimate status to Southwest Spanish.

The findings of the study in general show "that the teachers perception pretty much corresponded to the reality of the situation. Balanced bilingualism (can perform as adequately in one language as in the other) is the exception rather than the rule at El Paso, Texas. It also shows that "there is need for the inclusion in teacher's training courses for basic modern linguistic nations about the nature of language varieties" McIntosh and Ornstein (1974).

"The heavy interferences of English upon Spanish" in this contact situation makes it inevitable that the general variety of Spanish spoken in the entire Southwest and not merely the El Paso area alone be regarded as a dialect. In considering this study it showed that 14 out of 25 teachers felt that less than one half of their students are capable of speaking a standard educated form of Spanish or English while 8 or about one third even considered that only a tiny minority, perhaps 10 percent or less could do so. To the question concerning the teachers perceptions of the type of Spanish spoken in the area or more than a quarter considered it normal educated style and 7 typified it as Southwest dialect. Eleven or almost half of the teachers considered it as "border slang."

MacIntosh and Ornstein (1974) state that Southwest Spanish is far broader in its communicative functionality

than the narrowness of term "slang" would imply. They suggest that "perhaps the best term might be that of Elinar Haugen, who has proposed the "bilingual dialect" or "contactual dialect." They see the responses as reflecting a lack of exposure to sociolinguistic ideas because of the very narrowness of the term "slang" in reference to an actual language variety.

The study conducted by Williams & Associates (1976) in Chicago was based on the question of whether the tapes used for the Detroit dialect study to differentiate children according to social status and ethnicity might also be differentiated upon the basis of listener attitudes. The semantic differential format was used for this study.

Thirty three primary school teachers participated in the study. All of them were from schools in inner city Chicago. Speech samples from 40 fifth and sixth grade children were selected from sound tapes of the original Detroit study. They were obtained randomly, selecting pairs of Black and white children (matched by sex and socioeconomic index) from the relatively low and middle-to-high ranges of the socioeconomic distribution of informants from the parent study. The findings showed that ratings of status could largely be accounted for within the two factor model. "Sounding disadvantaged" or

"low class" was associated with perceiving a child as reticent or unsure in the speech situation, but even more so with sounding ethnic and nonstandard in his language usage. Ratings of status were predicted on the basis of selected features of speech and language found in the samples. Features such as silent pausing and deviation from standard English (related to ethnicity nonstandard-ness) were among the most salient predictors. Ratings of a child's race were more of a central correlate of factor II (ethnicity-standardness). White teachers' ratings of race were more correlated with status-judgments than those of "Black" teachers. The influence of the child's actual race appeared greater in the White teachers' ratings than in those of their "Black" counterparts. Black children, nine of 20 were located in the high social status category by White teachers, but six of these children were also rated as being White. The speech cues may elicit some type of general personality, cultural or ethnic stereotype and most of a teacher's judgments draw from this stereotype rather than from the continuous and detailed variety of input cues. As Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) suggests that a teacher will readily develop a detailed set of expectations about a child, even when such expectations are contrived.

This is evidence that such stereotypes exist and are part of the dynamics of teacher-pupil behavior. The study showed that White teachers' status-judgments seem to reflect a more direct association between race and status, both in terms of judged race and the child's actual race. Rather than evidence of some type of purposive vias on the part of the White teachers, this may be a reflection of a stereotype of pupil language which more strongly equate standardness with linguistic effectiveness and social status than would be found with the Black teachers. It could probably be assumed that most of the Black teachers, through the language experiences of their childhood coupled with the language of their educational programs, had developed a sensitivity to Black and White styles of speech and were more able than their White counterparts to differentiate levels of effectiveness and status in both styles. On the other hand, Williams and Associates (1976) add:

> The White teacher's experience with Negro speech has presumably been mostly confined to the school-room, where standardness is a key criterion. It is not unusual, then that they exhibited judg-mental behavior more tied to a child's actual race, and to perceptions of race, in their status evaluations of speech and language.

Ford (1978) studied the attitudes of prospective foreign language teachers toward nonstand English. His hypothesis stated that propsective foreign language teachers

would profess significantly more positive attitudes toward
English dialect differences than the prospective teachers
from the other areas of the curriculum. The interaction
of the following additional variables with the subjects'
language attitudes was considered: urban vs. nonurban
background, extensive experience abroad (two months or
more) and the teacher training institution. The instrument
used in the study was the Language Attitude Scale designed
to measure teachers' attitudes toward nonstandard English.
The prevailing view among linguists is that nonstandard
dialects such as Black English are legitimate linguistic
systems in their own right rather than ungrammatical,
deficient versions of Standard English. Many studies have
demonstrated that one of the key reasons the schools have
failed the minority group children is the lack of under-
standing of their linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

Most of the studies reveal that negative attitudes are
associated with particular varieties of non-standard
language. Teachers are for the most part, unaware of the
sociolinguistic literature dealing with non-standard English.
The results of the study showed that there is a
significant relationship between the prospective teaching
field and the subjects attitudes toward the structure and
inherent usefulness of non-standard English.

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The attitudes among the prospective foreign language teachers did not differ significantly as a function of the three minor variables. Those attending a large northern university located in an urban area tend to respond similarly to their counterparts attending a much smaller southern university located in a small community, and those who had experience abroad professed attitudes toward nonstandard English quite similar to those who had no experience abroad. However, significant relationships between the major variable, 'teaching field' and the subjects' attitudes were revealed. Significant differences favored the more positive English group over the more negative social studies group.

Williams and Associates (1976) presents a study also reported by Hopper and Williams (1973); in which they investigated the role of the language attitudes of employers in employment interviewing. Professional employment interviewers were asked to rate Black, Mexican-American, White Southern, and Standard American speakers recorded speech, answering such questions as 'How do you go about solving a problem at work.' The rating scale was composed of opposite adjectives such as:

educated ____:____:____:____:____:____:____:uneducated.

In addition to the interviewer's previous discussion of the speech samples, they were asked to register on a five

point scale, the probability that they would hire the person being interviewed for each of the seven job categories--executive, public relations, foreman, skilled technician, sales,clerical and manual labor. The results indicated that judgment of ethnicity of speech did not appear to militate against employment, although standard speakers were favored in the sphere of white collar jobs, white speech seemed to be of little importance in hiring manual labor. The most important adjectives in predicting employability from speech samples appeared to be: (1) 'intelligent-competent,' (2) 'self-assured,' and (3) 'agreeable.'

Shuy (1970) and Findley (1971) found different results when employers were asked to rank speech samples collected from all social strata of the Black community. It was found that employers consistently ranked professional Blacks in the same 'lower' categories, along with a salesman, policeman, and mechanics. Findley (1971) in Webber (1979) found that employers' decisions on the employability of Whites was influenced by the frequency and type of non-standard grammatical features in their speech samples.

While the previous examples were concerned with employability, in the case of Northeast Thailand school academic performance was considered, however, in the final analysis the inability to use the official language limits

school progress which ultimately limited employability.
In all of Thailand's schools, Central Thai is used as the
language of instruction reflecting its status as the
official language. Central Thai is used even where
different languages, Malay or Cambodian, or regional
dialects, Northern or Southern Thai are spoken at home.
Central Thai is not taught as a second language. Central
Thai is considered to have high status and prestige. A
study was done in Bang Nang Yai, Thailand, where the native
language is Isan, however the language of instruction in
school is Central Thai. They have heard Central Thai
and teachers speak Isan in some general school situations
such as to explain vocabulary or concepts which are not
understood in Central Thai, to give orders, generally of
a non-academic nature, or to teach art, music and physical
education. It is also used to work with students on
school improvement projects. Central Thai is primarily
used in the formal academic context and Isan in the
informal context. In Band Nang Yai, the parents of 22
children competing in grade four actively considered
further schooling for their children in 1970. The
admission's examination at both schools was conducted in
Central Thai, students were also required to take a
dictation test in Central Thai. At one of the admitting
schools none of the students of Bang Nang Yai was accepted.

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At the other school two Bang Nang Yai students were accepted. The two students accepted had had some experience/contact. Their linguistic experience with Central Thai contributed to their success while the deficiency in Central Thai contributed to the disadvantage at which the children who were not accepted found themselves. They had to compete with children from the urban Northeast, residents of Khon Kaen, a town who regularly heard Central Thai on the streets, on radio and television, and in their own schools. Students from Bang Nang Yai found themselves competing with other children whose native language was Central Thai.

The data from Thailand support the contention that linguistic deprivation, seen as differences between the language or dialect of the home and that of the school ultimately limits occupational choices for the children of impoverished cultural and linguistic minorities.

This linguistic deprivation that the author refers to is considered as such because the schools do not consider any other dialect as a legitimate one. If Isan was considered by school personnel as a legitimate dialect and as an accepted means of instruction, showing at the same time respect for the children, the so called "linguistic deprivation" concept could be called "linguistic

differences". It could also be referred to as an enrichment for the culture instead of impoverishing it.

The data shows very clearly "the influence that the linguistic environment of the home has on school success and on success in the critical entrance examinations to the next level of schooling" (Gurevich, 1976).

Language was used as the instrument to put in action discrimination against the Northeast region of Thailand. The Northeast region of Thailand is economically depressed (Gurevich, 1976).

The study of Putnam and O'Hern (1955) in Williams and Associates (1976) involved both the description of dialect differences and a test of the importance of these differences judging social status of the speaker. The speech of members of a lower-class Black urban area in Washington, D.C., was analized for the range of phonemic and syntactic deviations from "Standard" English. Three speakers from the lower-class community and nine other speakers of varying higher social status were recorded after they had been read the fable of "The Lion and the Mouse" and were asked to retell it in their own words. These twelve speech samples were then arranged in random order and played to 70 untrained judges, who were asked to rate the speakers' social status. The correlation between the judges'

ratings and an objective index (Warner's Index of Social Status) was .80. The fact that the respondents produced such accurate judgments of the speakers' status on the basis of short speech samples emphasizes the importance of dialect cues in social class identification.

A study by Buck (1968) involved racial identification of speakers in addition to general attitudinal ratings of "competence" and "trustworthiness". College students were asked to listen to tapes of White and Black New York speech judged to be variations of "standard" and "nonstandard" English. On several attitude measures, the students expressed a preference for the speakers of "standard" dialect and was judged by 24 out of 26 subjects as being White. However, there was no confusion in distinguishing the Negro "nonstandard" speech from the White "nonstandard speech".

Anisfeld, Bogo, and Lambert (1962) in Williams (1976) used the matched guise technique where the variation was between Jewish accented and nonaccented speech samples. Bidialectical speakers were recorded once in standard (Canadian) English and again in Jewish accented English. Results indicated that gentile listeners responded less favorably to a speaker when he was using Jewish accented speech. However Jewish listeners evidenced variation in

their evaluations of persons with Jewish accents. On certain personality traits they were judged more favorably, while on other characteristics they were devaluated.

In another study, Lambert, Frankel and Tucker used the matched guise technique to determine when and how a presumed inferiority feeling for their own ethnic-linguistic group first shows itself among French Canadian young people. Three hundred and seventy three French-Canadian girls, ranging in age from 9 to 18, were asked to evaluate the personalities of speakers reading standard passages in English and French. The reactions to the matched guises of the speakers were compound and it was found that definite preferences for English Canadian guises appeared at about age 12 and were maintained through the late teen years for French Canadian girls, especially bilinguals (skilled in English) from upper middle class homes attending private schools. By listening to the different persons the judges made evaluations related to personal integrity, personal competence, social attractiveness. The findings suggest that the public schools monolinguals are generally satisfied with their French Canadian image since they favored the French Canadian guises of the same age speakers at the 16 year level. In contrast, the private school monolinguals may be expressing a marked rejection of themselves in the sense that they favor the

English Canadian guises. The public and particularly the private school bilinguals apparently favor English Canadian versions of themselves.

As this study suggests, it is also by listening to people that attitudes are assumed based on linguistic ability, linguistic competence and linguistic difference. Unfortunately, teachers, many studies show, do the same and make many wrong assumptions based on the students' linguistic differences.

It is necessary for educators to have a clear under-standing of the social, linguistic and pedagogical implications of the Black English phenomenon. In addition to this, educators as well as administrators or any other personnel with decision making power as it relates to the education field, should have an understanding of the reasons for its existence and above all, they should be aware of alternatives to deal with the linguistic situation in the classroom. There is no doubt that teachers will react to the linguistic phenomenon in different ways corresponding to their attitudes and experiences with the phenomenon. As Dillard (1972) states:

> Educational systems in the North American society
> are ignorant and handicapped not only by lacking
> adequate information about the Black English, but
> because they lack information about any other
> language form different from "standard English".

It is unfortunate that colleges where teachers get their professional training and academic preparation fail to emphasize linguistics and linguistic differences so as to avoid the language handicap mentioned by Dillard. The only form of language education majors are confronted with is "standard English" thus assuming that all children are able to function in it.

It is necessary to give some definitions of Black English according to different authors. William Labov (1972) in his book Language in the Inner City describes "black English vernacular" as a separate and independent dialect of English, with its own internal logic and grammar. His analysis of this vernacular goes beyond it to clarify the nature and processes of linguistic change in the context of a changing society. Labov also speaks of "black English vernacular" as the relatively uniform dialect spoken by the majority of black youth in most parts of the United States today, especially in the inner city areas of New York, Boston, Detroit, Philadelphia, Washington, Cleveland, Chicago, St. Louis, San Francisco, Los Angeles and other urban centers. It is also spoken in most rural areas and used in the casual intimate speech of many adults.

Labov establishes a difference between the terms "black English" and "black English vernacular". He says that the term "black English" is not suitable for the dialect, since it implies a dichotomy between Standard English on the one hand and "black" English on the other. He adds "Black English might best be used for the whole range of language forms used by black people in the United States: a very large range indeed, extending from the Creole grammar of Gullah spoken in the Sea Islands of South Carolina to the most formal and accomplished literary style. A great deal of misunderstanding has been created by the use of this term, "black English" when the latter became less acceptable to many people."

On the other hand, he defines the "black English vernacular" as "that relatively uniform grammar found in its most consistent form in the speech of black youth from 8 to 19 years old who participate fully in the street culture of the inner cities".

A distinguished professor of Psychology, Kenneth B. Clark describing the book of Edwin Newman, <u>Strictly Speaking, Will America be the Death of English</u> says:

> Strictly Speaking is an important, long over-due plea for those of us who have been intimidated into silence as we watch the many forms of linguistic vandalism. Those of us who recoil at the attempts to make some educational virtue out of 'black

English', who listen passively as expletives, releted and undeleted become the fashion of communication, now have a civilized advocate and defender in Edwin Newman.

A careful analysis of his attitude indicates that he has not considered the entire picture, but only specific parts that help to justify his limited approach to the issue of Black English.

Black English is also referred to as "Ebonics". The Seymours (1979) define ebonics as:

A variety of English spoken by a majority of Black Americans. It dates from preslavery to the present while undergoing many linguistic changes along the way.

When talking about Ebonics The Seymours (1979) refer to the term "style switching". According to The Seymours style switching refers to a speaker's alternative use of different styles of speaking. Style switching may be exemplified by a person who uses Ebonics when talking to Black listeners, and standard English when talking to White listeners. Switching is common to "man speaking"-- but is particularly typical of Ebonics speakers because the circumstances under which they use style-switching depends on certain social variables that are rather unique to the Black experience. In presenting the style-switching phenomenon, The Seymours (1979) explain that those Black people whose educational experiences have not sufficiently exposed them to the use of Mainstream American English

will not be effective style switchers. Also, Black people who have spoken Mainstream American English almost exclusively and have been removed from the "Black experience" for many years may also have difficulty switching to Ebonics.

The Seymours divide the style switchers into three types. First, Black speakers who are uneducated and for that reason have difficulty using Mainstream American English; second, Black speakers who are educated and able to speak Mainstream American English, but have difficulty using Ebonics, and third, Black speakers now are educated and are able to use both Mainstream American English and Ebonics. According to The Seymours (1979) of the three types of style switchers, the first type, the uneducated Ebonics speaker, has the least degrees of freedom in terms of mobility within the society at large. The second and third types have considerably more economic and professional opportunities available to them because they speak Main-stream American English and are also educated. The third type of style switchers have retained the richness of their first language and are able to communicate effectively with their own people, as well as Mainstream America. The second type of style switcher may not be as appropriate a communicative model as the third. However, rejection of

Ebonics and the almost exclusive use of Mainstream American English may be an inevitable result once Mainstream American English becomes a viable goal for Black children. The Seymours suggest a model of style-switching which would incorporate both Mainstream American English and Ebonics allowing a child's natural language to evolve to its fullest potential in an enriching nonpunitive environment.

Smitherman (1981) when discussing the Ann Arbor case points out that there were other black children attending King School but because they were from middle class professional families, they were competent in Standard English: "They were skilled at code switching and hence 'bilingual'." It seems that what The Seymours call style-switching, Smitherman calls code switching.

Yellin (1980) adopts the definition of Ebonics that Tolliver Weddington (1979) gives. Ebonics is "a dialect spoken by Black Americans living in low income communities", or "a creolized version of English". Yellin explains how, when Daniel Fader was testifying for the Ann Arbor case, he said: "Language is like clothing. When you take it away from the child, you leave him naked" (Green, 1979 in Yellin 1980).

Ebonics is defined by Wofford (1979) as a linguistic system with unique features and usages utilized consistently by 80 percent of Black Americans. Wofford sees Ebonics as a fully formed system in its own right; a system of oral communication used by Americans of African ancestry and consists of phonology, syntax, morphology, semantics, lexicon, rate, rhythm, stress, and nonverbal communication.

> Ebonics can be traced to a creolized version of
> English based upon a pidgin spoken by slaves
> which probably came from the West Coast of Africa.
> The existence of Gullah, of West Indian varieties
> of English, and of other languages such as
> Louisiana Creole--all spoken almost exclusively
> by Black people as undeniable. (Wofford, 1979)

Both Yellin (1980) and Wofford (1979) agree that Ebonics is a "creolized version of English".

Wofford (1979) sees Ebonics as a barrier between mainstream American society and Black American society. This barrier according to Wofford, can be removed but requires a number of painful changes from the mainstream society. These changes are the recognition of Ebonics as reality and a recognition that the majority of Black children's experiences do not correspond to those of middle class American children.

Teacher expectations, motivations, and attitudes are crucial factors in relating to children positively and

negatively. The teacher is a significant person in bringing quality education to all children. Arthur Combs (1962) in Wofford (1979) asserted that

> The most important changes will occur only as teachers change, for institutions are made up of people, and it is the classroom behavior of teachers that will finally determine whether our schools fail or whether they meet the challenge of our times.

Wofford sees the education programs continuing to be a major handicap for Black children because of the lack of adequate information about the system as well as the insensitivity of educators toward Black children, particularly the Black low-income child who speaks Ebonics.

Referring to the case of Martin Luther King Junior Elementary School Children v Ann Arbor School District Board, Smitherman (1981) says:

> In the educational context negative linguistic attitudes are reflected in the institutional policies and practices that become educational dysfunctional for Black English-speaking children.

Pooley (1974) in Smitherman (1981) states:

> Myths and misconceptions about language and negative attitudes toward language diversity are fostered in the school and perpetuated in the general populace by the public school experience. Schools and teachers are seen as guardians of the national tongue.

It was this type of mental set, adds Smitherman that led King School teachers to correct constantly, to the point of verbal badgering (the plaintiff children's speech), thereby causing them to become nonverbal; to exclude them from regular classes in order to take speech remediation for a nonexisting pathology, to give them remedial work since, "that's the best they can do"; and to suspend them from class for trivial and inconsequential acts of so-called misbehavior". Many people denounce Ebonics as street language. The following attestation by Jesse Jackson, Director of People United to Save Humanity, that, "street language" be left in the streets and not be allowed to be spoken in the schools, is a good example of a negative attitude that will not enhance the Black child's educational opportunities or help change the linguistic chauvinism attitude present in this society.

The impact of these negative attitudes of teachers toward Black English affects the educational process of the child. Many educators, according to Wofford (1979), are not knowledgeable to the significant structural and historical information about Ebonics; others have obtained minimal knowledge about this linguistic system. Educators who are aware of the existence of the system have done little in the way of changing curriculum and methods;

whereby the oral language children bring to school is accepted and used at the beginning of their formal education. As a result, Black children continue to be subjected to teachers who label the Ebonics system as bad, substandard, incorrect, impoverished, deprived, and non-language.

Baratz (1970) in Shafer (1976) states:

In addition to the overwhelming negative factors that face a lower-class child, there is the enormous handicap to the nonstandard speaker when he is expected to operate in a system that demands the use of standard English structure and style.

