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Sociolinguistics for kids: A curriculum for bilingual students

Mary Hudgens Henderson

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**SOCIOLINGUISTICS FOR KIDS:
A CURRICULUM FOR BILINGUAL STUDENTS**

By

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DISSERTATION

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Requirements for the Degree of

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ABSTRACT

Language misconceptions are still prevalent in educational settings despite half a century of linguistic research that has established all language varieties are equally effective at communication. Spanish-English bilingual students are often victims of language myths that perpetuate negative stereotypes regarding their intelligence, academic capabilities, or cultures. While sociolinguistics outreach projects have been created with native-English-speaking students in mind (Reaser, 2006; Sweetland, 2006; Wheeler & Swords, 2006), a language awareness program has yet to be created and implemented for English Language Learners. This project answers the call of previous investigators for a sociolinguistically-informed program for English Language Learners (Wolfram, 2014). Eighteen lessons following a Sociolinguistic Awareness approach were designed, implemented, and evaluated for Spanish-English bilingual 5th graders enrolled in a Dual Language program (N = 24) in the Southwest U.S. The *Language Variation and Style-Shifting* curriculum was assessed through 1) language surveys administered at four different times; 2) conversational interviews with select participants before and after the lessons were taught; and 3) field notes

collected by the researcher immediately after each lesson was taught. Treatment participants' results on the language surveys and conversational interviews are compared with those of a control group (N = 16), students enrolled in an English-only classroom, who did not participate in the lessons. Results show that Treatment participants increased their mean scores on eight out of ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items, and six out of ten Language Attitudes survey items. There was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the Treatment group students and the Control group students in Sociolinguistic Knowledge on all four language survey administrations ($p = < 0.0005$), indicating that students enrolled in Dual Language classrooms are more sociolinguistically knowledgeable than peers enrolled in English-only classrooms; superior Sociolinguistic Knowledge is likely related to superior metalinguistic awareness of bilinguals (e.g., Bialystok, Peets & Moreno, 2014) . Both boys and girls in the Treatment group increased in Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores over time, while boys and girls in the Control group decreased in Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores over time. There was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of Treatment and Control group students on Posttest2 for Language Attitudes. Treatment students and Control students had near identical Language Attitude scores at the start of the study, indicating that bilingual education programs must do more to dispel harmful myths regarding language. As the school year progressed, Control group students showed decreasing Language Attitudes scores while the Treatment group's score plateaued. Analysis by gender shows that Treatment girls increased in positive Language Attitudes, while Treatment boys' scores held mostly steady until Posttest3, when scores returned to Pretest-levels. Control boys demonstrated increasingly negative Language Attitude scores over time, and Control girls also demonstrated a decline over time until

Posttest3, when they rebounded to Pretest-levels. This study provides evidence for the effectiveness of a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum for 5th graders. All students deserve a linguistically-informed education, which can improve academic achievement, decrease instances of language bullying, and improve educational equity.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background and Statement of the Problem

Since William Labov (1963) published his research on a socially-motivated sound change on Martha's Vineyard, sociolinguists have come to accept language variation as a natural and positive fact of human language. Despite efforts by Labov and other sociolinguists to combat negative language myths (Labov, 1969), misconceptions about language remain so extensive that an entire sub-field of sociolinguistics, Perceptual Dialectology, has developed around the study of what non-linguists think about languages and dialects (e.g. Long & Preston, 1999; Niedzielski & Preston, 1999; Preston, 1989).

One language myth that continues to circulate among the public is the myth of verbal deprivation of children from socially subordinated groups. Wolfram (2004) calls this myth the *linguistic inferiority principle*: "According to this principle, the speech of a socially subordinate group will be interpreted as linguistically inadequate by comparison with that of the socially dominant group" (p. 59). In the United States, this myth has typically been directed towards the speech of poor and ethnic minorities.

The prevalence of language myths and language ideologies can be traced to the general lack of linguistic training among the public. The scientific study of language variation is absent in most K-12 curricula, and only a small fraction of teachers complete an introduction to linguistics course before they graduate. There is a long tradition of excluding language variation from formal studies; nonstandardized varieties are either studied as examples to avoid, or used as ways to represent literary characters (Wolfram, 1998c, p. 169). This dissertation research aims to combat damaging language myths such as the verbal deprivation myth by developing a sociolinguistic outreach curriculum for bilingual public

school students that promotes a positive view towards language variation. There is a dire need for such a curriculum, as the following discussion will illustrate.

As a result of this lack of linguistic awareness among the public, many people continue to blame the low academic achievement of poor and non-White students on the social and linguistic environment in which they are raised, and this blame has been reinforced by studies that conclude the language of poor people is inferior. For example, Hess and Shipman (1965) reported on the linguistic deprivation of working-class children, and more recently, Hart and Risley (2003) calculated that children in welfare families are exposed to 30 million fewer words than their middle-class peers. This deficit-oriented view of poor people's language gets circulated and re-circulated among educators and parents who look for "common-sense" explanations for low test-scores. Recently, the myth of verbal deprivation surfaced in a *National Geographic* article discussing a human baby's critical first year of development. The author cited the Hart and Risley study: "The kids in low socioeconomic families were being raised on a poor linguistic diet" (Bhattacharjee, 2015, p. 71).

Language myths are not harmless misconceptions. Research has shown that judgments regarding language are indicative of biases towards the social group that speaks a particular variety, and aesthetic preferences are commonly linked to social class or social prestige (Baugh, 2000; Grieser, 2010; Trudgill, 1975, p. 28-29, 36). Teachers, like most individuals, have linguistic biases and preferences that indicate their attitudes towards certain social groups. In fact, educators have historically regarded students who speak nonstandard and stigmatized varieties as verbally or culturally deprived, "at risk", and needing instructional remediation in the standard variety (Delpit, 1995; Labov, [1969] 1972;

Stockman, 2010, p. 24-25; Stritikus & Varghese, 2007, p. 302-303; Wolfram, 2010). The verbal deprivation myth contributes to the misdiagnosis of many poor and non-White students as linguistically underdeveloped or academically unprepared (Kea, Campbell-Whatley, & Bratton, 2003).