This language differences will interfere with his reading and writing processes in standard English. Reading is a key factor when talking about academic achievement. Inability to read at grade level prevents equal participation in the educational programs of the school as well as in the extra curricular programs.

To reduce the special problems created by differences in the dialects of teacher and pupils, authorities agree that the teacher "must understand the relationship between standard and nonstandard, and . . .: recognize that non-standard English is a system of rules, different from the standard but not necessary inferior as a means of communication" (Labov, 1970 in Shafer 1976). It should be understood that historically language has existed primarily for communication.

James Olsen (1971) in Shafer (1976) states:

These children, culturally different from middle
class children, have a great deal of untapped
verbal ability of a highly imaginative nature
which remains latent primarily because the
institutional arrangements of our schools militate
against direct and meaningful discussion.

Ignorance and the lack of interest in non-standard English
is the reason for this absence of meaningful discussion.

The Seymours (1979) recognize that a large percentage
of children speak Ebonics and that it is not pedagogically
sound to suggest that these children leave their language
outside the classroom. To suggest this is "to render them
mute because Ebonics is their first and only language."
The Seymours give a better solution, suggesting that
teachers and administrators leave their linguistic
prejudices and ignorance outside the schools. Attitudinal
changes by teachers and administrators are essential in
order to engender more enlightened and sensitive approaches
to the Black's child real rather than imagined problems.
The Seymours (1979) give an example of a white principal
of a racially mixed elementary school who was asked to
randomly select two or three Black children from the
hallway outside his office and ask them, while pointing
to his mouth, "What am I pointing to?" Each child
promptly responded mouf, to the surprise of the principal.

He then provided assurance that these children would be put into the special speech therapy classes. The principal's unfortunate assessment that the children tested required a speech therapist indicated that he did not understand the nature of dialect differences and considered Ebonics a pathological condition. It is The Seymours' opinion that,

> Anyone the least bit familiar with Ebonics would know that the sound /f/ is often substituted for the sound /th/ in some words positions which would explain the mouf for mouth substitution. Inaccuracy in diagnosing some children who speak Ebonics as communicatively handicapped, mentally retarted or learning disabled is very common in the school systems.

Labov (1970) in Monteith (1980) suggests that the chief difficulty is not so much in the dialect differences themselves as in the ignorance of those differences. A teacher who believes that the student's sound system matches his or her own is apt to teach reading in terms of sound of letters. Students may be confused when told that the "u" in "sure" has the /u/ sound, when "sure" and "shore" sound alike to them and are pronounced alike. Labov also explains that a child who reads "He always looked for trouble when he reads the news" as "He a'way look 'fo' trouble when he read the news" should be judged as reading correctly. James Olsen (1971) points out that cultural, phonological, and syntactical differences

between standard English and nonstandard English affect the teacher's instruction and the child's learning. He adds that it is for this reason that teachers should be aware of the possible interference points between the two dialects and be alerted to the fact that the grammatical differences between Black dialect and Standard English are probably extensive enough to cause reading problems.

Burling (1974) analyzes the Black English system and explains how these differences affect the reading process of the child. The existence of extra homonyms like four-for, hoarse-horse, biol-ball, in the speech of Black children presents them with a few special reading problems. These sets of homonyms will give the children serious problems only if his teacher "fails to understand that these words are homonyms in the child's natural speech." Burling points out the substitution of the sound /ə/ for /f/ and explains that if a student sees the word death and reads /def/ he is correctly interpreting the written symbols into his natural pronunciation, and he deserves to receive credit. Burling adds that if the teacher insists on correcting him and telling him to say /deə/, s/he is pronouncing a sequence of sounds that is quite literally foreign to the child, who may even have trouble hearing the difference between his own and his teacher's versions because the phoneme does not exist in Ebonics.

The teacher is correcting the child's pronunciation instead of his reading skills. The child can only conclude that reading is a mysterious and capricious art, and according to Burling (1974): "If he has enough experiences of this sort he is all too likely to give up and remain essentially illiterate all his life." Burling emphasizes the importance for anyone who is teaching Black English speakers to understand the dialect's system of homonyms and to distinguish cases of nonstandard pronunciation from real reading problems.

Monteith (1981) presents 13 points of agreement about Black English and reading:

1. Black English is an American dialect with its own history, grammatical rules, and pronunciation.

2. Black children are not verbally deprived. They may be verbally different if Black English vernacular is spoken at home. However, their language is perfectly adequate for thinking and expressing themselves.

3. Black English is not spoken by all Blacks or by some Blacks all the time.

4. Black children who speak a form of Black English Vernacular (BEV) do understand most spoken standard English. However some studies indicate that the language of testing or instruction may be unfamiliar to them.

5. Black English involves differing nonverbal communicative styles as well as differing verbal styles.

6. Black children may become defensively nonverbal or quiet in a testing situation, making adequate assessment of their language style or ability difficulty.

7. Students reading standard English orally in a Black dialect should not be corrected for mis-pronunciation.

8. Black children appear to read standard English as well as they read dialect readers.

9. Students are likely to be diagnosed as having an auditory perception problem when asked to differentiate between two sounds that are not different in their dialect.

10. Black children's peer group may have a negative effect on their school performance.

11. Black parents are usually adamant about wanting instruction to be in standard English.

12. Teachers attitudes toward nonstandard English may affect their expectations of students' abilities and consequently the students' achieve-ment.

13. Successful programs do exist where Black students
    in inner city areas are reading at or above
    grade level.

Jane Torrey (1970) states:

Illiteracy that occurs in urban America today
is not a direct result of language differences
but language is one of the cultural differences
that have played a key role in the failure of
schools to reach black children.

One of the implications Torrey presents is that English
instruction should not have the purpose of 'stamping out'
the native dialect. Standard English according to Torrey,
would be a second language, or rather, a second dialect to
be available alongside the native one for special purposes
such as school and contact with the standard speaking
community. People would still use Afro-American English
in their own community and the school would not have to
stigmatize it any more than it should condemn the use of
Spanish.

A question raised by Torrey is:

. . . whether a command of the standard language
is really necessary for educational purposes at
all; second, whether in higher education and in
the society at large there should be a more
flexible interpretation of 'correctness' in
spoken and written English; and finally, whether
the Afro-American language and the culture
associated with it are not in themselves worthy
objects of study in the school curriculum.
(Torrey, 1970).

According to Torrey (1970) the dialect differences can affect two aspects of language in the reading process. These two aspects are: the differences between the Afro-American and standard dialects--in their phonological, grammatic and semantic structures and the cultural and personal functions of language and language differences. The linguistic differences lead to confusion and mis-understanding, complicating the reading process, and the cultural and personal functions of language affect the social relations between a child and his school in such a way as to block effective learning.

The attitudes of teachers about Ebonics and the mis-diagnosis of Black children as handicapped and/or retarded have been identified as two of the most important areas in the education of the Black child. The teacher's constant correction of what is perceived as bad English; their instability or unwillingness to understand what the child says seriously impedes the communication between teacher and child; and often inhibits and disorients the child early in the educational process. Standardized tests are used frequently to assess children's proficiency and aptitudes. These tests, in varying degree require verbalization by the child examiner and the child. Verbalization according to The Seymours (1979), is

frequently an important part of the test wherein attempts are made to elicit target verbal responses from the child. These target verbal responses are specified to be in standard English, presenting difficulties for those Black children whose responses are not likely to be "standard".

Assessment and test biases is a concern of many. Wofford (1979) states that

> Black children, particularly low-income Black children, are automatically placed at a dis-advantage when their abilities are assessed by instruments which have been standardized on a white middle class normative system. Because these tests were designed and standardized on standard English-speaking children, it is not surprising that many Ebonics-speaking children perform poorly on many measures of speech and language performance. However, The Seymours add that these results are more a function of the nature of the test rather than deficiencies in the children.

Wofford (1979) gives an example to demonstrate the inappropriateness of the test to assess psycholinguistic abilities of lower-class minority groups--Blacks, Chicano and even Papago Indian children. The examiner's Manual (1968) of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, Grammatic Closure Subtest suggests the ability to pro-nounce the final "s" be assessed by asking the child to pronounce the following words: "ball, balls, cat, cats, mess and messes". If the words are repeated correctly it is to be assumed that the child has a final "s", and

standard testing procedures are followed. This approach
does not take into account the grammatical rules of
Ebonics whereby many Southerners, both adults and
children simply do not articulate a final "s" even though
capable of doing so. These examples reflect the
"Ignorance of standard English rules on the part of
speakers of non standard English" and "Ignorance of
nonstandard English rules on the part of teachers and
text writers" (Labov, 1972). And, let it be added,
ignorance of non standard English on the part of test
makers. Torrey (1970) observes that the main impact of
Afro-American dialect on education has not been its
structural differences from standard English, nor its
relative intrinsic usefulness as a medium of thought but
its function as a low status stigma and its association
with a rejected culture. The attitudes of teachers toward
this dialect and of dialect speakers toward the teachers
language have affected the social relationships of children
with the schools in such a way as to make education of
many children impossible.

In discussing the Ann Arbor, Michigan School Board of
Education case, we find that in June, 1979, the Ann Arbor,
Michigan School Board appeared in court as the defendent in
a language bias suit that the local paper described as
follows:

The suit alleges that the children, all of whom
attend Martin Luther King Elementary School,
have been raised in an environment that is
distinct in language from the other children
at King School who do not live in the racially
isolated housing project. It charges that this
situation causes the Green Road children to speak
in distinct language patterns vastly different
from the standard English used by other students
and staff and creates a language barrier between
them and the Green Road children. These language
barriers, the suit alleges, keep the children from
receiving an educational opportunity equal to
other children at the school. (Ann Arbor News,
March 14, 1979 in English Journal, Sept. 1980)

The Honorable Charles W. Joiner (1979) gave the

following opinion and order:

. . . submit to this court within (30) days a
proposed plan defining the exact steps to be
taken (1) to help the teachers of the plaintiff
children at King School to identify children
speaking 'black English' and the language spoken
as a home or community language, and (2) to use
that knowledge in teaching such students how to
read standard English. The plan must embrace
within its terms the elementary school teachers
of the plaintiff children at Martin Luther King
Junior Elementary School.

There were different reactions to this court case and

to the decision made by Judge Joiner. Monteith (1980)

speaks of the case and suggests that the Ann Arbor case

emphasized problems that may occur when a teacher does not

understand a student's language system and does not take

those differences into account when teaching reading. The

student may somehow be made to feel inferior and then be

turned off from learning in school.

Yellin (1980) divides the case into three conclusions. First Ann Arbor reopened an old controversy—namely, the "deficit" versus "different" theory of language. The "deficit" theory states that children from low income homes often have inadequate oral language skills, which in turn affects their cognitive development and results in retarded academic achievement in language related school subjects such as reading and writing. The "different" theory, though granting that poor Black children often do speak a nonstandard form of English contents that this language form, though different, is in no way linguistically deficient. It therefore, cannot be used to explain the poor academic performance, especially in reading, of Black English speakers.

Wofford states: ". . . change in the positive sense can be anticipated only when the attitudes and motivations of the contributors change."

> Until then, he adds, the language a child brings to school will not be accepted thus ruling out a valued cultural tool for communication. Until then, the child's language will not be used at the beginning of the child's formal education. Until then, teachers will continue to alter the child's language leaving the child puzzled, confused, and ill-at-ease. Until then, teachers will not realize how crucial it is for children to develop their thinking and expression of feeling in their own dialect or language. Until then the curriculum will not change to include the child's dialect and Mainstream American English as an option thus availing choices. Until then, attempts through the educational processes will continue

to erradicate dialects in favor of Mainstream American English. Until then, educators, sociologists, psychologists, and others will not realize that Black children do need to learn mainstream American English but not for the reasons they have given--i.e. to communicate intelligibly. Instead they must come to realize that Black people use mainstream American English for the sole purposes of economic, social, and academic success outside the Black culture.

Finally, here are some recommendations on how to deal with the linguistically different child, in this case the Black English speaker.

Smitherman (1981) recommends inservice training as part of a more comprehensive education remediation plan that would have as its central theme the teaching of reading and other communication skills.

Shafer (1976) states. . . "awareness of interference points is not enough". Shafer feels that the teacher must use teaching strategies to help the child identify and discriminate between standard and nonstandard English. Shafer also suggests a well planned program to help the students awareness of standard and nonstandard English. Teachers should assess their own values, attitudes and language and compare them with those of their pupils. Teachers must become more sensitive to the various dialects their pupils use to communicate in and out of the class-room. Shafer suggests that the teacher should learn how to diagnose dialectal features that may cause learning problems for the child. "Ultimately," Shafer adds,

"it is the teacher's responsibility to prepare pupils with the standard variety of English which the child may use at will as an alternative linguistic system."

Wofford (1979) would like to see the incorporation of Ebonics as an integral part of future education programs for Black children because according to him:

> Until Ebonics is recognized and incorporated as
> a part of the total social system of which
> Black Americans are members, myths and false
> assumptions about language abilities of Black
> Americans will thrive, deficit theories
> metastize, mislabeling, misdiagnoses, and
> poor academic achievement among Black children
> will be manifested.

"Motivation is the key element in classroom reading instruction" (Jones, 1979 in Yellin, 1980). Some of the techniques that (Jones, 1979 in Yellin, 1980) recommends for a reading program geared to inner city Black English speaking children, included motivational techniques like modeling reading behavior first by reading aloud to children regularly, including some Black English expressions; incorporating the use of typewriters to allow children to compose their own books; relating reading to the lives and experiences of the children beyond the classroom. Baratz and Baratz (1970) in Wofford (1979) as many other authors feel that the cultural aspect has to be considered along with the linguistic aspect in the educational process of Black children. They speak of critical intervention, but not on the children, rather on the

procedures and materials used in the classroom.

> Intervention which works to eliminate archaic
> and inappropriate procedures for teaching Black
> children and which substitutes procedures and
> materials that are culturally relevant is
> critically needed. (Baratz and Baratz, 1970 in
> Wofford, 1979)

Yellin (1980) as research has demonstrated, sees a relationship between poverty and poor academic achievement. Yellin states:

> Classroom teachers and reading specialists cannot
> erradicate poverty from the lives of their students.
> However, teachers can establish closer working
> relationships with parents and provide the needed
> motivational incentives to offset some of the
> debilitating effects of poverty. Teachers know
> that learning to read and write is still the key
> to success in school and school achievement plus
> the indicators of achievement (degrees) do pro-
> vide an exit from the cycle of poverty. This
> is the real contribution that educators can make
> immediately; on the other hand, the controversy
> over Ebonics highlighted by the court case in
> Ann Arbor, Michigan, remains with us, still
> awaiting resolution.

Yellin's comments are not limited to the classroom, but it also includes other social, economic and political concerns.

Harold Rosen is also concerned with social, economic and political factors. Education is not viewed by these authors as an isolated process. He has been a pioneer in his teaching and research at the London Institute of Education. He was interviewed by Anderson and Butler (1982) after the delivery of the speech, "Language

Diversity and the Linguistic Demands of the School".
Some of the questions to which Rosen responded relate to
the function of the school regarding the student's dialect,
the mastery of standard English and other factors that
inhibit children's success in school and society.

In relation to the question regarding the functions
of the school Rosen feels that prestige dialect does not
give access to power, although it may be a necessary
condition. Nevertheless, research shows that if one does
not have a "prestige" dialect he/she will be considered
disadvantaged. Negative attitudes are attached to the less
prestige dialect which impedes one's climbing the ladder
of success. Rosen further states that because of the lack
of power of the school within the community one cannot
get even the simpler features of their dialect changed.
His comments further prove that the power of the community
is the determining factor in the linguistic aspects of
its people. Again it is demonstrated that language is
controlled by the community.

In considering the question about the mastery of
standard English in order to succeed in society Rosen
states that one needs access to literacy. In addition he
believes that students should write in black dialect for
creative purposes, however, they must learn to speak, read,

and write in standard form. Finally when asked about
other factors that inhibit children's success in school
and in society Rosen responded that it is "straight
politics". As a socialist he feels that we live in an
unjust society and until we have a classless society
ordinary students should learn about themselves and society.
Since our educational system, according to Rosen, is con-
structed basically to reproduce the system of this
country (class society) one must fight to find and defend
the conditions that will enable one to accomplish his/her
goals in life.

An overall analysis of Rosen's views is most in-
dicative of a pessimistic attitude as it relates to
children's success in school and in society.

The review of the literature presented by the author
shows how the judgments and assumptions made by the
listeners, based on the linguistic characteristics of a
person may affect his future and his whole life. The
author has come up with what she has called "The Negative
Linguistic Pyramid of Success", to demonstrate the negative
findings of the reviewed literature. It is unfortunate
that the literature does not show more positive findings.
It is the author's hope that future studies bring to light
more positive and optimistic discoveries about the
linguistic differences phenomenon and that the author's

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"Negative Linguistic Pyramid of Success" could be started with non-standardization, instead of being started with standardization as the basis for success. Please see "Pyramid" on next page.

One can observe that standardization is the base of the pyramid which, of course, leads to the second stage of linguistic effectiveness. The third stage is (high social status) attained because of the foundation and the performance in the second stage. The former stages prepare the way for the teachers high expectations. The teacher's high expectations will in turn lead the students to perform at a high level. This performance will move the student to success in the academic world which will prepare him/her for employment and afford social mobility. The foregoing stages are necessary points in our society to reach the top of the pyramid which is successful citizenry.

"THE NEGATIVE LINGUISTIC PYRAMID OF SUCCESS"

Successful Citizen

Employability and Social
Mobility

Success in the Academic World

Students' High Performance

Teachers' High Expectations

Upper Social Status

Linguistic Effectiveness

Standardization
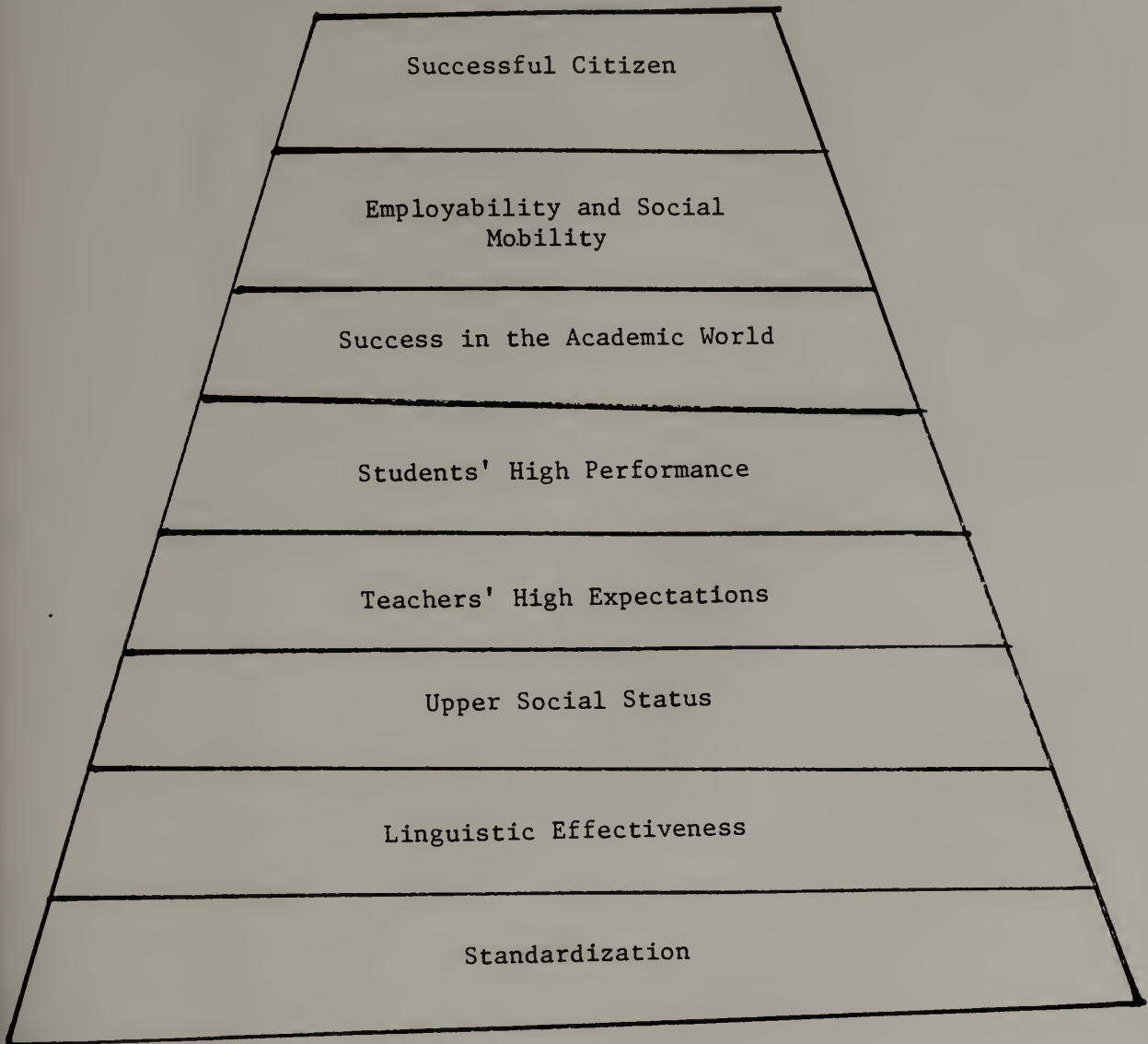
C H A P T E R   III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methodology employed in the
study. It discusses the site of the study, the target
population, the instruments used for data collection, a
rationale of the technique used, the steps followed for
developing the instruments, the processes followed for the
instruments field testing, the field procedures followed
for data collection, the procedures followed for data
processing, and data analysis procedures.

Site of the Study

The study was conducted in Springfield, Massachusetts;
where the School System's research Department expressed
interest in this type of research. They expressed a will-
ingness to help in any way they could. (See Appendix A
Page 181, for copy of the letter of support.)

Target Population of the Study

The total school population in the city of Springfield
is twenty three thousand one hundred twenty five (23,125).
Ten thousand nine hundred seventy three (10,973) or 47.45
percent is white; six thousand eight hundred ninety (6,890)

or 47.45 percent is non white; and five thousand two
hundred sixty two (5,262) or 22.76 percent is hispanic.
Tables 3.1 to 3.3 illustrate demographics relevant to this
study.

The data collection instruments of the study were
sent to all 58 bilingual teachers of the city of Springfield.

Instrumentation

The technique used in the research project was a
semantic differential scale. The semantic differential is
a technique for observing and measuring the psychological
aspect of meaning. It consists essentially of a number of
rating scales that are bipolar with each extreme defined
by an adjective. The respondent is given a set of such
scales with the task to rate each of a number of objects or
concepts on every scale in turn. The person must make a
judgment in terms of the adjectives provided in the scales.
Each judgment consists of deciding whether a concept is
best described by the adjective toward the right or the
left of the scale.

The semantic differential technique has two kinds of
uses:

1. As an instrument to measure the connotative
    meaning of concepts.

Table 3.1

SPRINGFIELD PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Neighborhood Racial Composition From 1980 Census

Neighborhood	White	%	Number Black	%	Hispanic	%	Total
Brightwood	1193	(27)	672	(15)	2595	(58)	4406
North End	1982	(35)	188	(3)	3504	(62)	5674
Downtown	1024	(83)	163	(13)	53	(4)	1240
South End	4187	(72)	566	(10)	1026	(18)	5779
Atwater Park	3021	(82)	92	(2)	572	(16)	3685
Liberty Heights	13014	(87)	432	(3)	1524	(10)	14970
Pearl	1731	(71)	393	(16)	318	(13)	2442
Maple High	4207	(59)	1842	(26)	1114	(15)	7163
McKnight	1381	(26)	3484	(65)	455	(9)	5320
Old Hill	731	(15)	3644	(72)	677	(13)	5052
Forest Park	24049	(97)	267	(1)	471	(2)	24787
East Springfield	7407	(98)	101	(1)	84	(1)	7592
Bay	550	(13)	3525	(81)	260	(6)	4335
Pine Point	7199	(75)	2082	(22)	268	(3)	9549
Upper Hill	3150	(40)	4530	(58)	170	(2)	7850

Table 3.1 Continued

Neighborhood	White	%	Number Black	%	Hispanic	%	Total
East Forest Park	10896	(97)	153	(2)	55	(3)	11077
Indian Orchard	6894	(91)	417	(6)	253	(3)	7564
Boston Road	2609	(91)	211	(7)	60	(2)	2880
Sixteen Acres	20675	(88)	2458	(10)	315	(2)	23448
TOTAL	115,873	(75)	25,220	(16)	13,774	(9)	154,867
Resident/Student Ratio	9.2		3.5		2.8		

Source: Springfield Public Schools Research Department.

Table 3.2

SPRINGFIELD PUBLIC SCHOOLS

DISTRIBUTION OF WHITE, NON WHITE AND SPANISH SURNAMED PUPILS
KINDERGARTEN THROUGH GRADE 12, OCTOBER 1, 1982

School	White	Non White	Spanish Surnamed American	TOTAL	% Non-White	% Spanish Surnamed	% White
Classical	1174	443	54	1671	26.51	3.23	70.26
H.S. Commerce	422	543	303	1268	42.82	23.90	33.28
Putnam Voc.	880	389	246	1515	25.68	16.24	58.08
Technical	212	448	272	932	48.07	29.18	22.75
JESI	8	9	8	25	36.00	32.00	32.00
ALT. JR.	16	7	0	23	30.43	0.00	69.57
Chestnut St. Jr.	83	104	712	899	11.57	79.20	9.23
Duggan Jr.	348	388	77	813	47.72	9.47	42.81
Forest Park Jr.	537	239	115	891	26.82	12.91	60.27
Kennedy Jr.	340	252	115	707	35.64	16.27	48.09
Kiley Jr.	802	341	18	1161	29.37	1.55	69.08
Van Sickle Jr.	390	297	176	863	34.42	20.39	45.19
Armory	276	126	149	551	22.87	27.04	50.09
Balliet	174	110	6	290	37.93	2.07	60.00
Beal	173	44	7	224	19.64	3.13	77.23
Bowles	163	85	138	386	22.02	35.75	42.23
Brightwood	33	55	288	376	14.63	76.59	8.78
Brookings	180	184	201	565	32.57	35.57	31.86
Brunton	247	164	6	417	39.33	1.44	59.23
DeBerry	83	84	120	287	29.27	41.81	28.92
DeBerry (K)	4	33	27	64	51.56	42.19	6.25
Dorman	126	117	40	283	41.34	14.14	44.52
Ells	99	83	19	201	41.29	9.45	49.26
Ells (K)	7	51	7	65	78.46	10.77	10.77
Freedman	192	107	22	321	33.33	6.86	59.81
Glenwood	85	71	159	315	22.54	50.48	26.98
Glickman	178	178	15	371	47.98	4.04	47.98

Table 3.2 continued

School	White	Non White	Spanish Surnamed American	TOTAL	% Non-White	% Spanish Surnamed	% White
Harris	213	64	17	294	21.77	5.78	72.45
Homer	131	109	17	257	42.41	6.62	50.97
Homer (K)	4	94	2	100	94.00	2.00	4.00
Howard	92	103	240	435	23.68	55.17	21.15
Indian Orchard	256	114	44	414	27.54	10.63	61.83
Kensington	233	126	47	406	31.03	11.58	57.39
Liberty	185	80	31	296	27.03	.10.47	62.50
Lincoln	44	14	437	495	2.83	88.28	8.89
Lynch	166	85	15	266	31.95	5.64	62.41
Memorial	199	33	6	238	13.87	2.52	83.61
New North	368	208	485	1061	19.60	45.71	34.69
Pottenger	233	83	237	553	15.01	42.86	42.13
Sixteen Acres	298	111	8	417	26.62	1.92	71.46
Sumner Avenue	240	107	84	431	24.83	19.49	55.68
Talmadge	178	115	13	306	37.58	4.25	58.17
Warner	221	141	24	386	36.53	6.22	57.25
Washington	353	132	34	519	25.43	6.55	68.02
White	212	88	81	381	23.10	21.26	55.64
SPECIAL SERVICE CENTERS							
PAGE	3	9	6	18	50.00	33.33	16.67
PAC	37	39	26	102	38.42	25.49	36.27
SHRINERS HOSPITAL	14	2	12	28	7.14	42.86	50.00
PRESCHOOLS	61	81	96	238	34.03	40.34	25.63
SUMMARY							
SENIOR HIGH	2696	1832	883	5411	35.82	20.91	43.27
JUNIOR HIGH	2516	1628	1213	5357	30.85	19.97	49.18
ELEMENTARY	5646	3299	3026	11917	32.11	21.46	46.43
SPECIAL SERVICE CENTERS	115	131	140	386	33.94	36.27	29.79
TOTALS	10973	6890	5262	23125	29.79	22.76	47.45

Source: Springfield Public Schools Research Department.

Table 3.3

SPRINGFIELD PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Research Department Report
Percents of Non-White Pupils in Grades K-12

School	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Classical	15.46	16.16	15.91	15.74	16.78	21.13	26.51
Commerce	38.57	37.44	41.32	4.159	42.19	40.45	42.82
Putnam	18.84	24.20	21.67	23.81	25.37	25.65	25.68
Technical	38.28	37.01	43.27	42.33	47.33	46.31	48.07
Chestnut Jr.	21.71	22.54	17.58	13.23	9.93	10.64	11.57
Duggan Jr.	32.10	35.88	36.65	36.96	40.59	45.01	47.72
Forest Park Jr.	22.17	20.63	25.91	25.19	27.43	24.01	26.82
Kennedy Jr.	25.67	32.09	36.20	39.09	41.93	37.47	35.64
Kiley Jr.	24.69	27.40	30.59	30.63	31.12	31.22	29.37
Van Sickle Jr.	35.03	36.45	35.87	35.84	37.62	39.53	34.42
Armory	22.10	26.74	24.69	26.27	22.18	20.82	22.87
Balliet	27.80	32.38	37.40	38.75	39.56	38.68	37.93
Beal	30.63	32.92	28.15	29.01	23.02	23.11	19.64
Bowles	32.69	31.25	30.47	26.07	26.17	25.00	22.02
Brightwood	16.54	16.06	14.57	15.56	13.37	13.08	14.63
Brookings	36.07	34.29	31.10	28.03	28.43	28.30	32.57
Brunton	30.42	30.72	33.94	36.52	40.15	40.14	39.33
DeBerry	35.10	35.64	26.17	23.45	18.96	34.09	33.33
Dorman	42.19	45.02	46.63	43.51	42.59	42.04	41.34
Ells	47.25	45.61	41.24	45.98	25.97	46.98	50.38
Freedman	30.17	33.48	33.75	31.35	31.81	29.88	33.33
Glenwood	16.68	14.29	18.44	18.27	17.65	13.80	22.54
Glickman	45.84	45.85	44.89	43.75	42.86	43.13	47.98
Harris	20.05	17.88	15.80	16.32	20.17	18.89	21.77
Homer	50.60	48.95	46.29	57.22	53.78	57.67	56.86
Howard	24.84	23.42	27.73	27.61	26.65	25.58	23.68
Indian Orchard	26.29	30.09	32.61	32.23	33.63	30.79	24.54
Kensington	18.74	16.25	19.29	23.08	26.30	30.37	31.03
Liberty	21.65	24.87	25.07	25.15	28.15	28.76	27.03
Lincoln	0.48	1.04	2.78	2.80	4.70	3.49	2.83

Table 3.3 Continued

School	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Lynch	31.65	31.60	32.75	36.65	37.73	35.76	31.95
Memorial	17.74	16.34	19.19	15.56	15.98	15.00	13.87
New North	16.58	14.35	19.19	19.60	22.46	21.89	19.60
Pottenger	17.61	17.68	14.26	15.52	15.43	13.60	15.01
Sixteen Acres	19.21	19.65	22.93	25.34	25.20	29.41	26.62
Sumner Avenue	21.93	23.45	20.10	22.43	20.30	23.60	24.83
Talmadge	32.18	32.31	26.94	30.64	35.92	38.16	37.58
Warner	35.01	42.47	43.53	40.21	40.10	37.97	36.53
Washington	21.29	20.90	22.20	21.03	20.24	23.32	25.43
White	29.74	27.78	28.54	29.80	25.85	20.79	23.10
Senior	27.64	28.64	29.88	29.62	31.28	31.62	35.82
Junior	27.04	29.13	30.24	39.52	30.50	30.80	30.85
Elementary	26.87	26.85	27.26	27.07	27.09	23.39	32.11
Special Centers	37.30	40.53	34.35	33.53	33.10	39.06	33.94
Total Enrollment	28292	28032	26775	25519	24706	23581	23125
White	16659	15826	14590	13601	12545	11718	10973
Percentage	58.88	56.46	54.49	53.30	50.78	49.69	47.45
Black	7703	7893	7705	7258	7175	6927	6890
Percentage	27.23	28.16	28.78	28.44	29.04	29.38	29.79
Spanish	3930	4313	4480	4660	4986	4936	5262
Percentage	13.89	15.39	16.73	18.26	20.18	20.93	22.76

Source: Springfield Public Schools Research Department

2.   For structuring some attitude domains; used in
     this way it is an instrument of exploration rather
     than measurement. The technique has been widely
     used in educational settings for such diverse
     purposes as:

     a.   Program evaluations

     b.   Attitude measurement

     c.   Self-esteem development

     d.   Curriculum development

     e.   Clarification of concepts among educators

     f.   Cross-cultural scientific educational research

From the above "purposes", items "b" and "f" are included
in the type of research that the writer proposes to do.
The writer will be assessing the attitudes of bilingual
teachers regarding the linguistic phenomenon of "Spanglish".

Rationale of Technique

If two concepts are close together in semantic space,
they are alike in meaning for the individual or the group
making the judgments. If they are far apart in semantic
space they differ in meaning. What is needed is a
measure of the distance between the two concepts.

Some of the studies that have used the semantic
differential technique are the following: in South
America, Wolck (1972) used the semantic differential scale

to determine local attitudes toward Spanish and Quechua in bilingual Peru. The study seemed to indicate a strong native loyalty to Quechua, despite the stigma of social status that the language represented.

Williams (1976), used the same technique in the Chicago Research Project dealing with attitudes of teachers toward students' language. The conclusion of this study was that "although both groups of teachers were relatively similar in terms of the results of status-judgments; it has been pointed out that White teachers' status-judgments seemed to reflect a more direct association between race and status; both in terms of judged race and the child's actual race". (Williams, 1976). Williams considers this a reflection of a stereotype of pupil language which more strongly equates standardness with linguistic effectiveness and social status from the part of white teachers more than from the part of the Black teachers.

Williams (1976) also used the technique in the Speech Characteristics and Employability Study; which focussed upon relationships between employers attitudes toward speech samples and the employers' hiring decisions with regard to the speakers. Using the semantic differential technique, the study attempted to ascertain dimensions of employers' judgments of speech of a prospective employee and to relate these judgments to hiring decisions. Findings

indicated that employers seem to make judgments about the intelligence and competence of a person to do a job, his self assurance, his agreeability, and his ethnicity on the basis of their judgment of the prospective employees' speech.

Taylor (1973) used the semantic differential technique for a language attitude study, in which respondents were asked to record on a nine point scale the strength of their agreement or disagreement with such statements as 'Black English is cool'. Of the 136 correlations made, only 13 proved significant at the 0.05 level of probability. Significant correlations showed, for example, that teachers in the South Atlantic rural area had significantly more negative than positive attitudes toward statements about the structure and inherent usefulness of Non-Standard English dialects.

Seligman, Tucker and Lambert (1972) studied the manner in which teachers in Montreal form attitudes concerning children. The semantic differential technique was used in the study.

Steps for the Development of the Instruments

After doing a review of the literature that relate to attitudes of teachers toward "Spanglish", it was

decided that the semantic differential technique be used in the form of a questionnaire.

Keeping in mind the rationale for the researcher's doctoral work and the characteristics of a good concept (as described by the semantic differential technique), a list was developed and presented to a group of graduate students. Some changes were made. Some concepts were eliminated and others added. Concepts that were ambiguous were made clearer. Additional changes were made after several reviews until it was felt that the concepts had the required characteristics: relevance to the research problems, potential for different reactions from people with different attitudes, and familiarity to the respondents. Out of thirty eight items, only twenty (20) were selected as having the above mentioned characteristics. These items would be the only ones included in the final version of the questionnaire to be used.

After the questionnaire was completed, a cover letter with instructions was prepared and translated into English. It was then presented to several authorities in the field for suggestions. Some corrections were then made.

The cover letter and instructions were developed and later revised. Special attention was given to the section on instructions to guide the respondents and to make sure that they were clear about their specific tasks.

Field Testing

The field testing of the questionnaire was done with a group of students from the University of Massachusetts School of Education and bilingual teachers from the Holyoke Public School. The student group is completely bilingual. Their fields of study include: Language Arts, Testing, Research, School Supervision and Administration. They gladly agreed to participate in the field testing.

A total of eight (8) people participated in the field testing. It took the students an average of twenty-two (22) minutes to answer the questionnaire. It was not possible to time the bilingual teachers in Holyoke since they answered the questionnaire at their convenience.

The following suggestions were advanced by the respondents:

1. Questions should begin and end on the same page

2. Place numbers (scale) on each concept

3. Use a maximum of twelve (12) adjectives and a minimum of nine (9) for each concept.

4. Ask respondents to list five (5) or six (6) words considered by them to be "Spanglish". This would be done in order to develop a list of the most common "Spanglish" words.

5. In the following concept: "El uso de "Spanglish" par niños en el salón de clases se considera", it was expressed by the respondents that the last portion ("se considera", "it is considered") was not clear. The following changes were made: "El uso de "Spanglish" por los niños en el salón de clases es considerado por usted" ("The use of "Spanglish" by the children in the classroom is considered by you").

Questionnaires

Official English version of the questionnaire used in the study follow. (See Appendix B for Spanish version.)

Instructions:

This questionnaire consists of 20 concepts. Read each concept and the adjectives opposite each one. Select the adjective on the right or the left that best describes the concept and place an (X) on the scale (1-9).

You'll note that each concept has at least 7 adjectives that describe it.

Complete the questionnaire using the definition of "Spanglish" that follows:

"Spanglish" is the alteration of the structure of Spanish or English caused by constant contact with both languages. It is the "fusion of new grammatical structuring of storehouse of linguistic contributions of one language as much as the other." This fusion of English and Spanish has caused the creation of new words and structures which we refer to as "Spanglish".

QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Demographic Information

   1. Sex   ___F   ___M

   2. Native language ___English ___Spanish ___Other

   3. Second language ___English ___Spanish ___Other

   4. Place of birth _____

   5. Place where childhood was spent _____

   6. Language spoken at home during childhood _____

   7. Country in which childhood was spent _____

   8. Language in which you learned to read _____English
      _____Spanish _____Other

   9. College(s) attended and location _____

  10. Countries you have visited _____

  11. Country in which a second language was learned

      _____

  12. Language in which you feel most comfortable
      ____English _____Spanish ____Other

  13. Type of certification ___Bilingual ___Regular
      _____Other

  14. Grade level you teach ___K-6 ___7-9 ____10-12

1. Spanish spoken when "Spanglish" is used is:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-pedagogical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pedagogical
cultured	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	uncultured
correct	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incorrect
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
beneficial	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	damaging
bad	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	good
poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	rich
advanced	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	regressive
ugly	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pretty
elevated	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	low

2. The mixture of English and Spanish in a conversation at

    school is:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
cultured	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	uncultured
normal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	abnormal
stupid	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	wise
correct	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incorrect
ugly	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pretty
beneficial	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	damaging
low	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	high
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bad
pedagogical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	anti-pedagogical
poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	rich
advanced	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	regressive

3. To allow the use of "Spanglish" in the classroom is:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
flexible	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	inflexible
cultured	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	uncultured
pedagogical	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	anti-pedagogical
poor	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	rich
beneficial	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	damaging
low	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	high
good	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bad
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
correct	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incorrect
pretty	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	ugly
abnormal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	normal
democratic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	undemocratic
wise	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	stupid

4. The use of "Spanglish" by the children at home is:

```
                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9
abnormal            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   normal
damaging            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   beneficial
good                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   bad
inferior            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   superior
correct             -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   incorrect
ugly                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   pretty
advanced            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   regressive
cultured            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   uncultured
stupid              -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   wise
high                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   low
```

5. A teacher who uses "Spanglish" in the classroom should

feel:

```
                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9
cultured            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   uncultured
good                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   bad
comfortable         -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   uncomfortable
regressive          -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   advanced
incorrect           -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   correct
ugly                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   pretty
ashamed             -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   proud
flexible            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   inflexible
low                 -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   high
democratic          -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   undemocratic
```

6. The idea of letting teachers know that the phenomenon of

"Spanglish" exists is:

```
                    1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9
damaging            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   beneficial
superior            -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   inferior
stupid              -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   wise
correct             -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   incorrect
ugly                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   pretty
pedagogical         -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   anti-pedagogical
uncultured          -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   cultured
broad               -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   narrow
low                 -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   high
rich                -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   -   poor
```

7. A school system that allows the use of "Spanglish" is:

```
              1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9
advanced      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   regressive
inferior      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   superior
good          -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   bad
low           -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   high
democratic    -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   undemocratic
incorrect     -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   correct
flexible      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   inflexible
bitter        -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   sweet
cultured      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   uncultured
stupid        -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   wise
```

8. The use of "Spanglish" at the supermarket, at church, at

the doctor's office, at the drugstore and at the bank is:

```
              1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9
superior      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   inferior
ugly          -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   pretty
high          -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   low
democratic    -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   undemocratic
incorrect     -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   correct
flexible      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   inflexible
wise          -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   stupid
damaging      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   beneficial
uncultured    -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   cultured
```

9. A community where "Spanglish is spoken constantly is

politically:

```
              1  2  3  4  5  6  7  8  9
superior      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   inferior
low           -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   high
correct       -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   incorrect
democratic    -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   undemocratic
united        -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   separated
bad           -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   good
advanced      -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -  -   regressive
```

10. A community where "Spanglish" is spoken constantly is culturally:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
incorrect	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correct
advanced	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	regressive
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
incomplete	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	complete
poor	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	rich
high	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	low
united	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	separated
inflexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	flexible

11. The use of "Spanglish" by the children in the classroom is considered by you to be:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
undemocratic	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	democratic
low	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	high
good	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bad
abnormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
beneficial	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	damaging
stupid	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	wise
correct	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrect
uncultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	cultured
ugly	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pretty

12. The use of "Spanglish" by the students in their community is:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
normal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	abnormal
uncultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	cultured
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
ugly	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pretty
good	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bad
democratic	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	undemocratic
stupid	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	wise
low	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	high
correct	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrect
damaging	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	beneficial

13. The following question, "¿Maestra, cuando vamos a

lonchal?" is considered by you to be:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-pedagogical	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagogical
cultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	uncultured
incorrect	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correct
beneficial	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	damaging
good	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bad
incomplete	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	complete
advanced	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	regressive
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
normal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	abnormal
stupid	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	wise

14. The idea of teaching a course about the socio-linguistic

phenomenon of "Spanglish" for teachers is:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
bad	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	good
beneficial	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	damaging
anti-pedagogical	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagogical
pretty	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	ugly
incorrect	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correct
wise	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	stupid
low	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	high
abnormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
uncultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	cultured
righ	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	poor

15. A teacher who uses "Spanglish" outside the classroom

should consider herself to be:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
correct	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrect
advanced	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	regressive
comfortable	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	uncomfortable
uncultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	cultured
wise	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	stupid

16. A student who graduates from High School and uses
     "Spanglish" is considered by you to have a linguistic
     capacity:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
abnormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
broad	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	narrow
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
high	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	low
bad	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	good
complete	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incomplete
poor	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	rich
advanced	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	regressive

17. The mixture of English and Spanish in conversation is:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-pedagodical	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagogical
pretty	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	ugly
incorrect	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correct
beneficial	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	damaging
good	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bad
regressive	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	advanced
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
stupid	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	wise
high	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	low

18. A community where "Spanglish" is constantly used is
     linguistically:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
abnormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
cultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	uncultured
rich	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	poor
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
high	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	low
incorrect	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correct
united	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	separated
ugly	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pretty
narrow	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	broad

19. A school system that disapproves of the use of

"Spanglish" is considered to be:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
anti-pedagogical	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagogical
rich	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	poor
democratic	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	undemocratic
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
correct	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrect
bad	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	good
beneficial	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	damaging
narrow	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	broad

20. A bilingual teacher who uses "Spanglish" at home

should feel:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
normal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	abnormal
uncultured	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	cultured
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
bad	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	good
incorrect	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correct
stupid	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	wise
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
comfortable	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	uncomfortable
proud	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	ashamed

What is your position regarding "Spanglish" in the

educational process of the student?

There were 58 bilingual (English, Spanish) teachers in
the city of Springfield when the questionnaires were dis-
tributed. The researcher brought the questionnaires to the
Research Department of the Springfield School System.
Dr. John F. Howell, Director of the Research Department
willingly distributed the questionnaires along with a
memorandum to the teachers that explained the purpose of
the questionnaire (See Appendix A). Thirty seven teachers
completed their questionnaires and returned them to Dr.
Howell's office. This procedure assured the anonymity of
the respondents.

Data Processing and Data Analysis Procedures

There are a number of references for the scoring
protocol. Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement
by A. N. Opponheim, Basic Books, 1966, page 207, describes
the protocol most simply. The computer protocol was
obtained from Professor Mervin Lynch of Northeastern
University in 1975 and the Fortran program for the UNIVAC
computer was written by D.r John F. Howell, Director of
Research of the Springfield School Department. Dr. Howell
has used the computer scored results from Semantic
Differential testing since 1975 in the Chapter One
programs.

The Semantic Differential is an attitude scale consisting of a series of bipolar adjectives between which a respondent indicates a position. For example:

Good _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ Bad

The set of bipolar adjectives constitutes a scale representing the respondent's attitude toward the object of the scale described by the adjectives. The scoring of such a scale consists of comparing the indicated scale positions with some reference set of scale positions usually supplied by the respondent. The difference between the reference position and respondent's position is noted for each bipolar pair, squared, summed, and the square-root of the sum obtained. This final value is known as a D-Statistic (D for Difference). The closer the respondent's position for each pair is to the reference position the lower the D-Statistic (D-Stat).

The first step in the analysis process was transferring the information from the questionnaire response sheets to punched card for insertion into the computer. The reference set of responses for each of the twenty questions was entered as well.

The computer, using a program written expressly for scoring semantic differential questionnaire automatically scored each question for each respondent, producing Table 1. This was the basic data used in the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter presents the findings of the study and
a discussion of such findings. The chapter consists of
three major sections. Section one presents the demography
of the participants in the study on an item by item
fashion. Section two presents the teachers attitudes
toward Spanglish as determined by the semantic differential
scale used in the study. Section three presents a dis-
cussion of all the findings of the study and conclusions
arrived at by this author.

Demography of Participants

This part of the chapter presents a series of graphics
that give a picture of the type of population involved in
the study. The graphic is a method of presenting informa-
tion in a statistical format. Figure 4.1 is an example of
the type of graphic used. The axis on the left side of
the page is usually reserved for frequencies or percentages.
In this case, frequencies were used and percentages
annotated on the bar graph. The axis on the bottom of
the graphic is typically used for scores or categories.

To obtain a better understanding of the data it is necessary to look at a profile of the respondents. Figures 4.1 through 4.14 illustrate that the vast majority of the respondents were female, born in Puerto Rico. The native language of the majority was Spanish and their second language was English. An overwhelming number of the respondents home language was Spanish and the childhood years were spent in rural and urban areas in Puerto Rico. The majority of them first learned to read in Spanish. They attended colleges in Puerto Rico and the United States. In addition, the countries where the majority of them learned a second language were the United States and Puerto Rico. The most comfortable language for the majority of the participants was Spanish and most of them had bilingual and regular teaching certifications. The vast majority of the respondents taught at the elementary level.

Attitudes Toward Spanglish as Determined by the Semantic Differential Scale Used in the Study

For the present study the reference set was provided by the researcher and represented the extreme positive position relative to each of the twenty attitudinal concepts measured. The concepts employed a variety of bipolar

Figure 4.1

TYPE OF GRAPH USED
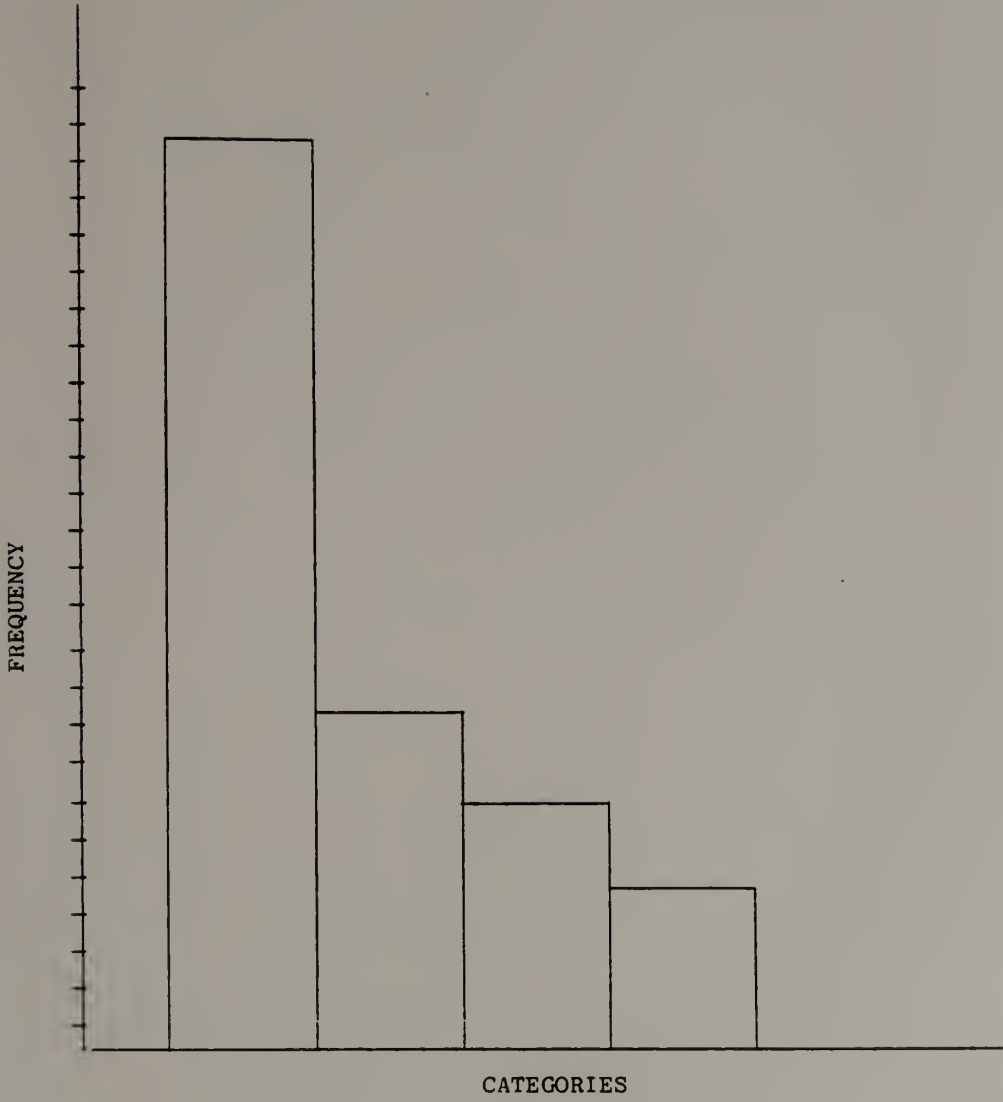
Figure 4.2

GENDER OF RESPONDENTS
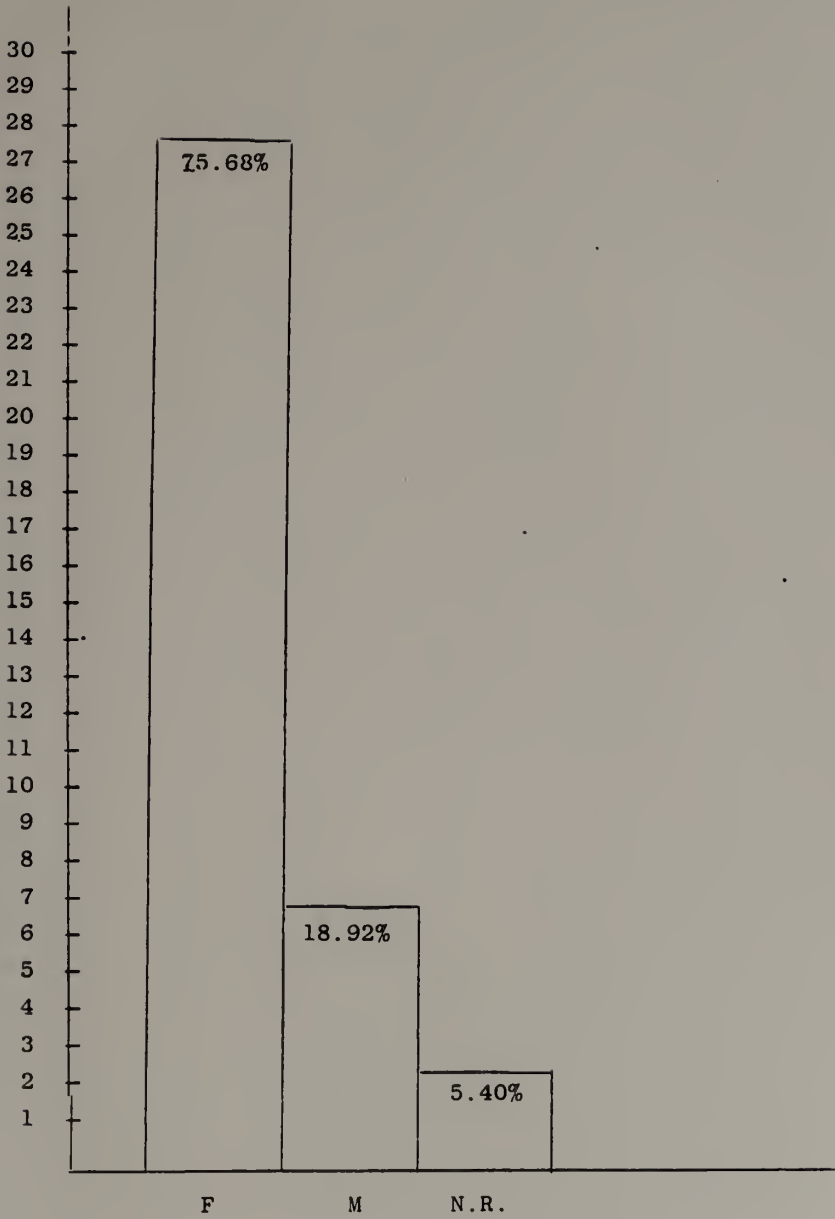
Figure 4.3

TEACHING-LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS
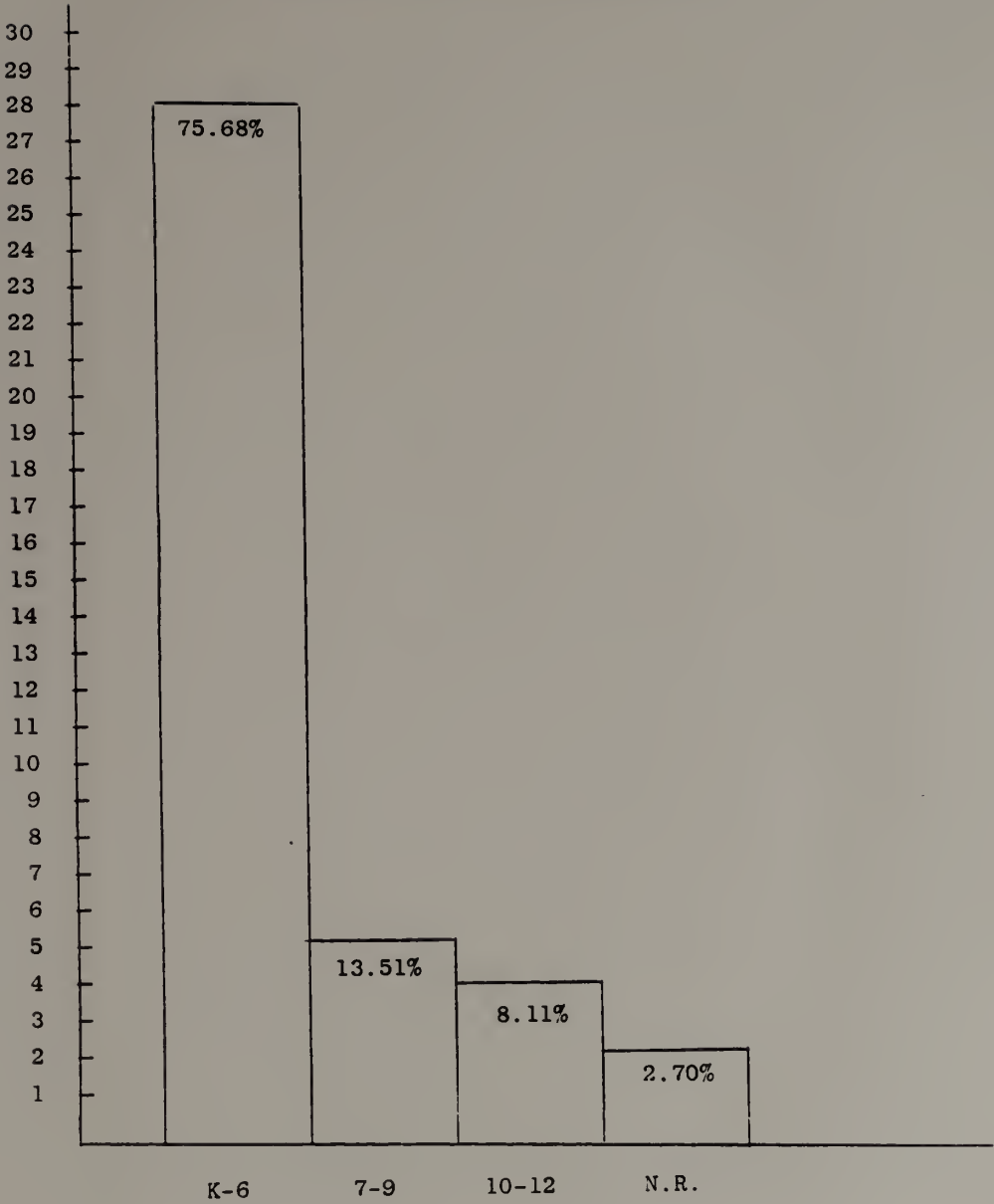
Figure 4.4

TYPE OF TEACHING CERTIFICATION OF RESPONDENTS

BIL. — 48.65%	BIL.+REG. — 37.84%
REG. — 8.11%	N.R. — 5.40%
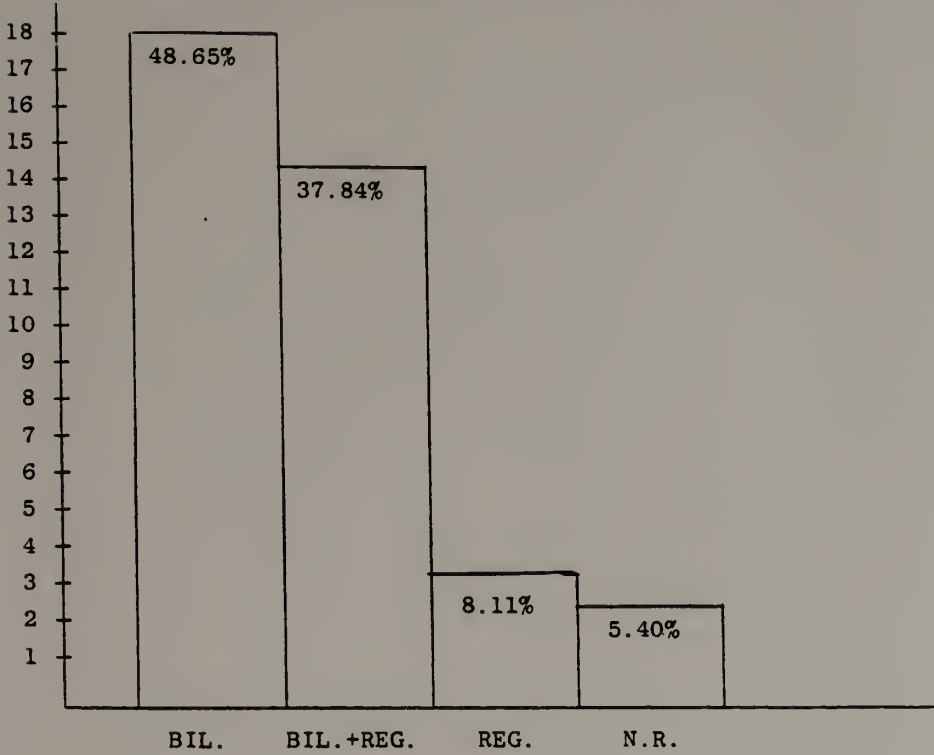
Figure 4.5