Language misconceptions are particularly harmful to students learning English as a second language in the United States. Few content teachers who teach English Language Learners (hereafter ELLs) are aware of the processes of second language acquisition or appropriate teaching strategies for ELLs (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Samson & Collins, 2012), and as a result, many teachers rely on their personal beliefs to guide instruction and evaluation of ELLs. Furthermore, like their vernacular-speaking peers, English Language Learners are also at risk of being misdiagnosed as learning disabled. This misdiagnosis stems from poorly designed assessments in which the language variety of the school is presented as superior in form and function (Laffey, Pearce & Steed, 2014; MacSwan & Rolstad, 2006; MacSwan, Rolstad, & Glass, 2002).

For example, there is a persistent belief among many educators that literacy represents the highest domain of language proficiency. That is, a student is not regarded as proficient in a language unless that student is on grade-level in reading and writing in the second language. In fact, many teachers believe that students who are not *literate* in their first language also lack *proficiency* in their first language (Escamilla, 2006; Valadez, MacSwan, & Martinez, 2000, p. 246). This conflation of literacy with language proficiency has led to the myth of “semilingualism”, in which a bilingual student is considered “semilingual” if she is not grade-level literate in one or both languages. Researchers have demonstrated the falseness of the “semilingual” myth (Commins & Miramontes, 1989; MacSwan, 2000;

Martin-Jones & Romaine, 1986; Valadez, MacSwan, & Martinez, 2000), although the myth persists among many educators in contact with bilingual students.

Misconceptions such as “semilingualism” can result in students being tracked into remedial or lower achieving groups, or being labeled “learning disabled”. This misdiagnosis of a student’s language abilities can have serious consequences for the student’s academic achievement and self-image (Edelsky, et al., 1983). Negative views towards the languages and language varieties of ELLs have measurable consequences, such as high drop out rates (Sheng, Sheng & Anderson, 2011), language loss of the L1 (Wong Fillmore, 1991, 2000), and over-representation in special education (MacSwan & Rolstad, 2006; MacSwan, Rolstad, & Glass, 2002). Thus, language myths, misconceptions, and ideologies have a significant role in perpetuating lack of equal educational opportunity.

Children themselves acquire and internalize language misconceptions, which can lead to negative attitudes towards certain languages or language varieties. Language attitudes have been found to impact language maintenance and language learning. Studies have found language anxiety among less proficient heritage language speakers (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Tallon, 2009; Xiao & Wong, 2014), and these negative feelings can impact language fluency (Jee, 2015; Kenny, 1996). Grosjean (1982, p. 126) noted that negative attitudes towards the heritage language could lead to language shift in the bilingual population.

Furthermore, language attitudes often change as a bilingual child gets older. Tse (1998) found that childhood and adolescence is when many Asian American students go through the second stage of ethnic identity development, characterized by ambivalence or evasion towards the native culture. This type of ethnic identity ambivalence has strong

implications for maintenance of the heritage language, since negative attitudes towards the native culture can extend to the heritage language. In fact, studies have found that younger children tend to have positive attitudes towards their native or heritage language (Cho, Shin & Krashen, 2004; Nguyen, Shin & Krashen, 2001; Shin & Lee, 2003), but as bilingual children progress through the elementary grades they often acquire an antipathy towards their native or heritage language (Oller & Eilers, 2002; Ro & Cheatham, 2009), and many begin to prefer the socially-dominant language (Ghuman, 1993; Portes & Hao, 1998). Lambert, Frankel & Tucker (1966) found that among French-Canadian girls aged 9-18 years old, preference for the dominant language (English) appears around age 12.

This development of language preference over time is important to consider in the context of bilingual education. Although many students in K-5 Dual Language programs receive instruction in both languages, the dominance of English in the school and the wider U.S. society is most certainly noticed by native Spanish-speaking students, since they are expected to transition to all-English middle and high schools. Students in K-5 bilingual programs transition to all-English instruction at precisely the life stage that corresponds to Phinney's (1993) Ethnic Identity Search, that is, when an individual seeks to understand the relationship of ethnicity to identity. The end of Spanish language instruction could influence students' attitudes towards their native and second languages; students perceive that society values English over Spanish in academics, for example.

Linguists have a moral imperative to counter language myths, misconceptions and ideologies, following Labov's (1982) *principle of error correction* and *principle of debt incurred*. Labov argued that according to the principle of error correction,

A scientist who becomes aware of a widespread idea or social practice with important consequences that is invalidated by his own data is obligated to bring this error to the attention of the widest possible audience. (Labov, 1982, p. 172)

That is, scientists have a moral obligation to attempt to alter misconceptions that they know to be untrue. In this case, it is untrue that English is superior to Spanish, and it is untrue that nonstandardized varieties of Spanish (such as Spanglish) are inferior to a standardized Spanish.

To meet these obligations to the community, modern linguistic concepts should be central components of anti-racist and multicultural education that seeks to dislodge monocultural educational paradigms (Alim, 2005; Denham & Lobeck, 2005; Devereaux, 2015; Godley & Escher, 2012; Mallinson, et al., 2011; Young, Elsner & Breidbach, 2011). Incorporating the scientific study of language variation into K-12 educational curriculum is an important first step in dismantling language myths, misconceptions and ideologies among teachers, parents and children; it is also a way for linguists to “pay back” the communities from which linguists extract data (Labov, 1982; Wolfram, 1993). Understanding the systemic and patterned nature of the language of human beings should be a vital component in achieving a deeper understanding of diversity. Indeed, the study of language variation enhances Sonia Nieto’s (2004) affirmative multicultural education model, in which students’ language and culture are used in instruction and curricula. In recent years, language awareness approaches have been advanced as a means to incorporate sociolinguistic concepts into K-12 education (Rickford, 1999; Rickford & Rickford, 1995; Smitherman, 2000; Wolfram, Adger, & Christian, 1999).

Contrastive analysis, discussed in detail in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5, is a particularly effective teaching strategy that helps students distinguish formal and informal language variants (Horton-Ikard & Pittman, 2010; Sweetland, 2006; Wheeler, 2010; Wheeler & Swords, 2006). Contrastive analysis provides an in-depth knowledge of grammatical patterning and context-induced variation that can help students to recognize and produce a standard language variety. When educators accept and value all language systems, students may be less likely to perpetuate negative stereotypes of others based on speech, and students may be more open to learning the patterns behind a language variety that differs from what is spoken at home. Once students understand the relevance of style-shifting in a non-threatening manner, the school-based language variety will take on an additive quality as opposed to a subtractive one.

Although it has been suggested that language awareness materials be developed for second language learners (Mahboob & Barratt, 2014; Wolfram, 2014), current language awareness materials available for K-12 teachers are oriented towards native English-speaking students who speak a socially stigmatized variety of English (e.g., Sweetland, 2006, West Brown, 2009; Wheeler & Swords, 2006). There is a dearth of materials that confront the unique linguistic situation and needs of ELLs, who face a quadruple challenge in understanding language variation: not only must ELLs learn and distinguish formal and informal varieties of English, they must also learn and distinguish formal and informal varieties of their native language(s). This study seeks to fill this gap in language awareness curricular materials by focusing on native Spanish-speaking ELLs in particular. By filling this research and curricular gap, it is hoped that this project contributes to providing equal

access to educational attainment among traditionally subordinated groups while fostering linguistic tolerance on a larger society-wide scale.

1.2 Purpose of the Study, Research Questions, and Delimitations

The purpose of this mixed-methods study is to create, teach and evaluate a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum for Spanish-English bilingual 5th grade students enrolled in a K-5 Dual Language program. As a continuance of efforts to bridge linguistics and education (e.g., Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2011; Denham & Lobeck, 2005, 2010; Goodman, 2003; Reaser, 2006; Sweetland, 2006; West Brown, 2009; Wheeler & Swords, 2006), this study constitutes a sociolinguistic outreach effort to the public school system, with a particular focus on bilingual students. The following research questions guided the design and analysis of the study:

1. After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade bilingual students demonstrate a change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (5 calendar months) maintenance of change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge?
2. After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade bilingual students demonstrate a change in Language Attitudes? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (5 calendar months) maintenance of change in Language Attitudes?

For this study, *Sociolinguistic Knowledge* is defined as “sociolinguistic-based knowledge regarding the systemic patterning of language varieties and the social distribution of language varieties”. *Language Attitudes* are defined as “attitudes, perceptions, and impressions towards language in general and specific language varieties”.

A brief note on terminology is pertinent here. Wheeler and Swords (2006) call their approach to teaching Standard English *code-switching*; Charity Hudley and Mallinson (2011, p. xvii) call their approach “linguistically informed ways of teaching standardized English”; Razfar and Rumenapp (2014, p. ix) offer a “sociocultural and critical approach to language and learning”; Crookes (2013) and Godley and Minnici (2008) contribute to *critical language pedagogy*. Other studies dedicated to teaching Standard English as a second dialect have been called *Bidialectalism* or *Contrastive Analysis* studies (e.g., Fogel & Ehri, 2000; Harris-Wright, 1987; Rickford & Rickford, 2007). The term *Critical Language Awareness* has been used to describe efforts that deal explicitly with issues of language and power (Alim, 2005; Fairclough, 1992), while *Dialect Awareness* has been used to describe programs that attempt to teach Standard English features and improve language attitudes without an overt critique of power structures (Reaser, 2006; Rickford, Sweetland, Rickford & Grano, 2013, p. 27-32; Sweetland, 2006). These approaches fall under what Wolfram (1998c, p. 172) calls *language awareness programs*, which may focus on language patterns, language attitudes, or pragmatic uses of language.

In acknowledging previous investigations, I include this project under the umbrella term *language awareness program*. However, I prefer the term *Sociolinguistic Awareness* for this particular project to more accurately describe the curriculum’s focus on language variation, language attitudes, and style-shifting, three prominent domains of study within sociolinguistics. I define the Sociolinguistic Awareness approach as a method of instruction that involves (1) presentation of modern sociolinguistic concepts, (2) careful analysis of language myths, (3) community language investigation, and (4) contrastive analysis between dominant and non-dominant language features. A more detailed description of the studies

and curricula that informed the Sociolinguistic Awareness approach is presented in Chapter 2, while a description of the curriculum designed for this study is detailed in Chapter 3.

This mixed-method study focused on a K-5 elementary school in the urban southwest United States. Potential participants were recruited from two intact 5th grade classrooms that served as the two experimental conditions: a Dual Language classroom served as the Treatment condition (receiving the Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons) and an English-medium classroom served as the Control condition (and did not receive Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons).

The study followed a quasi-experimental Pre-Posttest design in which Treatment students participated in a pretest, followed by the 18 Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons developed for this study by the researcher (the methodology of the study is discussed in detail in Chapter 5). Treatment students then completed three posttests spread out over the remainder of the school year. The results of the data from the Treatment participants were compared with a group of comparable students (“Control group”) who did not participate in the lessons.