NATIVE LANGUAGE OF RESPONDENTS
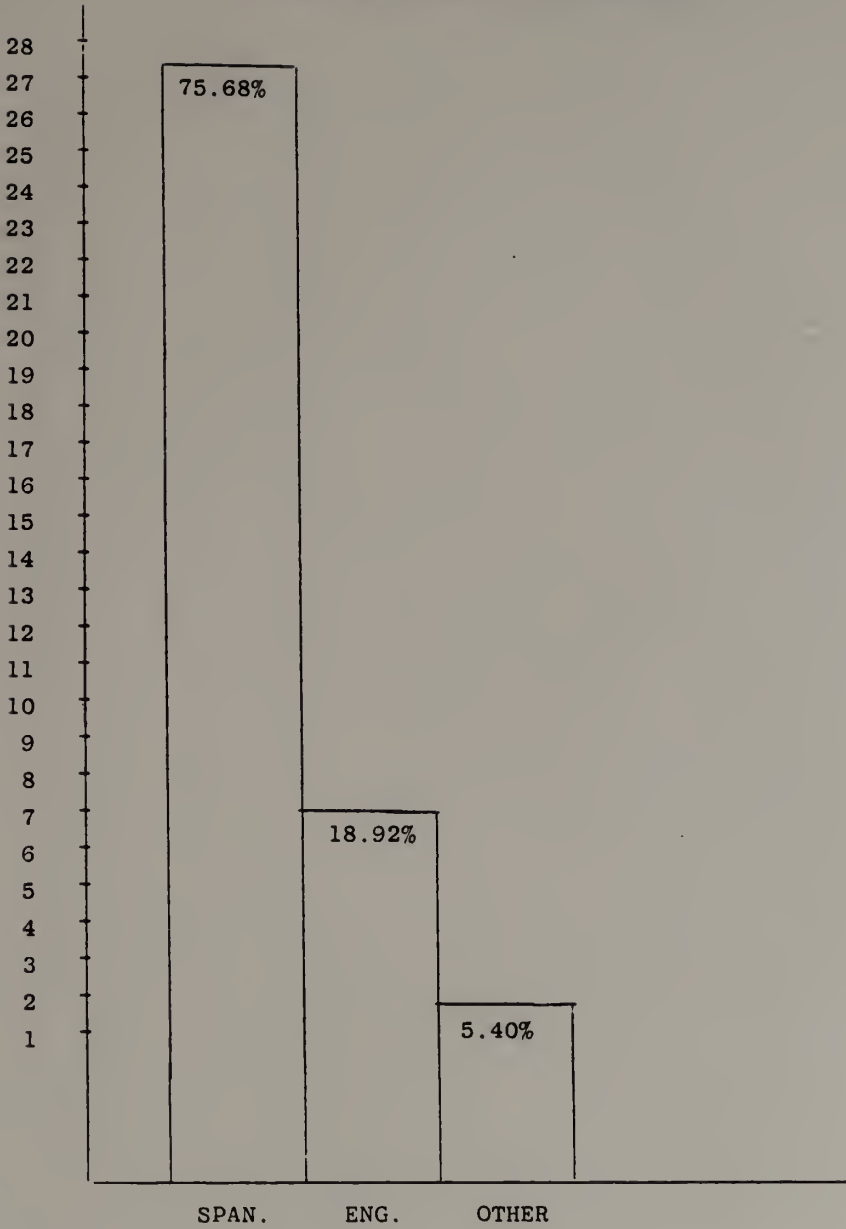
Figure 4.6

LANGUAGE SPOKEN AT HOME BY RESPONDENTS
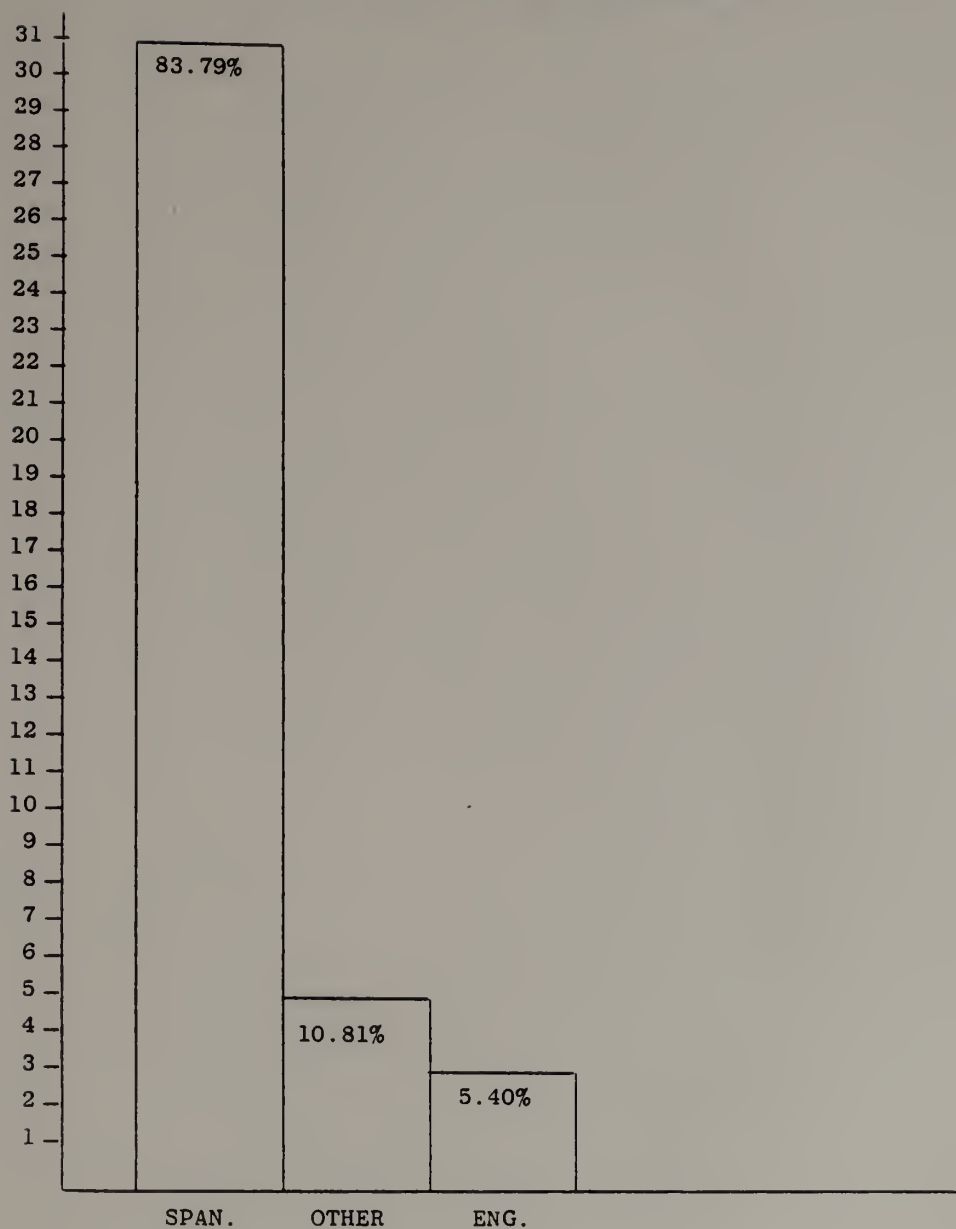
Figure 4.7

SECOND LANGUAGE OF RESPONDENTS
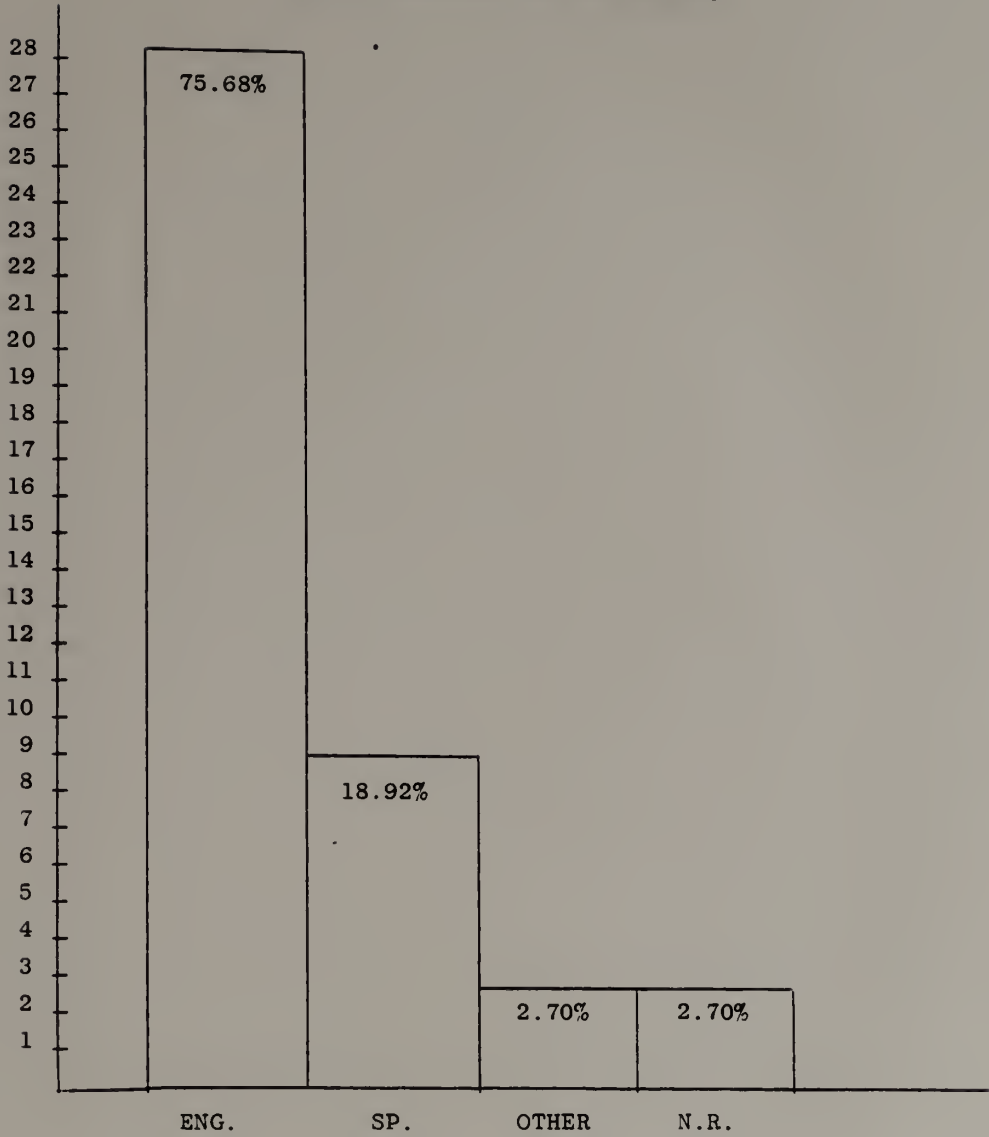
Figure 4.8

LANGUAGE MOST COMFORTABLE FOR RESPONDENTS
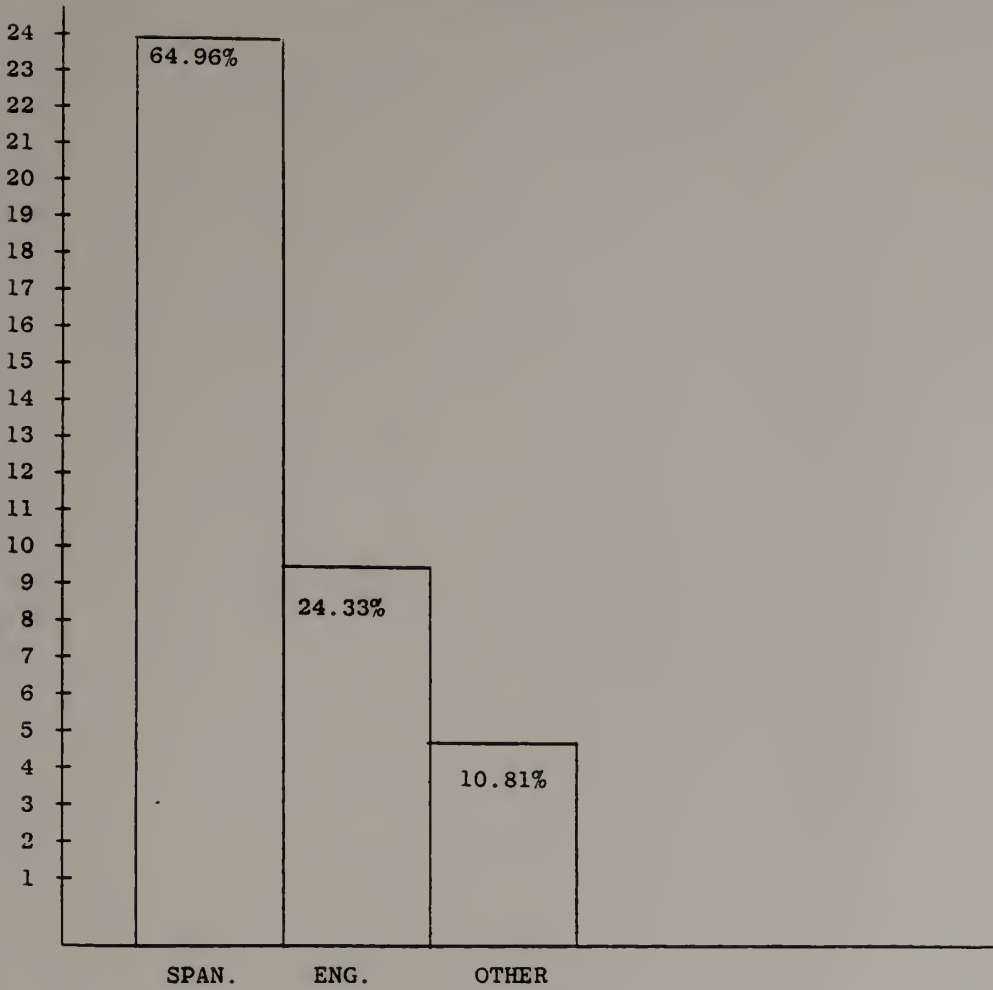
Figure 4.9

LANGUAGE IN WHICH RESPONDENTS LEARNED
HOW TO READ
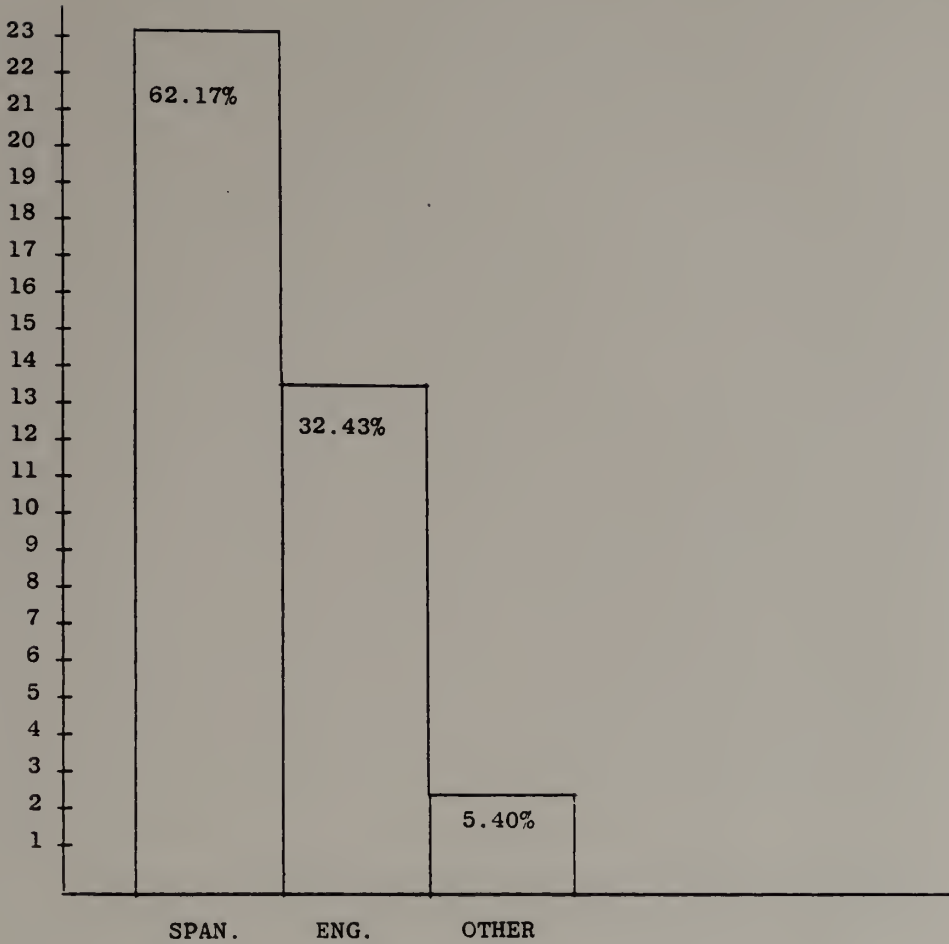
Figure 4.10

PLACE WHERE SECOND LANGUAGE WAS
LEARNED BY RESPONDENTS
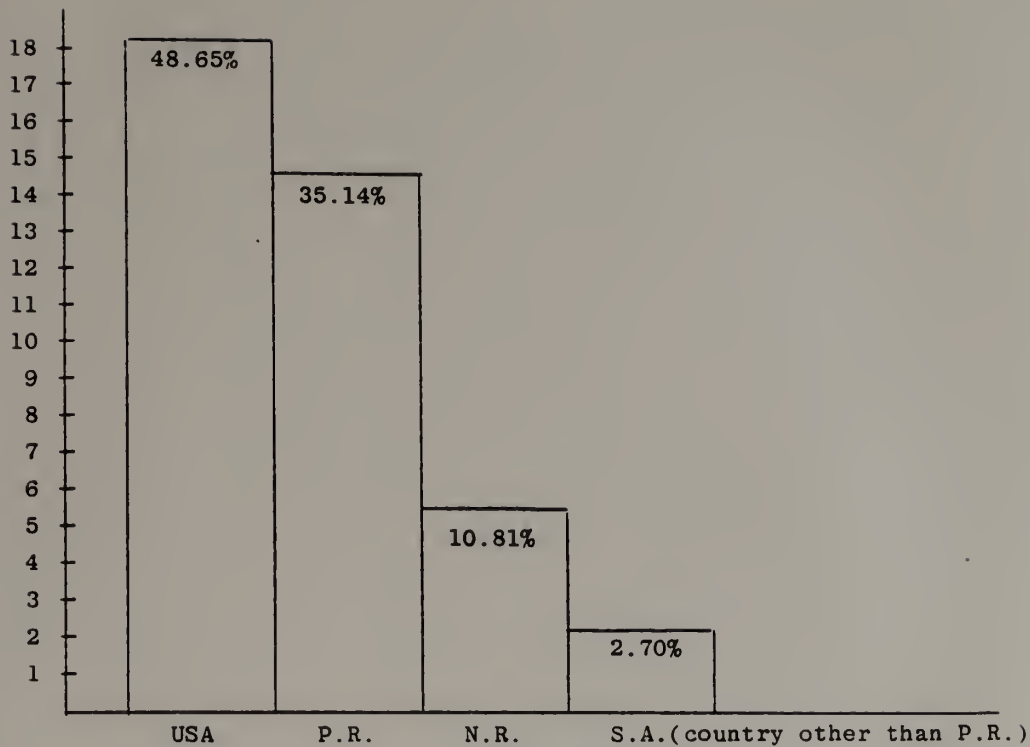
Figure 4.11