The study used quantitative and qualitative methods to collect and analyze data. Quantitative data was collected via a paper Likert-type survey that was administered at four different time points to both Treatment and Control participants: before the Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum was taught (Pretest), immediately at the end of lessons (Posttest1), thirty days after the end of lessons (Posttest2), and five calendar months after the end of lessons (Posttest3). Qualitative data was collected via (1) field notes in the form of lesson reflections generated after the teaching of the lessons by the researcher, and (2)

conversational interviews with a select group of participants from both groups conducted immediately after the Pretest and Posttest1.

Quantitative data generated from the Likert-type surveys was analyzed through the Mixed ANOVA statistical procedure and by the comparison of mean scores across pre- and posttests. Qualitative data generated from conversational interviews were coded for themes and are discussed with the relevant survey items.

The study investigated whether a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum for Spanish-English bilingual students improved the Sociolinguistic Knowledge and/or Language Attitudes of the students, as measured by the 20-item Likert-type survey designed for this study. This study was limited to creating, implementing and evaluating a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum for 5th grade Spanish-English bilingual students in the southwest United States. Results obtained from this study may not be applicable to monolingual students, bilingual students who are not speakers of Spanish, or students of other grades. Due to the low sample size ($N = 40$), it cannot be argued that results are generalizable to a larger population, or that these results are representative of Spanish-English bilingual students in United States. The study did not investigate if this Sociolinguistic Awareness intervention resulted in higher academic test scores. Recommendations for further research are discussed in Chapter 8. Despite these limitations, it is hoped that this study contributes to the increased involvement of sociolinguistics in affirmative multicultural education for English Language Learners.

1.3 Importance of the Study

A study such as this one is important to carry out for several reasons. First, as was pointed out at the start of the chapter, language ideologies and language myths are still very

prevalent, and furthermore, these misconceptions cause measurable and immeasurable harm to students who do not speak a standard language variety, or a socially prestigious language. The harm to students can range from the reproduction of social and linguistic stereotypes, to linguistic profiling (Baugh, 2000), to language shift (Grosjean, 1982; Wong Fillmore, 1991), or to a negative impact on the desire to succeed academically in a mainstream culture that devalues their own cultural and linguistic identities. Research has found that children as young as seven years old use evaluative expressions towards language (Millar, 2003). Therefore, curricula that debunk harmful language misconceptions are an important first step in contesting and reversing the wider circulation of these misconceptions.

Secondly, native Spanish-speaking students in the United States deserve the special attention of linguists who study the linguistic diversity of humans. As the largest linguistic minority in the United States (Shin & Kominski, 2010), Spanish-speakers are in a position to leverage recognition of their linguistic and cultural needs. Spanish-speaking students in the United States not only have need of bilingual education programs, but also linguistically-sensitive curricula that take into account their particular varieties of Spanish.

Thirdly, the language and culture of minority students deserve to be considered worthy of study in all classrooms, not merely as a “bridge” to mainstream topics of study (Alim, 2005, p. 28). The curriculum created for this study attempts to address the cultural and linguistic realities of bilingual students by examining common ideologies around English and Spanish. Therefore, this study represents an important contribution to a multicultural education model that affirms, not merely tolerates, linguistic diversity.

Finally, our society must acknowledge that educational failures of non-mainstream students are not due to inherent characteristics of the students themselves, but instead to the

problematic way that the educational system teaches these students (Wolfram, 1998a).

Therefore, it is in the best interest of these students, and society as a whole, to create and implement instructional programs that are culturally and linguistically relevant.

Increasing sociolinguistic awareness among students also serves as the basis for developing a critical stance that examines the privileging of one language or language variety over another. Students may eventually recognize that communication about academic topics does not have to occur in a standardized dialect; i.e., it is only social convention that requires discussion of academic topics in a standardized dialect. This means that there are no inherent linguistic features about a standardized dialect that makes it superior for academic discussions, and furthermore, academic discussions can take place in any dialect. This type of critical questioning can lead to greater societal change, such as an overhaul of testing measures that actually test proficiency in a standard dialect as opposed to content knowledge (cf. Valdés & Figueroa, 1994), and the dissemination of nonfiction and academic literature written in language varieties that have been previously viewed as unacceptable means of conveyance of these topics¹. By increasing sociolinguistic knowledge and improving language attitudes, students may feel less threatened by dominant school culture. Ultimately, students should not feel the need to choose between the home language variety and the school language variety in order to feel welcome at school or to succeed academically.

1.4 Organization of the Dissertation

The current section provides the reader with an outline of the rest of this work.

Chapter 2, *Sociolinguistic Outreach Projects*, provides an overview of previous research on the incorporation of sociolinguistic instruction into K-12 schools for students

¹ cf. work by Geneva Smitherman, Samy Alim, and Gloria Anzaldúa.

learning Standard English as a second dialect. The chapter explains the unique needs of English Language Learners, and gives a description of the contrastive analysis technique and previous curricula that inform the Sociolinguistic Awareness approach adopted here.

Chapter 3, *Development of the Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders curriculum*, explains the design of the curriculum used for this study. The chapter gives a detailed overview of the teacher's guide and student workbook. Also described is the language survey, which was used as both the summative assessment for the curriculum, and the pre and posttests for the research study.

Chapter 4, *Profile of the research participants and research site*, explains the sampling procedure for the study, provides a description of the research participants and site, and gives a rationale for the selection of fifth-graders for the focus of the study.

Chapter 5, *Methodology and research design*, describes the design of the study and the role of the researcher. This chapter also discusses data collection methods and how the data were analyzed, as well as strengths and limitations to the research design.

Chapter 6, *Sociolinguistic Knowledge results*, presents the results of the Sociolinguistic Knowledge dimension of the language survey, as well as relevant lesson reflections and excerpts from conversational interviews with students. Treatment students had higher Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores than their Control peers on all four surveys (a statistically significant difference, $p < 0.05$). A gender analysis showed the Treatment boys demonstrated the higher Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores than their female peers, who trailed them closely throughout the study. Control boys demonstrated the lowest Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores, and there was much variation within the Control girls' scores.

Chapter 7, *Language Attitude results*, presents the results of the Language Attitudes dimension of the language survey, as well as relevant lesson reflections and excerpts from conversational interviews with students. The Treatment students and Control students began the study with near-identical Language Attitudes. However, over the course of the study, the Control students' Language Attitudes scores began to drop, while the Treatment students' Language Attitudes scores showed a slight gain. A gender analysis showed that Treatment girls were responsible for the increase in Language Attitudes scores, while Treatment boys mostly maintained their scores. Control boys continued to show more negative Language Attitudes scores, while Control girls improved their scores at the very end of the study.

Chapter 8, *Conclusions and recommendations for future research*, summarizes the major findings of the study. The chapter presents recommendations for improvement of the curriculum designed for this study based on the findings, and also provides recommendations for future research.

1.5 Definition of Terms

Accent: This term refers to dialectal differences based on pronunciation, i.e. phonological differences in speakers.

Dialect: A term applied to what are considered varieties of a single language. Dialects differ in grammatical structure (syntax, morphology), phonology, and lexical items due to historical, social, or geographical reasons.

Dialect Awareness: “In the United States, the term *dialect awareness* has been more widely used to refer to efforts to sensitize students, teachers, and the general public to language variation” (Rickford, Sweetland, Rickford & Grano, 2013, p. 28).

ELL: English Language Learner; a learner of English as an additional language.

Formal language: A language variety used usually in formal, academic, or official contexts.

Informal language: A language variety used usually in informal, casual, or social contexts.

Language: A human system of communication that uses arbitrary signals, such as voice sounds, gestures, or written symbols.

<http://grammar.about.com/od/il/g/languageterm.htm>

Language attitudes: For this study, defined as attitudes, perceptions, and impressions towards language in general and specific language varieties.

Language Variety: This term refers to any variation of a language that differs from other language varieties for social, historical, or geographical reasons. A neutral alternative for “language” and “dialect”.

Prescriptivism: The attitude or belief that one variety of a language is superior to others and should be promoted as such, characterized by a concern for "good," "proper," or "correct" usage. <http://grammar.about.com/od/pq/g/prescriptivismterm.htm>

Sociolinguistic Knowledge: For this study, defined as knowledge regarding the systemic patterning of language varieties and the social distribution of language varieties.

Sociolinguistics: The study of language in use, language in society. The field of sociolinguistics may encompass research in discourse analysis, studies of interaction, sociology, anthropology, cultural studies, feminism, etc. It can also be used much more restrictively to only refer to variationist studies in the Labovian tradition (Meyerhoff, 2011). <http://cw.routledge.com/textbooks/meyerhoff/glossary.asp>

Standard: A variety of a language, which by virtue of historical preference, has become the leading form of the language in a certain country. As a result of this, the standard may be expanded due to the increase in function that it experiences due to its position in

society. There is nothing inherently superior about a standard although nearly all speakers of a community accept that it has highest prestige. <https://www.uni-due.de/ELE/LinguisticGlossary.html#GlossG>

Style-shifting: Variation in an individual's speech correlating with differences in addressee, social context, personal goals or externally imposed task (Meyerhoff, 2011).

<http://cw.routledge.com/textbooks/meyerhoff/glossary.asp>

Vernacular: Refers neutrally to the linguistic variety used by a speaker or a community as the medium for everyday and home interaction (Meyerhoff, 2011).

<http://cw.routledge.com/textbooks/meyerhoff/glossary.asp>

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This review of the literature explores previous research that investigates the communicative needs of students who learn a standard language variety in school settings. First I discuss the linguistic needs of English Language Learners, who are exposed to multiple English varieties but who are expected to master only one specific variety for academic purposes. I make the case that ELL students have distinct communicative needs that are not met when educators assume English is a monolithic unchanging entity. Second I discuss the efforts in sociolinguistics to modify attitudes towards language variation, specifically through contrastive analysis research. Third I discuss language awareness curricula that have fostered positive gains for students who receive explicit instruction in how language patterns differ. In the discussion of the following curriculum, I point out the applicability of linguistically informed education for vernacular speakers and English Language Learners. Finally I discuss how language awareness curricula can benefit English Language Learners in their acquisition of both formal and informal varieties of English.

2.1 Linguistic Needs of English Language Learners

There were an estimated 4.4 million students designated as English Language Learners in school year 2011-2012, constituting approximately 9% of the total student K-12 population in the United States. A persistent gap in educational achievement between ELL and non-ELL students remains (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2014), despite the national-level educational reforms that have occurred since at least the 1980s²

² Recent reforms movements include reports asserting that US children were underachieving (*A Nation At Risk*, 1983), legislation intended to raise achievement expectations (*Goals 2000*, 1994; *No Child Left Behind*, 2002) and funding initiatives designed to spur top-down reforms (*Race To The Top*, 2009).

ELLs are enrolled in various types of educational programs, ranging from monolingual immersion programs to bilingual education programs that promote biliteracy (Baker, 2006, p. 214-226). Whether the language outcome is monolingualism or bilingualism, all program models expect ELLs to become proficient in English.

However, English is not a monolithic entity. English is a global language (Crystal, 1997), and it exists along a continuum of standard varieties, nonstandard varieties, pidgins, and creole varieties. Linguists themselves disagree on the exact definitions of *language* and *dialect*, and many prefer the term *language variety* to avoid negative connotations associated with the term *dialect* (Penny, 2000; Trudgill, 2000; Wolfram, 1998a; Wolfram, Adger & Christian, 1999, p. 3; Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006).