PLACE OF BIRTH OF RESPONDENTS

PR=Puerto Rico
USA=United States
N.R.=No Response
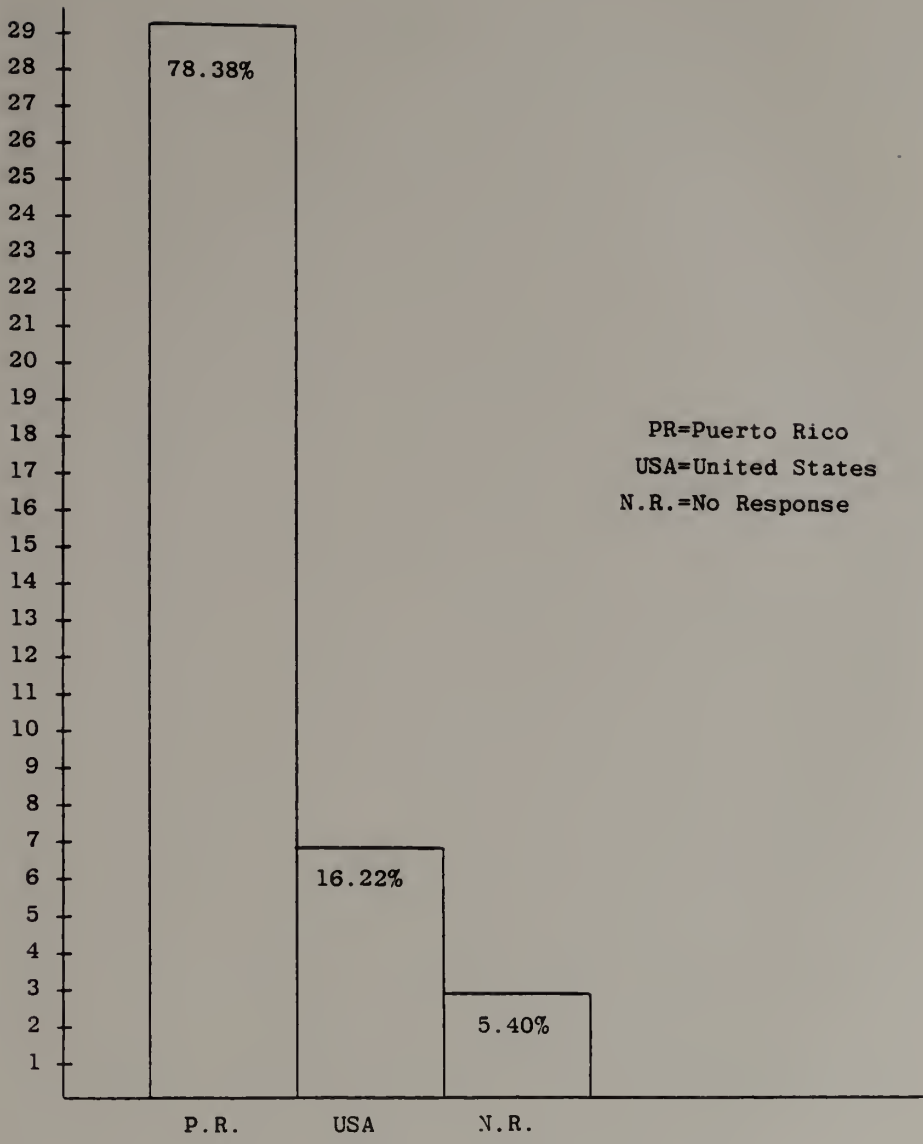
Figure 4.12

RESIDENTIAL ZONE WHERE RESPONDENTS
WERE BORN
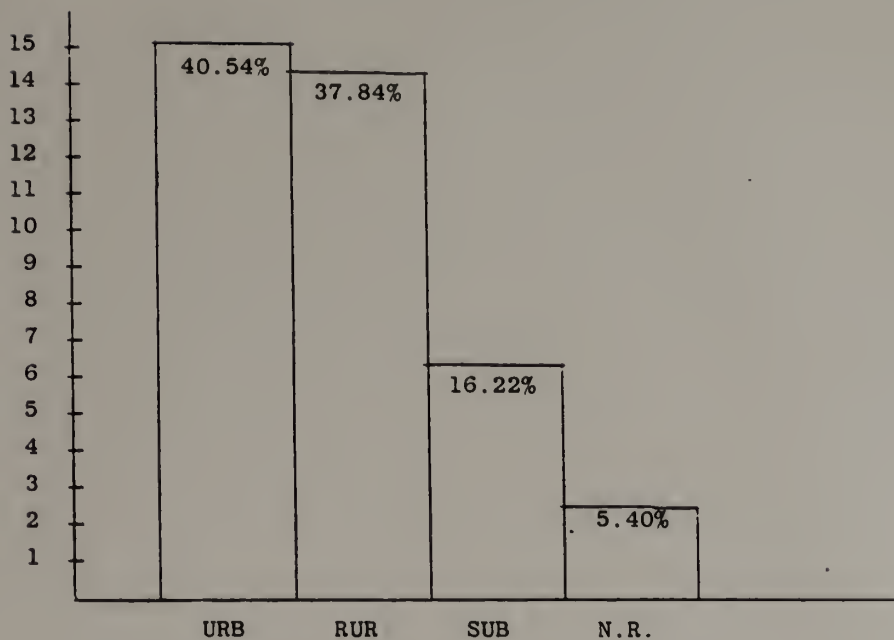
Figure 4.13

COUNTRY WHERE RESPONDENTS SPENT
THEIR CHILDHOOD

26	
25	70.27%
24	
23	
22	
21	
20	
19	
18	
17	
16	
15	
14	
13	
12	
11	
10	
9	
8	24.33%
7	
6	
5	
4	
3	
2	
1	5.40%

P.R.   EU.   N.R.
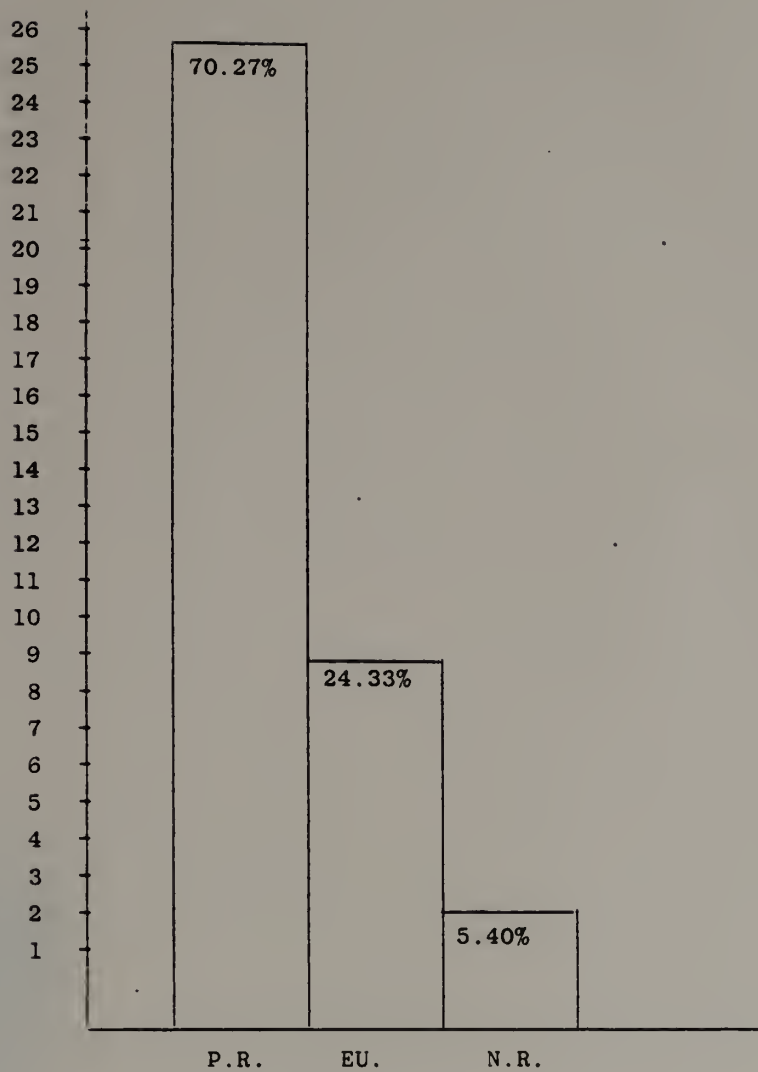
Figure 4.14

PLACE WHERE RESPONDENTS
ATTENDED COLLEGE
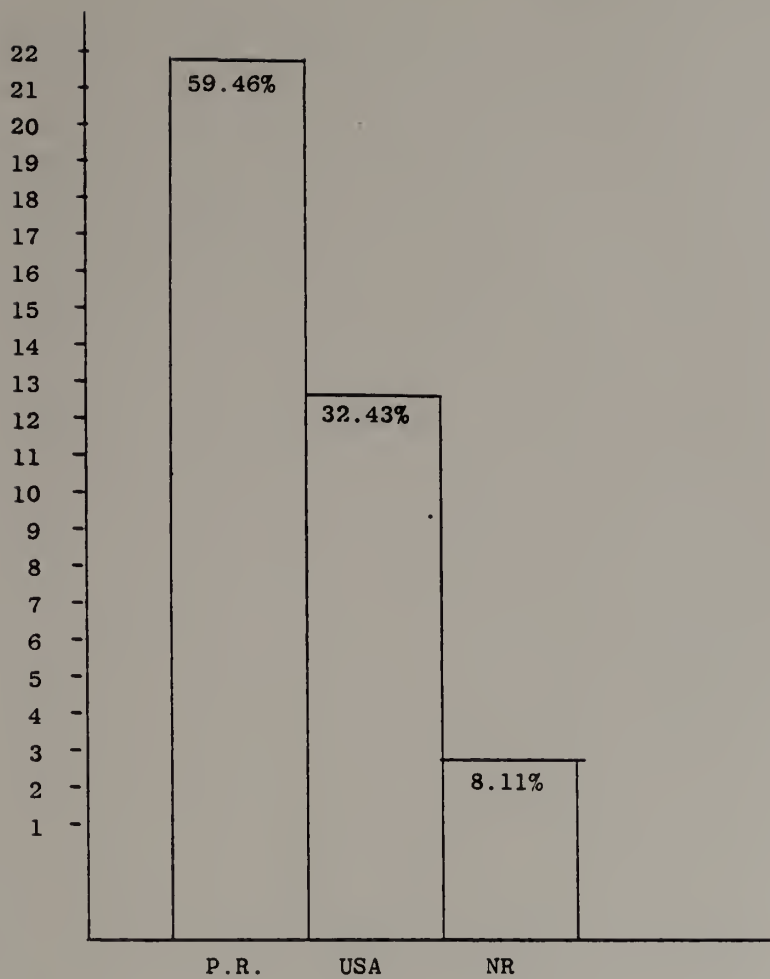
pairs with the average number of bipolar parts being eleven. Thirty seven respondents indicated scale positions for the twenty concepts. The 20 D-Stats or Difference Scores for the 37 respondents are shown on Table 4.1.

At the bottom of Table 4.1 the average scale value for each of the 20 scales (concepts) is displayed. The lower the D-Stat average the greater the agreement of the average respondent to the attitude measured. For convenience, the scales were ranked. As Table 3.1 demonstrates Scale #6 had the smallest average D Statistic and represented the attitude to which all of the respondents most closely agreed. Scale 3 had the largest D-Stat and was the attitude to which the respondents least agreed. Concept number 6 stated "Teachers should be aware of the phenomenon of Spanglish".

Concept (scale) number 3 stated "The use of Spanglish in the classroom should not be allowed".

In order to examine the larger concepts, a number of scales were collapsed to create six Factors:

Factor I consisted of Concepts 1 and 17

Factor II of Concepts 8-9-10-12-15-18

Factor III of Concepts 2-3-5-6-7-11-13-14-16-19

Factor IV of Concepts 4 and 20

Table 4.1

D STATISTICS FOR RESPONDENT'S CONCEPTS

CONCEPTS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	12.6	13.9	14.4	12.6	7.1	0.0	9.8	13.3	9.8	11.3	12.9	12.6	11.3	13.9	10.6	10.6	12.0	11.3	17.9	12.0
2	18.8	21.5	23.3	22.5	20.9	0.0	25.3	15.9	16.5	19.2	20.0	17.9	20.6	13.9	15.9	17.1	15.9	14.1	14.1	13.1
3	11.5	10.2	10.8	10.2	10.1	6.1	7.3	16.2	8.7	10.1	7.5	6.5	9.4	14.4	4.6	11.3	12.1	12.2	8.4	12.2
4	17.2	18.7	18.2	16.4	17.4	6.0	12.6	10.6	10.5	11.3	16.2	16.7	17.3	16.0	14.6	16.4	15.3	13.7	17.6	15.2
5	13.3	14.6	15.0	14.1	10.8	11.2	11.2	12.1	9.6	11.5	12.2	11.5	12.4	11.6	9.3	9.7	13.2	12.6	14.4	12.2
6	19.0	21.7	23.2	20.0	16.8	21.6	14.6	13.2	18.9	14.3	22.8	10.0	15.3	17.8	16.1	18.9	14.6	12.9	9.3	14.1
7	12.7	13.3	13.2	12.4	13.0	18.3	11.2	12.0	11.8	14.3	11.3	12.0	12.0	12.0	6.9	8.0	12.0	15.0	19.6	11.3
8	13.0	13.1	14.7	11.3	12.6	14.4	12.0	12.0	10.6	11.3	12.0	12.0	12.6	12.0	9.8	11.3	12.0	12.0	12.0	11.3
9	13.4	15.5	15.5	12.0	13.4	12.0	12.0	13.9	10.6	12.7	12.4	12.2	13.9	9.8	12.4	11.3	12.4	12.4	15.5	11.4
10	18.8	22.0	21.2	20.0	16.5	22.3	20.0	10.6	17.4	18.3	20.4	11.9	18.8	9.8	15.5	21.0	19.6	16.5	13.9	14.3
11	13.9	15.0	15.5	14.4	13.9	12.2	13.9	11.4	9.8	12.7	13.3	13.9	12.0	12.2	12.0	12.7	13.3	13.3	15.1	11.4
12	14.4	15.5	16.0	12.2	14.4	12.0	14.4	11.3	9.8	13.3	13.9	12.2	14.4	12.0	12.6	13.3	13.9	13.9	11.3	12.0
13	15.5	13.6	16.8	11.8	12.6	10.6	12.6	11.7	14.4	14.1	12.0	11.2	12.6	10.6	10.6	13.3	11.8	13.0	12.0	12.8
14	13.6	13.8	16.2	12.0	14.2	12.6	13.1	13.4	8.9	11.3	10.0	11.1	13.6	12.7	2.8	5.7	11.0	13.0	14.1	11.9
15	13.0	9.4	12.3	9.9	10.1	7.8	8.9	12.1	10.6	10.8	9.0	9.5	10.4	13.9	7.7	8.0	11.0	11.4	13.8	12.0
16	12.8	14.9	14.9	12.0	11.9	0.0	17.5	13.9	11.4	11.3	16.5	12.0	18.2	12.0	9.4	10.7	14.2	11.7	16.5	12.3
17	17.7	24.4	24.1	15.8	14.9	17.4	14.4	11.8	11.5	12.2	18.6	16.5	18.5	13.0	11.8	13.6	12.0	12.2	13.8	12.3
18	20.8	19.8	23.3	18.6	15.1	10.7	13.4	12.9	10.6	15.1	17.1	17.1	17.9	12.6	19.6	17.1	18.8	14.6	13.3	12.0
19	22.5	27.2	25.6	15.2	19.2	17.3	19.5	13.3	15.1	11.3	21.0	15.3	24.2	12.0	19.4	22.0	18.8	14.9	17.1	12.4
20	20.7	13.4	16.3	14.3	14.0	5.2	12.4	14.0	10.6	14.5	14.4	16.1	14.7	12.1	12.2	13.8	12.8	13.3	14.7	13.0
21	15.9	23.0	22.2	19.9	16.0	22.9	20.2	14.6	15.3	17.6	20.4	21.2	21.9	14.5	18.2	19.5	15.0	10.4	17.9	15.2
22	11.5	10.2	10.7	6.3	10.1	6.8	7.3	16.0	8.7	14.5	7.5	6.5	10.5	14.4	4.6	11.3	12.1	12.2	8.4	12.2
23	13.3	13.3	13.1	14.0	12.2	5.7	12.0	14.2	6.0	12.6	24.0	1.9	25.3	13.9	6.9	22.6	12.0	17.0	19.2	12.0
24	11.8	7.0	9.1	4.0	8.9	1.0	3.3	15.4	5.0	12.6	0.0	9.8	6.4	12.8	4.9	7.4	11.6	13.6	17.9	14.5
25	15.0	19.6	20.0	17.4	17.0	21.2	18.8	12.0	16.0	17.9	18.3	20.0	20.0	11.3	14.4	19.2	17.4	15.5	17.0	14.4
26	18.3	20.8	21.2	17.4	15.5	10.6	14.0	15.0	10.2	13.6	17.0	17.0	17.0	9.8	15.0	15.0	15.0	12.0	16.5	13.3
27	13.6	21.3	21.2	23.0	19.1	3.0	13.1	11.7	11.5	12.5	13.4	13.2	14.3	11.2	16.4	21.5	17.6	13.1	13.2	12.8
28	14.6	13.9	15.0	12.6	17.0	8.9	11.3	12.0	10.6	14.2	12.0	12.6	14.4	8.9	14.4	15.1	12.1	12.4	16.5	12.0
29	22.6	27.7	25.6	24.0	21.5	0.0	23.0	14.4	20.0	21.2	23.0	23.0	24.3	13.9	19.6	22.6	19.6	19.6	13.9	19.6
30	24.0	26.5	27.7	24.0	19.6	0.0	21.2	16.0	16.0	22.6	22.6	22.6	24.0	13.9	19.6	22.6	19.6	17.3	16.5	19.6
31	13.7	14.3	17.0	12.4	12.8	9.5	9.2	12.0	10.6	11.4	11.4	10.9	21.6	13.9	11.3	11.3	13.4	13.0	15.8	13.2
32	18.3	25.8	20.8	21.2	21.2	0.0	23.0	13.9	17.6	19.6	21.6	20.9	25.3	13.9	21.2	20.4	19.6	17.2	19.6	19.6
33	22.3	22.4	21.6	19.3	17.9	8.0	19.6	15.5	10.6	14.7	17.0	17.4	20.0	8.9	20.0	20.4	18.3	15.0	16.0	12.0
34	12.6	17.3	17.9	13.2	11.6	11.4	10.3	18.4	11.7	14.7	6.3	12.1	12.9	13.9	6.6	10.6	11.8	13.7	16.5	12.1
35	12.6	13.3	13.9	11.3	11.3	9.8	11.3	13.3	9.8	11.3	10.6	11.3	14.4	11.3	9.8	11.3	12.0	12.1	15.5	11.0
36	16.8	18.0	12.6	13.5	10.7	9.1	9.5	12.8	9.1	11.1	10.1	10.7	11.4	13.1	5.1	9.4	12.0	12.1	10.6	11.0
37	24.0	18.8	13.3	14.4	13.9	4.0	10.6	9.8	6.9	11.3	12.0	9.8	13.9	13.3	15.5	16.5	13.3	14.4	11.3	15.0
Ave.	16.32	17.39	17.58	15.02	14.46	9.45	13.89	13.31	11.69	13.98	14.61	13.44	16.16	16.12	14.69	14.69	14.16	13.62	14.78	13.19
Rank	18	19	20	15	10	1	7	4	2	8	11	5	17	16	13	12	9	6	14	3

Respondents

Factor V of Concepts 2-3-7-11-13

Factor VI of Concepts 4-8-12

The concepts represented by these combinations were:

Factor I   - The use of Spanglish in general,

Factor II   - The use of Spanglish in the community,

Factor III - The use of Spanglish in school,

Factor IV   - The use of Spanglish in the home,

Factor V   - The use of Spanglish by children in
              school,

Factor VI - The use of Spanglish by children else-
              where.

Table 4.2 presents the results of the crossing of each factor with each one of the 37 respondents. It also reports the average concept value for each one of the six factors.

The creation of the six factors scores produced the dependent variables for the study. Analysis consisted of examining the six variables separately rather than using a more complicated multivariate approach that did not seem warranted.

Factor number II, the use of Spanglish in the community ranked number 1 in amount of agreement among the sample population. Factor number V, the use of Spanglish by children in school ranked the lowest.

Table 4.2

AVERAGE CONCEPT VALUE OF THE COLLAPSED BY FACTOR

			Factors			
Respondents	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	24.77	68.90	111.76	24.65	62.36	38.56
2	34.69	98.64	176.95	36.40	110.97	55.43
3	23.66	58.29	95.54	22.45	45.21	32.98
4	32.47	77.53	171.03	31.60	83.09	43.73
5	26.49	66.59	133.89	26.31	76.06	37.71
6	33.53	85.43	181.93	34.14	97.54	43.20
7	25.38	78.08	133.42	23.76	60.64	36.40
8	25.00	80.34	136.83	22.63	64.65	35.31
9	25.79	73.70	133.50	11.48	69.28	38.02
10	38.36	90.27	185.72	34.04	102.26	42.46
11	27.20	73.13	149.69	25.78	83.65	39.67
12	28.28	73.05	149.84	23.48	74.19	35.64
13	27.49	71.42	125.85	23.70	66.06	34.81
14	25.39	63.29	124.45	24.77	65.02	36.47
15	24.00	62.17	103.67	21.82	50.12	31.61
16	24.85	69.67	142.57	24.00	82.09	37.86
17	31.84	76.05	170.89	28.17	100.00	44.16
18	32.81	80.84	160.58	30.60	91.65	48.61
19	41.31	89.25	205.12	27.69	117.57	43.73
20	33.50	80.72	130.55	27.28	70.82	44.41
21	30.87	97.33	198.46	35.12	107.67	55.77
22	23.66	62.48	96.16	18.57	45.83	28.54
23	24.65	56.08	160.42	26.00	86.93	28.18
24	23.45	61.37	73.78	18.49	25.70	29.23
25	32.40	95.80	182.29	31.86	96.69	29.64
26	33.30	82.21	157.69	30.70	90.36	49.37
27	39.49	78.35	151.29	24.35	83.24	47.83
28	26.63	76.27	133.05	24.65	66.63	37.30
29	42.22	118.16	198.13	43.60	123.61	61.40
30	43.60	114.74	191.98	43.60	122.04	62.63
31	27.16	69.08	136.33	25.68	73.22	35.31
32	37.87	110.33	191.24	31.79	115.79	55.97
33	40.60	81.06	171.79	31.29	100.56	52.21
34	24.48	77.23	128.59	25.35	64.68	43.75
35	24.65	67.49	122.67	22.63	63.44	35.89
36	28.82	60.81	113.86	24.49	61.03	36.97
37	37.27	67.75	127.40	29.39	68.47	34.02
Ave.	30.48	78.21	147.54	27.36	80.25	41.20
Pos.	15.24	13.02	14.75	13.68	16.05	13.73
Rank	5	1	4	2	6	3

The independent variables for the study were the 13
answers given by the 37 respondents to demographic
questions. The demographic profile of responses is shown
on Table 4.3.