In school settings, standard forms of English have been called various names such as formal English, Academic English, proper English, educated English, or correct English (Wigglesworth & Billington, 2013). Schools typically seek to impose a version of “correct” English onto students, typically using a “you know it when you see it” approach to identifying this variety (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2011; Crowley, 2003, p. 112). Charity Hudley & Mallinson (2011) disprefer the term *standard* because it suggests there is a single coherent variety that exists irrespective of social norms, registers, or contexts; instead, they call the type of English taught in schools “standardized” English or School English.

In educational circles, the distinction between an academic register and an informal register has traditionally been called BICS and CALP, following Cummins’ (1979) description of ELL acquisition needs. BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) refer to conversational fluency and academic register fluency, respectively. Cummins (1980) argued that educators of bilingual

children mistook conversational fluency for overall proficiency, and as a result, ELL students were erroneously placed in remediation programs. Cummins found that bilingual children reached conversation fluency within two years, but academic register fluency took five to seven years.

CALP is often equated with Standard English. Mastery of this upper-middle class language variety is associated with advanced cognitive abilities, despite the fact that the definition of cognitive abilities is socio-culturally based (Aukerman, 2007). When students take tests that assess content knowledge, they are also inadvertently being tested in their command of Standard English. If students fail to demonstrate mastery of this language variety, it is interpreted as poor content knowledge or low cognitive abilities.

While ELLs must master academic registers for school-related tasks, they also must be able to communicate in socially informal contexts with peers. Many school programs do not take into account the entire range of communicative needs of ELLs, which includes the socially informal dimension of English. In reality, ELLs acquire at least two varieties of English at the same time: School English, used in academic registers, and the local peer-based English variety, often used in informal contexts. Each has its own distinctive rules, patterns, and communication styles (Au, 1991; Delpit, 1992; Heath, 1983; White, 2007, 2011). However, ELLs may not be aware that the varieties are distinct and require separate lexical, syntactic, and pragmatic features. Furthermore, educators and parents in the community may actively stigmatize the local peer-based variety. In turn, students may feel alienated by unfamiliar discourse patterns and decline to participate in class (White, 2011).

Students must master both academic and conversational registers, but they must also know when to switch between the two varieties. Therefore, part of language acquisition is

learning to use language appropriately according to the context. Register switching may encompass dialect switching as well; i.e., students may be switching into a completely different dialect when they switch into an academic register. Register selection may be one of the greatest barriers for appropriate language use in the classroom (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2011, p. 33).

Hence, ELLs enrolled in bilingual education programs are faced with a triple challenge of language acquisition: not only do they need to master academic and informal varieties of English, they also must acquire an academic variety of the L1 that is often distinct from the home variety. It is important for students and educators to distinguish the two varieties of both languages in order to avoid misconceptions of semilingualism, and to avoid a perennial classification of “English Language Learner” (cf. Schmida, 2004).

It is clear that ELL students do not speak a monolithic first language and do not acquire a monolithic second language. Therefore, curricula designed for teaching a second language must take into account both language variation and the need to master both formal and informal varieties.

2.2 Contrastive Analysis

Educators have historically regarded students who speak nonstandard or stigmatized varieties as verbally or culturally deprived, “at risk”, or needing instructional remediation in the standard variety (Rubdy, 2007). In reality, students may come to school lacking proficiency in a *privileged* variety, but with an abundance of proficiency in a *stigmatized* variety.

As a result of the general public’s misconceptions of language variation, sociolinguists have made attempts to combat negative attitudes towards certain language

varieties, including testifying in legal cases³, publishing books for broad audiences⁴, and creating linguistically informed instruction for K-12 and college students. William Labov was a prominent figure in early efforts to discredit the supposed verbal deprivation of nonstandard-speaking children. Labov ([1969] 1972) argued that “the concept of verbal deprivation has no basis in social reality”, demonstrating that AAVE follows documented patterns. He showed that a child who may be considered verbally deprived by people unfamiliar with language variation could demonstrate a wide vocabulary, advanced grammatical structure, and oral narrative coherence.

Labov ([1969] 1972) claimed that the verbal deprivation myth diverted attention away from the real defects of the educational system, while creating imaginary defects of the child. Other researchers have argued that systemic racism and inadequate educational responses towards linguistic and cultural minority students are what alienates students from school culture, inadvertently encouraging low academic performance (Auckerman, 2007; Commins & Miramontes, 1989; Irving & Hudley, 2005; Shannon & Escamilla, 1999; Snell, 2013; Strand, 2011; West Brown, 2006). Wolfram (1998a) noted that socio-educational inequities are perpetuated in the educational system when dialect diversity is ignored or treated as an aberration.

To combat the perpetuation of educational inequities regarding vernacular-speaking students, researchers have advocated a contrastive analysis approach to teaching the standard variety (Greene & Walker, 2004; Hagemann, 2001; Rickford, 1999; Sato, 1989). Contrastive

³ E.g., Geneva Smitherman helped organize experts to testify in *Martin Luther King Junior Elementary School Children vs. Ann Arbor School District Board* in 1979; see Smitherman & Baugh, 2002.

⁴ E.g., John Baugh’s *Beyond Ebonics* (2000), H. Samy Alim & Geneva Smitherman’s *Articulate While Black* (2012), Deborah Tannen’s *You Just Don’t Understand* (1990), Walt Wolfram & Natalie Schilling-Estes’ *Hoi Toide on the Outer Banks* (1997).

analysis aims to increase the use of standard features in academic contexts, by way of explicit instruction in comparing and contrasting language features (Rickford, 2002, p. 36).

Contrastive analysis typically uses exercises such as translation, discrimination, and identification drills to point out language differences (Feigenbaum, 1970; Rickford, 2001). For example, in a translation exercise, a teacher provides a stimulus of “Jesse truck is red”, and the student is expected to translate the sentence to “Jesse’s truck is red” (*Standard English Proficiency Handbook*, cited in Rickford, 2001, p. 275). Another example of the contrastive analysis approach is a discrimination task, in which students pull sentence strips from a box and place them in the pocket of the correct category (Los Angeles Unified School District, n.d., p. 108).

Research in contrastive analysis has found that it can improve reading level (Simpkins & Simpkins, 1981), increase writing skills (Fogel & Ehri, 2000; Sweetland, 2006; Taylor, 1989; Yiakoumetti, 2006), and improve attitudes towards dialect variation (Godley & Minnici, 2008; Politzer & Hoover, 1974). For example, in Chicago, Taylor (1989) conducted a Bidialectalism project with college-level African-American students using a contrastive analysis and dialogic approach. She found a reduction in African American Vernacular English features in students’ formal writing after eleven weeks. In a similar study, Pandey (2000) used contrastive analysis techniques in a 6-week intensive college composition course, and found that the AAVE-speaking students demonstrated more relaxed attitudes and improved performance on the TOEFL. It bears repeating that elimination of vernacular features is not the goal of Bidialectalism and language awareness projects; instead, expansion of one’s linguistic repertoire is the goal.

Studies with K-12 students have focused on production of the standard variety for academic tasks. Fogel and Ehri (2000) found that 3rd and 4th grade students who received exposure to the standard dialect through listening, explicit instruction of standard dialect patterns, and guided practice in sentence-translation tasks increased their use of standard variety features in their writing. Sweetland (2006) created a linguistically informed unit targeting the writing skills of African-American children, which presented sociolinguistic concepts using children's literature and hands-on activities. Sweetland found children increased their writing efficacy in Standard English, and teachers' language attitudes toward AAVE also improved. In Cyprus, Yiakoumetti (2006) found that participants were better able to distinguish features from two Greek varieties in written modes after receiving contrastive instruction in the local dialect and the standard dialect of Greek.

Contrastive analysis can also be used to implement culturally response teaching (Greene & Walker, 2004; Hagemann, 2001; Rickford, 1999, 2002; Rickford & Rickford, 1995; Sato, 1989). For example, Godley and Minnici (2008) conducted a weeklong unit on language variation with 10th grade students. During the lessons, students critiqued language ideologies, became conscious of code switching, and viewed dialect variation as natural and desirable. Siegel (2006) argued that dialect awareness approaches have the potential to change teacher and student attitudes towards language variation, increase motivation, and increase the ability of student to *notice* language differences, which is necessary for language acquisition (cf. Schmidt, 1990, 1993).

Due to the favorable results of contrastive analysis with students who speak a vernacular language variety, it is likely that a contrastive analysis approach is applicable to ELLs. In fact, there are some parallels between vernacular-speaking children and ELLs. Both

vernacular-speaking children and ELLs already speak a systematic and patterned primary language, and both groups are expected to master the local standard language variety. However, ELLs and vernacular-speaking students do not have the same starting points (Clachar, 2004; Nero, 1997, 2006). For example, Creole speakers have a similar lexicon with Standard English but different morphological and syntactic systems; typically, ELLs do not have a lexical overlap between L1 and English (Clachar, 2004, p. 161-162). For this reason, it is important to acknowledge the different language skills of ELLs and Standard English learners, which translate to different, albeit similar, needs.

In summary, ELLs can benefit from language awareness instruction that incorporates contrastive analysis techniques for both L1 and L2. The next section offers a brief overview of language awareness curricula and materials currently available in K-12 schools that intend to increase Standard English mastery for vernacular-speaking students and/or improve language attitudes towards historically stigmatized language varieties. These programs will be reviewed briefly in order to gain a picture of what type of instruction is currently being implemented, and what remains to be done.

2.3 Language Awareness Curricula

The creation of language awareness curricula to sensitize students and educators to language variation has formed part of sociolinguistics outreach efforts (Wolfram, 1998a; Wolfram, Reaser, & Vaughn, 2008). There are several programs in K-12 public schools in the United States that attempt to meet the linguistic needs of students who do not speak a standard language variety natively.

Most programs use a dialect awareness approach and/or contrastive analysis techniques in teaching Standard English. In Los Angeles, the *Academic English Mastery*

Program asks students to translate their dialect to the standard using an “equal but different” philosophy (cf. LeMoine & Hollie, 2007; Williams, 2011). In 1998, test results showed a statistical difference between program participants and control students in writing, indicating the success of the program in teaching an academic use of English to vernacular-speaking students (Maddahian & Sandamela, 2000). However, a follow-up report in 2001 found low levels of contrastive analysis implementation by teachers (Ai, 2002), indicating the need for ongoing support of language awareness programs in order to sustain success.

A language awareness program currently being piloted in certain California high schools is the SKILLS (School Kids Investigating Language in Life and Society) project from the University of California in Santa Barbara⁵. Lesson topics include slang, language variation, and linguicism. For example, a lesson used in one high school classroom⁶ presented a situation in which the Pledge of Allegiance was read in Arabic. Students split into groups, role-playing as school administrators, as parents angered by the use of Arabic, or as parents who support the use of Arabic. The student groups prepare arguments for or against the use of Arabic in the Pledge of Allegiance. After participating in this role-play debate, students respond in reflective journals about this debate experience. Materials developed for the SKILLS project have been used in a 20-week curriculum, for a weekly after-school program, and for a college preparation program.

Another program using a contrastive analysis approach is the *Bidialectal Communication Program* in DeKalb County School System in Decatur, Georgia. Since the late 1980s, the DeKalb County School System has operated a bidialectal program for students who are learning Standard English in school (Harris-Wright, 1987; Siegel, 2007, p.