A correlational examination of all thirteen indepen-
dent variables and the six dependent variables revealed
that there were 29 significant relationships among them.
With 37 respondents, a coefficient needed to be at least
±.33 to be considered greater or less than zero, and thus
significant. Table 4.4 illustrates the results of the
correlational analysis. The top part of the table
represents the relationship among the demographic variables,
the lower part of the table represents the relationship
among the six factors and the demographic variables, and
the lower right hand portion of the table represents the
relationship among the factors. The results revealed
that the highest coefficients (.80 or over) were for
variables second language crossed with native language,
country of childhood crossed with birth place, language
most comfortable and country of childhood.

In terms of significant relationships between the
factors and the demographic variables, three of them were
significant. These were factor number II, community,
crossed with teaching level. It is important to notice

Table 4.3

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS BY
VARIABLE, CODE AND RESULTS

Variable	Code	Comment/Results
Sex	1 = Female, 2 = Male	76% Female, 24% Male
Native Language	1 = Eng., 2 = Spanish	81% Spanish
Second Language	1 = Eng., 2 = Spanish	76% Learned English second
Birth Place	1 = Else, 2 = USA	78% were born outside the USA
Type Community	1 = Urban, 2 = Sub., 3 = Rural	Freq.: 16 (1), 7 (2), 14 (3)
Home Language	1 = Eng., 2 = Spnaish	89% Speak Spanish at home
Country of Childhood	1 = Else, 2 = USA	70% spent childhood outside USA
Reading Language	1 = Eng., 2 = Spanish	62% read in English
Country of College	1 = Else, 2 = USA	41% attended college in USA
Country learn SL	1 = Else, 2 = USA	59% learned English in USA

Table 4.3 continued

Variable	Code	Comment/Results
Most Comfortable	1 = Eng., 2 = Spanish	73% prefer to speak Spanish
Certification	1 = Bilingual, 2 = Other	54% are Bilingual Certified
Teaching Level	1 = Elem., 2 = Sec.	78% teach at Elem. Level

here that these relationships even though significant, was not as high as the demographic variables crossed with each other.

The importance of the awareness of "Spanglish" on the part of teachers was the concept that all of the respondents most closely agreed.

Scale number III represents the concept to which all the respondents least agreed. The concept states that the use of "Spanglish" in the classroom should not be allowed. This is one of the biggest concerns of the author and she discusses it in the next pages.

Teachers with a bilingual certificate tended to be in favor of the use of "Spanglish" in the community. This finding was also shown on Table number 4.4. Another finding indicated that elementary level teachers disagreed on the use of "Spanglish" in school.

In terms of the relationships among factors there were fifteen significant ones, all over .70. The highest correlation happened between Factor V, children in school and Factor III, school.

Discussion of Findings

The first significant correlation indicated that teachers with a Bilingual Certificate tended to be in favor of the use of Spanglish in the community,

Table 4.4

INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG INDEPENDENT/DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY VARIABLE AND FACTOR

	Sex	Native Lang.	Sec. Lang.	Birth Place	Type Comm.	Home Lang.	Cntry Child	Head. Lang.	Cntry Coll.	Cntry S. L.	Conf. Lang	Bil Cert.	Ten. Level	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6
Variable																			
Sex	--																		
Native Lang.	.27	--																	
Second Lang.	-.32	-.85	--																
Birth Place	-.01	-.58	.47	--															
Type of Comm.	.10	.28	-.39	-.28	--														
Home Lang.	.20	.72	-.61	-.66	.17	--													
Cntry ns Child	-.09	.59	-.60	.81	.42	.54	--												
Head Lang.	-.18	-.48	.47	.40	-.26	-.45	.59	--											
Cntry in Coll.	-.08	-.16	.17	.37	-.26	-.24	.55	.49	--										
Cntry Sec. Lang.	-.04	.02	-.08	.17	-.20	-.11	.30	.19	.46	--									
Most Comf Lang.	.20	.64	-.65	-.58	.37	.57	-.80	-.53	-.37	.26	--								
Bil. Cert.	-.14	-.11	.11	.17	-.19	-.03	.11	.18	-.12	-.23	.07	--							
Teach. Level	.16	.09	.01	.04	.10	-.03	.09	-.01	-.17	.17	.02	-.22	--						
Factor																			
F1 General	-.19	-.18	.04	.14	-.14	-.01	.01	.01	.01	-.20	-.14	.13	-.29	--					
F2 Community	-.26	-.21	.12	.15	-.08	.04	.02	.05	-.01	-.21	-.02	.39	-.16	.75	--				
F3 School	-.20	-.19	.05	.15	-.07	-.06	.01	.03	.19	-.16	-.17	.23	-.35	.76	.81	--			
F4 Home	-.13	-.11	.01	.14	-.21	.11	.03	.08	.01	-.17	-.05	.26	-.18	.76	.80	.77	--		
F5 Ch/Sch.	-.23	-.21	.05	.16	-.07	-.03	.01	.03	.17	-.18	-.08	.28	-.40	.80	.82	.97	.81	--	
F6 Ch/Hoe	-.15	-.17	.06	.22	-.06	.09	.10	-.06	-.07	-.20	-.11	.28	-.09	.75	.82	.71	.76	.78	--

Note: · With 37 respondents, the correlation must be at least .33 (- and +) to be significant.

consistent with the general findings of the study. The attitude of such teachers toward the use of Spanglish in other contexts was inconclusive.

The two other significant correlations indicated that elementary level teachers disagreed on the use of Spanglish in school and on the use of Spanglish by children in school, also consistent with the general results of the study.

It seems reasonable to conclude from this study that Bilingual Teachers, especially at the elementary level, do not agree with the use of Spanglish within schools, but have no strong feelings about its use in other contexts, and probably favor its use within the community.

A diversity of opinions and positions were expressed by the respondents when asked about this position regarding the use of "Spanglish" in the educational process of the student in the open-ended section of the questionnaire. The majority of the respondents thought that the use of "Spanglish" by the children should be permitted as a means of communication if it helped the students. On the other hand a high number did not approve of the use of "Spanglish" in the classroom. They would rather have the students speak standard English or standard Spanish as a means of communication. It should also be of interest to

know that a few of the respondents qualified their acceptance of the use of "Spanglish" in specific situations.

The respondents who were in favor of the use of "Spanglish" presented information such as "Spanglish" should not be condemned in or out of the classroom, however, instruction should be provided so that the students can communicate with those who have not been exposed to "Spanglish". One of the respondents viewed "Spanglish" as a tool to help the student to learn both Spanish and English. Another positive comment indicates that it is normal to use "Spanglish". It should not be used as part of the formal teaching learning process, but we cannot ignore the use of "Spanglish" because it is part of the students daily life and experience in the community. In accordance with this same view respondents strengthen the "Spanglish" phenomenon in light of community experience. For example a respondent reports "When the students use "Spanglish" is because they hear it at home as well as in the community. This is the only way in which they can express themselves when they enter school for the first time. We should let the children express themselves in their own way at the same time we correct their language patterns."

"The phenomenon of "Spanglish" should be explained to the students and let them know that standard English and standard Spanish exist" according to the responses provided by some teachers. No tabulation was made for open-ended responses, neither percentages nor numbers are reported. (Appendix C presents all such responses in verbatim). Some of the respondents were concerned with their responsibility to teach the appropriate language so that these students could succeed in the real world, since this society functions on a set of standards.

A number of respondents did not approve of the use of "Spanglish". They felt that it lacked the characteristics of a standard language and for this reason should not be used in the classroom by either the teacher nor the students. Some of their comments are the following:

"it confused the student"

"it should not be considered as a means of communication because it is a dialect"

"it weakens the language"

"it is the same as "slang" and it should not be permitted to be used"

"it causes irreparable harm to the student"

"it hinders the learning process"

A number of the respondents feel that "Spanglish" could be used in the community but it is not acceptable in the classroom. Several felt that "Spanglish" could be utilized as a comparative analysis of standard English and standard Spanish. It was felt that it could be accepted as part of the speech pattern of students, but should be discarded after standard English or Spanish was learned. Another view was to accept "Spanglish" if it were the only means of communication available. One respondent said: "communication is more important to me at this point than would be pure language as such".

In considering the variety of points and positions regarding the utilization of "Spanglish" certain observations are in order. First, a number of respondents approved of the use of "Spanglish". Second a representative number did not approve of the use of "Spanglish" and expressed a negative feeling towards the phenomenon. Third, several respondents did not take a position for or against the phenomenon of "Spanglish", but qualified the conditions under which it would be acceptable or not acceptable. In addition, some felt that "Spanglish" served a useful linguistic purpose.

Of special concern to the author are those respondents who will not allow the use of "Spanglish" for communication

purposes when other means are not available. It is also the author's opinion that it is the responsibility of the educator to accept the child as he/she is including the language when they come to school. If the child's language is not accepted by the teacher this could lead to the feeling that there is a rejection of the person himself/herself.

This is also mentioned by a number of authors who have worked with standard English as a Second Language in communities where Black English is the first means of communication that is experienced by the children. As Yellin (1980) explains how when Daniel Fader was testifying for the Ann Arbor case stated: "Language is like clothing. When you take it away from the child, you leave him naked". The Seymours (1979) recognize that these children leave their language outside the classroom. The Seymours, referring to Ebonics (Black English) state that to suggest this is "to render them mute because Ebonics is their first language".

The author does not agree with the comment regarding "Spanglish" as a cause of irreparable harm in the classroom since this phenomenon might be the only means of communication that the child might have and to leave the students without a means of communication will cause more

harm than any benefits the restriction of the use of
"Spanglish" will bring. This brings to ones attention
a similar case which is most obvious when a child who is
learning English for the first time and has some pro-
ficiency in that language is forced to communicate in the
language in which he/she has limited proficiency. It
would seem advisable to allow this child to communicate
in his/her native language than not to communicate at all.

Conclusions

This part of the chapter presents the conclusions
arrived at after analyzing the data provided by the
respondents during the research project in the City of
Springfield, Massachusetts.

It is necessary to re-emphasize that this information
was provided by 37 bilingual (English-Spanish) teachers
representing 64% of the teaching population in Springfield.
It is also necessary to point out that in drawing any
conclusions from the data it should be understood that the
responses themselves were limited to the perceptions of
the respondents and in some instances their biases and
misconceptions in respect to the linguistic phenomenon of
"Spanglish".

The data anlaysis which consisted of a correlational
examination of all 13 independent variables (demographic

data) and six dependent variables which are: (I) the use of "Spanglish" in general; (II) the use of "Spanglish" in the community; (III) the use of "Spanglish" in school; (IV) the use of "Spanglish" in the home; (V) the use of "Spanglish" by children in school, and (VI) the use of "Spanglish" by children elsewhere, gave us enough information to conclude that teachers felt that it is more acceptable to use "Spanglish" in the community than in other settings. The results also show least agreement among all teachers to the use of "Spanglish" by children in school. In other words teachers accepted the use of "Spanglish" in the community, however, they did not agree to the use of "Spanglish" by children in school.

Bilingual teachers in the city of Springfield, especially at the elementary level, do not agree with the use of "Spanglish" by children within the school, but have no strong feelings about its use in other contexts, especially at home or in the community. These teachers felt that it is more acceptable to use "Spanglish" in the community than in other settings, and that it is important that teachers should be aware of the phenomenon of "Spanglish".

The last and most important conclusion was arrived at after studying scale number III and finding out that it

was the scale to which all the respondents least agreed. Teachers felt that the use of "Spanglish" in the classroom should not be allowed.

It is the author's hope that this indepth inquiry regarding the phenomenon of "Spanglish" will be of help to those of us responsible for the instruction of students who are linguistically different. It should also be a valuable aid in understanding and helping us to work successfully with the community. Finally, it is the author's hope that it will be a document to help us discover the requisite ways in helping our children to learn and profit from our educational enterprise.

CHAPTER V
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents recommendations for further research and for action which could be taken to improve the attitudes of teachers when dealing with linguistic differences in the classroom.

In drawing any conclusions from the data as collected and analyzed, it is important to remember that the responses themselves were limited to the perceptions of the participants and in some instances their biases and prejudices in respect to "Spanglish".

The first part of the chapter presents linguistic problems that are found in the classroom, the implications of the problems, the problems that the children experience because of the classroom linguistic situation and recommendations to facilitate the learning process of the linguistically different student. These recommendations should bring about a better understanding on the part of administrators and educators towards non-standard speakers.

There are several problems that are evident from this study. A lack of awareness of linguistic differences on the part of educators is apparent.

This was referred to by Ford (1978) in his study of attitudes of prospective foreign language teachers toward non-standard English. The results of the study showed that one of the key reasons the schools have failed the minority group children is a lack of understanding of their linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Furthermore, Stern and Keislar (1977) state that "non-standard speakers are consistently rated low in education, intelligence, socio-economic status, and speaking ability." Williams (1976) suggests that

> Very definite relations can be found between particular variations of language and the attitudes of listeners. In other words, most studies have been able to draw conclusions that have some degree of applicability to types of speech and the reactions of listeners.

The lack of awareness of linguistic differences on the part of educators leads them to expect students to function in a system that demands the use of standard English structure and style. These expectations cause frustration on the part of the students, consequently hindering their progress.

The researcher recommends that educators take courses in socio-linguistics so that they can understand and appreciate the children's language differences and become aware of and sensitive to the linguistically different child.

This lack of awareness and understanding on the part of the educators results in the unacceptance of non-standard language usage in the classroom. As stated by Dillard (1972);

> Educational systems in the North American society are ignorant and handicapped not only by lacking adequate information about the Black English, but because they lack information about any other language form different from "standard English".

This unacceptance, of the non-standard language form brings about a negative attitude on the part of the teacher. These negative attitudes usually result in negative teacher behavior, negative student attitudes and poor student achievement. This situation is perpetuated as negative teacher attitudes are reinforced by poor student oral and written language skills.

Stokes (1976) in Freeman (1982) has pointed out that "unless teachers soften negative attitudes toward dialect and dialect speakers it is doubtful that any meaningful progress toward facilitating language teaching, learning and use can be successfully effected."

This could be achieved by teachers taking courses in socio-linguistics, or by participating in seminars oriented toward non-standard language forms. Also, administrators should become aware of the situation so that they can assist teachers in dealing effectively with this problem.

Educators should assess their own values, attitudes, and languages and compare them with those of their pupils. Teachers must become more sensitive to the linguistically different student. They should learn how to diagnose dialectal features that may cause learning problems for the child.

Linguistic interference between the educator and the non-standard speaker in the classroom represents another problem. As a result of this interference miscommunication between educator and student is always possible.

Awareness of the interference phenomenon on the part of the educators is necessary. Courses and workshops should be provided to facilitate the awareness process.

The teacher must use teaching strategies to help the child identify and discriminate between standard and non-standard forms of language.

Another problem identified in the study is the misunderstanding of the term "linguistically different" to mean "linguistically deficient". The tendency of teachers and associates (1976) is to confuse language differences with language deficits. As argued by the urban language researchers most minority group children are developing quite normal and adequate linguistic systems to meet the demands of individual speech communities. Although it may

be accurate for a teacher to evaluate a child's language as ethnic and nonstandard or reticent, it may be quite inappropriate to always expect this performance in all speech situations.

In view of this, the teacher must be educated to look at non-standard dialects in a less negative light. As Bernstein (1972) in Marks (1976) states "the culture of the teachers is to become part of the consciousness of the child then the culture of the child must first be in the con- sciousness of the teacher." Since language is part of any culture, it should be part of the consciousness of the teacher.

Williams and Associates (1976) suggests that the study of language variations in children, particularly minority group children, and attitudinal correlates be introduced into the curricula of teacher training. Teachers should be trained to be sensitive to variations in social dialects and variations in performance. More important, educators should try to solve these problems with the understanding that a linguistically different child is not a linguistically deficient child. These could probably be achieved by taking socio-linguistic courses and also by having opened discus- sions with the affected students. Teachers can learn from students; students are the main source of information in this kind of situation. Attitudinal changes by teachers

and administrators are essential in order to engender more enlightened and sensitive approaches to the linguistically different child.

As previously discussed the lack of adequate information about the linguistic differences as well as the insensitivity of educators toward non-standard speakers represents a problem in the teaching-learning process.

The linguistic differences are often ignored by educators as well as by administrators. Non-standard speakers continue to be subjected to teachers who label the non-standard dialects or languages as bad, substandard, incorrect, impoverished, deprived and non-language.

As a result the students feel rejected when they realize that their language is not taken into consideration in the educational process and when they are indirectly told that what they speak is incorrect. Thus, the incorporation of linguistic differences as an integral part of future education programs for linguistic different students must be a priority.

The use of inappropriate procedures for teaching non-standard speakers is another concern when dealing with speakers of non-standard languages. Often, the culture of the students is not considered in the educational process. Students are presented with teaching materials that are irrelevant to their lives and experiences beyond

the classroom. This leads to non participation on the part of the students and most likely behavior problems will arise.

The utilization of culturally relevant teaching materials is necessary. These materials should be developed if they do not exist. Educators should encourage their students to compose their own literature, relating learning activities to their experiences. Educators should use classroom non-standard linguistic experiences as a tool in their teaching.

The use of only standard language systems in educational institutions is a challenge to children who come from non-standard language backgrounds. It is a well established fact that non-standard language systems are forbidden. In considering the case of Martin Luther King Junior Elementary School Children vs. Ann Arbor School District Board, Smitherman (1981) says:

> In the educational context negative linguistic attitudes are reflected in the institutional policies and practices that become educational dysfunctional for Black English-speaking children.

Pooley (1974) in Smitherman (1981) states:

> Myths and misconceptions about language and negative attitudes toward language diversity are fostered in the school and perpetuated in the general populace by the public school experience. Schools and teachers are seen as guardians of the national tongue.

Students who speak a non-standard language system remain silent during class activities. As Rosen in Marks (1976) suggests "if an attempt is made to superimpose one set of forms on another, there is a good chance that the child will become silent."

School policy should be developed and implemented in order to meet the needs of all students whether they speak standard or non-standard forms of languages.

The unacceptance of non-standard language speakers by the society in general is the ultimate result of all of the problems already discussed. The opportunities for non-standard language speakers are limited in comparison with those of standard language speakers. This is demonstrated by Shuy (1970) and Findley (1971). They found different results when employers were asked to rank speech samples collected from all social strata of the Black community. It was found that employers consistently ranked professional Blacks in the same 'lower' categories, along with salesman, policeman, and mechanics. Findley (1971) in Webber (1979) found that employers' decisions on the employability of Whites are influenced by the frequency and type of non-standard grammatical features in their speech samples.

While the previous examples were concerned directly with employability, in the case of Northeast Thailand

school, academic performance was considered, however, in
the final analysis the inability to use the official
language limits school progress which ultimately limited
employability.

In order to provide equality of opportunities for non-
standard language speakers, linguistic differences should
be looked at as the individual's right to express his/her
ideas in the way in which s/he feels most comfortable, be
it a standard or non-standard form of language.

It is the researcher's feeling that the main problem
as reflected by the study is one of attitudes.

The recommendations consistent with the findings will
help to alleviate the problem of the linguistically
different student. Teacher expectations, motivations,
and attitudes are crucial factors in relating to children
positively and negatively. The teacher is a significant
person in bringing about quality education to all children.
As Arthur Combs (1962) in Wofford (1979) states:

> The most important changes will occur only as
> teachers change, for institutions are made up of
> people, and it is the classroom behavior of
> teachers that will finally determine whether our
> schools fail or whether they meet the challenge
> of our times.

Recommendations for Further Research

Four main recommendations for further research are
hereby provided: 1) A replication of this study should be
conducted in a different city, and a comparison of its
results with the present study results should be made.
2) The attitudes of bilingual children toward "Spanglish"
should be explored, and a contrast of these attitudes and
those of the teachers should be made. Parents attitudes
toward "Spanglish" should also be explored. 3) A comparison
of the results of these three suggested studies will tell
us how these three groups (children, parents and teachers)
feel about "Spanglish".

In addition to the previous recommendations for
replication the researcher recommends a repetition of a
similar study with teachers who were born in the United
States and have shared the same linguistic experiences as
the students. It would be very interesting to determine
whether the results of a similar study be the same or
different. This study showed that 78 percent of the
respondents were born outside of the United States.
Seventy percent spent their childhood outside of the United
States. A hypothesis can be drawn regarding the background
of the respondents as a determinant variable in their
attitude toward "Spanglish". This high percentage of

respondents might have difficulty understanding the phenomenon since they have not had a similar linguistic experience as the students who have lived in communities in the United States.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS of SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS

Bryant Robinson, Jr.
Assistant Superintendent of
Elementary Education

Central Office
195 State Street
01103

November 24, 1982

School of Education
University of Massachusetts
Amherst, Massachusetts   01002

To whom it may concern:

Mrs. Norma Rivera-Jiminez, a doctoral candidate at the
University of Massachusetts in Amherst, has expressed interest in
doing a research project for her dissertation in the Springfield
School System.

The Springfield School Department is more than willing to
support and assist Mrs. Rivera-Jiminez in her research. We would
be most interested in learning and applying the results of her
social/linguistic study.

The Springfield Public Schools are committed to helping the
hispanic students in our schools attain the highest quality of
education possible.

Sincerely,

BRYANT ROBINSON, JR.
Assistant Superintendent

BR:sdr

SPRINGFIELD PUBLIC SCHOOLS
Springfield, Massachusetts

March 16, 1983

Memorandum to Principals:

Re: Survey of Bilingual Teachers

    Mrs Norma Rivera, a teacher at New North, is currently studying
"Spanglish", the anglization of some Spanish words. She would appreciate
having information about "Spanglish" supplied by Bilingual teachers.

    Enclosed are survey forms for Bilingual Teachers whose name is typed
in the upper right corner of the form's cover sheet. Please ask the teachers
to remove the cover sheet (assuring anonymity), complete the survey, and
return the form to the Research Department by March 25, 1983. I appreciate
your help in the matter.

                                        Respectfully,
                                        John F. Howell, Director
                                        Research Department

Approved:
  DR. JOHN V. SHEA
  Assistant Superintendent

  BRYANT ROBINSON, JR.
  Assistant Superintendent

APPENDIX B

Spanish Version of Questionnaire

Companeros:

Como parte de mi tesis doctoral estoy llevando a cabo una investigacion con relacion a la situacion linguistica del estudiante hispanoparlante en los Estados Unidos.

La informacion sera utilizada unica y exclusivamente para este proposito y el cuestionario sera anonimo

Le agradeceria tomaran unos minutos para completar el cuestionario adjunto.

Gracias,

Norma Rivera, Maestra
140 Middlesex Street
Springfield, MA 01009

INSTRUCCIONES

Encontrará 20 conceptos en el cuestionario. Usted
leerá el concepto y los adjetivos opuestos que le siguen.
Usted entonces decidirá si el concepto está major descrito
por el adjetivo del lado derecho o el adjetivo del lado
izquierdo. Hará una marca (X) en el espacio de la escala
del 1-9 que usted considere mejor describe su opinión
acerca del concepto. Usted marcará cada uno de los
adjectivos bajo el concepto. El número más cercano al
ajectivo describe mejor el concepto.

Notaro que cada concepto tiene por lo menos 7
adjectivos que lo describen.

Complete el cuestionario basados en la definición de
"Spanglish" que continúa.

"SPANGLISH"--ES LA ALTERACION DE LA ESTRUCTURA DEL
ESPANOL O DEL INGLES DEBIDO AL CONTACTO CONSTANTE DE
LOS DOS IDIOMAS. ES LA "FUSION GRAMATICAL Y
ESTRUCTURACION NUEVA DE LOS REPERTORIOS LINGUISTICOS
CON APORTES PROCEDENTES TANTO DE UNA LENGUA COMO DE
OTRA." ESTA FUSION DEL INGLES Y EL ESPANOL TRAE
COMO RESULTADO LA CREACION DE PALABRAS Y ESTRUCTURAS
NUEVAS A LAS CUALES SE LE HA LLAMDO "SPANGLISH."

CUESTIONARIO

Trasfondo Informativo

1. Sexo_____M _____F

2. Idioma nativo _____Inglés _____Español _____Otro

3. Segundo idioma _____Inglés _____Español_____Otro

4. ¿Dónde nació?_____

5. ¿En qué zona pasó su niñez? _____urbana _____sub-urbana

    _____rural

6. ¿Qué idioma se hablaba en la casa durante su niñez?

    _____Inglés _____Español _____Otro

7. ¿En qué pais pasó su niñez? _____

8. ¿En qué idioma aprendió a leer? _____ Inglés

    _____Español _____Otro

9. ¿En qué universidad cursó estudios universitarios?

    _____

10. ¿A qué paises ha viajado? _____

11. ¿En qué pais aprendió el segundo idioma?_____

12. ¿En que idioma se siente más cómoda/o al hablar?

    _____Inglés _____Español _____Otro

13. ¿Qué tipo de certificación posee? _____Bilingüe

    _____Regular _____Otro

14. ¿En qué estado enseña? _____Massachusetts _____New York

    _____Neuva Jersey _____Connecticut

15. ¿Qué nivel enseña? _____K-6 _____7-9 _____10-12

1. El espanol que se habla cuando se usa el "Spanglish" es
de tipo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-pedagogico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pedagógico
culto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	inculto
correcto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incorrecto
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
beneficioso	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	dañino
malo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bueno
rico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pobre
avanzado	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	atrasado
feo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bonito
alto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bajo

2. La mezcla de inglés y español en una conversación en la
escuela es algo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
culto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	inculto
normal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	anormal
estupido	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	sabio
correcto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incorrecto
feo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bonito
beneficioso	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	dañino
bajo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	alto
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
bueno	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	malo
pedagógico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	anti-pedagógico
pobre	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	rico
avanzado	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	atrasado

3. Permitir el uso del "Spanglish" en el salón de clases
es algo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
inflexible	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	flexible
culto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	inculto
pedagógico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	anti-pedagógico
pobre	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	rico
beneficioso	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	danino
bajo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	alto
bueno	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	malo
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
correcto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incorrecto
bonito	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	feo
anormal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	normal
democrático	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	anti-democrático
sabio	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	estupido

4. El uso del "Spanglish" por los niños en el hogar es algo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
dañino	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	beneficioso
bueno	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	malo
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
correcto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecto
feo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bonito
avanzado	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	atrasado
culto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inculto
estúpido	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabio
alto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bajo

5. Una maestra/o que use "Spanglish" en el salon de clases debe sentirse:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
inculta/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culta/o
bien	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	mal
cómoda/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incomoda/o
atrasada/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	avanzada/o
incorrecta/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcta/o
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
avergonzada/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	orgullosa/o
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
baja/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alta/o
democrática/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-democrática/o

6. Communicarle a las maestras que no hablan español que existe el fenómeno del "Spanglish" es una idea:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
dañina	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	beneficiosa
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
estúpida	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabia
correcta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecta
fea	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bonita
pedagógica	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-pedagogica
inculta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culta
amplia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	estrecha
baja	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alta
rica	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pobre

7. Un sistema escolar que permita el uso del "Spanglish"
    es un sistema escolar:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
avanzado	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	atrasado
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
bueno	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	malo
bajo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alto
democrático	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-democrático
incorrecto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcto
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
amargo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dulce
culto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inculto
estúpido	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabio

8. El uso del "Spanglish" en el supermercado, en la
    iglesia, en la oficina del médico, en la farmacia y en
    el banco es algo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
feo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bonito
alto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bajo
democrático	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-democrático
incorrecto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcto
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
sabio	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	estúpido
dañino	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	beneficioso
inculto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culto

9. Una comunidad donde se habla "Spanglish" constatemente
    es una comunidad políticamente:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
baja	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alta
correcta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecta
democrática	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-democrática
unida	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	desunida
mala	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	buena
avanzada	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	atrasada
organizada	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	desorganizada
concientizada	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inconcientizada

10. Una comunidad conde se hable "Spanglish" constantemente
es una comunidad culturalmente:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
incorrecta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcta
avanzada	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	atrasada
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
incompleta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	completa
pobre	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	rica
alta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	baja
desorganizada	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	organizada
unida	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	desunida
inflexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	flexible

11. El uso del "Spanglish" por los niños en el salón de
clases es considerado por usted como:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-democrático	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	democrático
bajo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alto
bueno	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	malo
anormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
beneficioso	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dañino
estupido	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabio
correcto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecto
inculto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culto
feo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bonito

12. El uso del "Spanglish" por los estudiantes en la
comunidad es algo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
normal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anormal
inculto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culto
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
feo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bonito
bueno	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	malo
democrático	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-democrático
estupido	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabio
bajo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alto
correcto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecto
dañino	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	beneficioso

13. La siguiente pregunta: "¿Maestra/o cuando vamos a 'lonchal'?" se considera:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-pedagógica	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagógica
culta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inculta
incorrecta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcta
beneficiosa	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dañina
buena	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	mala
incompleta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	completa
avanzada	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	atrasada
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
normal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anormal
estúpida	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabia

14. Un curso sobre el fenómeno sociolingüístico del "Spanglish" para maestros es una idea:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
mala	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	buena
beneficiosa	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dañina
anti-pedagógica	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagógica
bonita	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	fea
incorrecta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcta
sabia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	estúpida
baja	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	alta
amplia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	estrecha
anormal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	normal
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
inculta	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culta
rica	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pobre

15. Una maestra/o que use "Spanglish" fuera del salón de clases debe considerarse:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
correcta/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecta/o
avanzada/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	atrasada/o
cómoda/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incomoda/o
inculta/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culta/o
sabia/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	estúpida/o

16. Un estudiante que se gradúe de escuela superior y use
"Spanglish" al expresarse usted lo considera con una
capacidad lingüística:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anormal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	normal
amplia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	estrecha
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
alta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	baja
mala	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	buena
completa	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	incompleta
pobre	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	rica
avanzada	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	atrasada

17. La mezcla del inglés y el español en una conversación
es algo:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anti-pedagógico	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pedagogico
bonito	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	feo
incorrecto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	correcto
beneficioso	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	dañino
bueno	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	malo
atrasado	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	avanzado
inculto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	culto
superior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	inferior
estúpido	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	sabio
alto	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bajo

18. Una comunidad donde se habla "Spanglish" constantemente
es una comunidad lingüísticamente:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
anormal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	normal
culta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	inculta
rica	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	pobre
estrecha	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	avansada
inferior	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	superior
alta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	baja
incorrecta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	correcta
unida	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	deunida
fea	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	bonita
avanzada	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	atrasada

19. Un sistema escolar que condene el uso del "Spanglish" en las escuelas se puede calificar de:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible
anti-pedagogico	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pedagógico
rico	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	pobre
democrático	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anti-democrático
atrasado	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	avanzado
inferior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	superior
beneficioso	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	dañino
malo	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bueno
correcto	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incorrecto

20. Una maestra/o bilingüe que use "Spanglish" en su hogar debe sentirse:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
normal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	anormal
inculta/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	culta/o
superior	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inferior
atrasada/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	avanzada/o
mal	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	bien
orgullosa/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	avergonzada/o
incorrecta/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	correcta/o
cómoda/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	incomoda/o
estúpida/o	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	sabia/o
flexible	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	inflexible

¿Cuál es su posición con relación al "Spanglish" en el proceso educativo del estudiante?

APPENDIX C

Verbatim responses to the question "What is your position regarding "Spanglish" in the educational process of the student?"

1. El "Spanglish" no se debe condenar en el salón de clases ni fuera del mismo, sin embargo el niño debe aprender como decir lo mismo en inglés y en español correctamente para que se pueda comunicar con aquellas personas que nunca se han expuesto al "Spanglish".

2. No creo que se deba usar en el proceso educativo. Solo sirve para confundir a los estudiantes y no aprender bien ninguna lengua.

3. No debe considerarse en ningún momento como instrumento de comunicación ya que es un dialecto que interrumpe el desarrollo lingüístico del niño.

4. Creo que es una cosa normal que oigo todos los dias en una forma u otra. Creo que no debemos enseñarles las palabras pero al mismo tiempo creo que no podemos olvidarnos de estas palabras proque son comunes y normales en muchas de las vidas de neustros alumnos. Entonces, no debemos darle mucha atención pero si oimos o si encontramos, debemos explicarle este fenómeno.

5. Que los niños lo van a usar porque estan en proceso de cambiar su idioma y es natural que intercambien palabras.

6. El maestro debe estar consciente del fenómeno lingüístico. Debe evitar lo más posible el uso de "Spanglish" en el salón de clases. Debe aprovechar la presencia de sus alumnos en el salón de clases para ayudarlos a mejorar su expresión lingüística. Muchas veces, la interferencia lingüística de otro idioma nos obliga comunicarnos en ambas lenguas a la vez. No debemos hacer o formar un patrón del mismo.

7. Los niños usan "Spanglish" continuamente y es un problema tratar de corregirlos ya que ellos y sus padres lo usan continuamente.

8. Acepto que existe el "Spanglish" pero en cualquier momento que uno de mis estudiantes lo use, lo corrijo al igual que con mis hijas. Tampoco usaría el "Spanglish" aunque la comunidad completa lo usara ya que aprendí a hablar español sin usar el "Spanglish" y, para mí, usarlo yo sería incorrecto. No critico las personas que usan el "Spanglish" debido al contacto del español e inglés.

9. When the students use "Spanglish" is because they hear it at home as well as in the community. This is the only way in which they can express themselves when they enter school for the first time. We should let the children express themselves in their own way at the same time we correct their language patterns. Children come

to school to acquire the knowledge that will enable them to become the citizens that will contribute to the society's welfare. The knowledge the students inferred does not interfere significantly with the way in which they express themselves. It would be of great benefit to understand and have some knowledge of the "Spanglish" to make the students feel comfortable and accepted.

10. Las notas aclaratorias a diferentes preguntas te dan una idea de mi posición en cuanto al "Spanglish."

11. Soy maestra bilingüe--segundo grado, "Spanglish", parece una buena mezcla de lo que es rico de los dos idiomas Esta bien si los ninos desarrollan un nuevo idioma.

12. No quiere "Spanglish" porque la lengua español es tan hermosa.

13. En las escuelas debe enseñarse e implementar solamente Español. "Spanglish" como cualquier otra modificación que afea un idioma debe ser rechazado en las escuelas. En la comunidad a veces es necesario para ser entendido por personas con poca educación escolar.

14. Prefiero ver los niños eliminando el uso del "Spanglish" en el desarrollo de su vocabulario/lenguage. Es mi opinión que "Spanglish" es igual al uso de (slang) en inglés. No debemos enseñarlo ni permitirlo para que

los niños aprendan, correctamente, la estructura del
lenguage español/inglés.

    15. Creo que, en el salón de clase el estudiante
debe ser estimulado a usar correctamente el idioma (ya sea
el español o el inglés). No se le debe alimentar que
haga uso de muletillas para comunicarse ya que no se le
está exigiendo que trate lo máximo posible en comunicarse
correctamente en un idioma. Para mi que atrasa el proceso
de aprendizaje. Si creo que en determinadas situaciones
como por ejemplo, cuando una está haciendo un análisis
comparativo entre el inglés y el español muchas veces el
uso de "Spanglish" como ejemplo resulta sumamente
beneficioso.

    16. El maestro debe empezar a enseñar desde donde los
estudiantes están por lo tanto debe aceptar y utilizar el
habla del estudiante como punto de partida. Es la labor
del maestro hacerle ver que hay una forma "estandar" y
que uno puede optar por una u otra o, pero sin menospreciar
el habla de la comunidad.

    17. No se debe menguar el estudiante de usar el
"Spanglish" siempre y cuando se lo pueda interpretar lo
que el está diciendo en ambos idiomas. Si esa es la única
forma de comunicarse que el tiene pues que lo use, sería
antidemocrático que no se dejara expresar al niño. Creo

que poco a poco llevándolo de la mano sin criticarle el
va a poder entender.

18. Por ser un fenómeno lingüístico producto de una
realidad social debe tomarse en cuenta y respetar su uso
e incluirlo cuando el caso lo amerite.

19. Sería muy incorrecto y dañino usar el "Spanglish"
en el proceso educativo del estudiante. Nuestra lengua es
muy bonita para dañarla de ese modo. Debemos esforzarnos
en enseñarle a los niños el uso correcto de ella. Sería
un daño irreparable enseñar "Spanglish" a nuestros niños o
permitirle usarlo en el salon.

20. "Spanglish" es un substituto del vocabulario
nativo o del inglés. El maestro debe aceptar, inicialemente,
el hablar del alumno y, luego, presentar y reforzar, el
vocabulario apropiado para que el alumno reemplace con el,
castellano al "Spanglish". Este proceso deberá hacérselo
siempre contando con no herir la sensibilidad e inteligencia
del alumno.

20. El uso del "Spanglish" en el salón de clase no
debe permitirse, solamente debe permitirse en aquellos
casos sumamente necesarios para la comunicación con el
niño, pero debe irse eliminando tan pronto como sea
posible e insistir en que se use el español correcto.

22. Es una realidad y es necesario bregar con ella. El niño va a la escuela para aprender y mejorar su desarrollo intelectual. El idioma es parte de ese desarrollo; por lo tanto, es necesario proveerle experiencias para que lo desarrollo. En esta sociedad se funciona a base de "standards" y hay reglas para el idioma. Tan culpable es el que ignora el fenómeno como el que lo justifica.

23. Creo que al niño debe de corregírsele cuando usa palabras que no son correctas y derivados del inglés. El niño repite lo que oye y para él no es incorrecto hablar de esa forma. Es necesario que nosotros como educadores y defensores de nuestra lengua hagamos conscientes a los niños del buen uso del lenguage español.

24. Si hay que usarlo el "Spanglish" y es el único modo de comunicacion que conoces lo acepto. De lo contrario prefiero que si vas a conversar en español que te límites a usar el español y no me lo mezcles con el inglés.

25. Se debe tratar de implementar solo un idioma lo más absoluto posible. Tratar de cambiarle las expresiones al alumno que usa "Spanglish", pero sin despreciar su forma de expresión oral. Aclararle el concepto de Español e Inglés. Expresarle la importancia de tratar de usar un idioma íntegro.

26. The "Spanglish" should be used as a tool to help the student to learn both Spanish & English.

27. Debe evitarse a como sea posible y tratar de sustituirlo con un tipo de Español más universal.

28. Yo creo que si yo debe <u>comunicar</u> bien en el proceso educativo del estudiante, es necesario para mi entenderle la lengua que él mismo usa diariamente--si ésto es el "Spanglish" yo voy a hablar "Spanglish" con él. Este es mi opinión. Communication is more important to me at this point than would be pure language as such.

29. Se debe aceptar como se acepta cualquier otro dialecto o forma lingüística. No se debe ridiculizar al niño que lo use. Considerarlo algo diferente, al "Spanglish" pero no se debe enseñar en las escuelas.

30. "Spanglish" es un lenguage desarrollado de acuerdo con unas experiencias muy diferentes a esas de Puerto Rico, por ejemplo "el subway", el "hot dog". Hay que ver que es una experiencia muy diferente y que las palabras identifican el ambiente del estudiante.

31. El "Spanglish" es una via, método de comunicación que la persona utiliza por sentirse mas cómoda usando el "Spanglish.' Esto no quiere decir que esta persona no pueda comunicarse; no quiere decir que pueda hacerlo en otro idioma.

El "Spanglish" es una via de comunicación, en un proceso dinámico en el que ha abandonado las reglas más rígidas de un "idioma oficial" en busca de una necesidad; y es la de lograr comunicarse con otra persona.

A mi entender el "Spanglish" ha surgido por la falta de concocimiento de la persona, de que hay palabras reconocidas en ambos idiomas y distintas de por si, para comunicar exactamente lo que la persona ha expresado en "Spanglish."

El "Spanglish" es necesario lingüísticamente como proceso enriquecedor para la lengua.

Pedagógicamente es mi parecer que se le debe enseñar las alternativas aceptadas por las "Academias de la Lengua" "sin menospreciar por ésto el "Spanglish" y aprender y renovar aquellas palabras arcaicas y dar cabida para nuevas palabras.