⁵ <http://www.skills.ucsb.edu>

⁶ 2015 San Marcos High School Class 2 Lesson 19 Linguicism in History and Schools.

69). Funded through Title I⁷, the program attempts to create awareness of diverse communication styles and the importance of using Standard English to communicate in wider societal settings (Harris-Wright, 1999, p. 55). A special focus is placed on the pragmatics of different communication styles in addition to a contrastive analysis approach; the additive philosophy of the program ensures that students do not feel they must abandon the language of the home (ibid, p. 59).

A fourth program that incorporates explicit structural instruction is the *Caribbean Academic Program* in Evanston Township High School, Illinois. The program promotes positive attitudes towards Caribbean language varieties and uses a contrastive analysis approach to teach the differences between Creole and Standard English (Menecker, 1998, Siegel, 2006). In 2004, the program enrolled about 80 students, most of who were of Jamaican origin. In this school district, Jamaican Creole speakers are ineligible for bilingual programs because they come from an English-speaking country. Before the program was created, unfamiliarity with Standard American English resulted in many students being erroneously placed in remedial classes (Thissen, 2004; see also Pratt-Johnson, 1993, p. 260-261). The *Caribbean Academic Program* is classified as a program for speakers of an immigrant language; that is, Creole speakers are not considered native speakers of English (Fischer, 1992a, p. 99; Menecker, 1998). This distinction communicates to students that Creole and Standard English have separate structures that must be learned, and avoids the perception of Creole as “broken English” (Fischer, 1992a, p. 103). In addition to discussing language history and language policy issues, students write short essays in Creole, read

⁷ Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965) provides special funds for schools that serve a high proportion (40% or more) of low-income students.

Caribbean literature, and do two-way translations (Fischer, 1992a, p. 107-109). Fischer (1992b) reports positive academic gains for students enrolled in the program.

The state of New York also recommends contrastive analysis for Creole speakers. Students who speak Caribbean English Creole receive specialized instructional attention that is similar to English as a Second Language approaches and techniques. The state encourages educators to recognize that unfamiliarity with Standard American English does not constitute a language deficit or language disorder; only students who do not demonstrate proficiency in oral speech habits of the home community are assessed for a possible language disorder (Ruiz, Latortue, & Rosefort, n.d., p. 25). Oral proficiency in Creole is classified as BICS, while mastery in Standard American English is classified as CALP. Educators are explicitly encouraged to take on an additive philosophy to teaching Standard American English, and the New York State Education Department recommends that Creole-speaking students get double periods of English Language Development instruction until grade-level proficiency targets are met. The Education Department recommends cooperative learning, contrastive analysis between the Creole language and Standard American English, and Sheltered English approaches to teaching Caribbean students school-based English. It is also recommended that educators incorporate Caribbean literature and culture into classroom lessons.

Language awareness materials have also been developed for Pidgin (also known as Hawai'ian Creole) by Christina Higgins at the University of Hawai'i. A teacher's guide, available online⁸, includes activities for high school and college age students on determining grammatical accuracy of Pidgin sentences, comparing Pidgin grammar with English grammar, and explanations of sociolinguistic terms such as *slang*, *dialect* and *jargon*. For

⁸ <http://sls.hawaii.edu/Pidgin/materialsForEducators.php>

example, one activity (p. 25 of the Teacher's Manual) asks students to translate from Pidgin to English, or from English to Pidgin (Example 2.1 below):

Example 2.1: Pidgin translation exercise			
Pidgin	How many words?	English	How many words?
We wen walk.	3		

In this example, students should translate the Pidgin sentence to English “we walked”, which has two words. The objective of this activity is not only to practice translations between the two languages, but also to debunk the myth that Pidgin is more direct or does not involve as many words as English.

Another program that considers home language patterns of students is *The Reading Road*, part of the Penn Reading Initiative of the University of Pennsylvania. While it does not use contrastive analysis per se, the program was developed for African American students in inner-city schools who have reading difficulties. Designed for 2nd to 5th graders who are below grade-level in reading, *The Reading Road* uses themes and style familiar and interesting to students from inner-city neighborhoods. The focus is on building familiarity with sound-to-letter correspondences in Standard English, such as consonant clusters and r-controlled vowels (Penn Reading Initiative, 2009).

Other linguistically-informed programs have focused primarily on developing positive language attitudes and extending linguistic knowledge. Wolfram and his colleagues have regularly taught lessons relating to Ocracoke Brogue (Wolfram, Adger, & Detwyler, 1992; Wolfram, Schilling-Estes, & Hazen, 1994). Using an inductive scientific inquiry process, students formulate hypotheses and test the hypotheses based on language data (Wolfram & Friday, 1997). For example, a lesson on a-prefixing presents students with two

lists of sentences, one in which the a-prefix may appear and the other in which it may not appear (example 2.2). A-prefixing is a speech pattern in which the prefix *a-* attaches to a verbal form *-ing* (example 1b), often found in Appalachian English varieties (Christian et al., 1988). However, the a-prefix does not attach to gerunds (nouns formed with the *-ing* suffix, example 2.2a below).

Example 2.2: a-prefixing exercise (Wolfram, 1993):

a) The man likes sailing.

b) The man went sailing.

Students use the data and their intuitions to determine the extent of the a-prefix pattern. The goal of these lessons is to replace misconceptions and stereotypes with informed knowledge regarding language variation (Wolfram & Friday, 1997).

Another language awareness program that seeks to improve student attitudes through increasing sociolinguistic knowledge is the *Voices of North Carolina* social studies unit for 8th graders. This unit details the linguistic variation of North Carolina and introduces dialectal patterns to students (Reaser, 2006; Reaser & Wolfram, 2007). Reaser (2006) found that the lessons improved student attitudes towards dialect diversity, and at the end of the unit many students believed knowledge of dialect variation to be important.

Language awareness programs are not limited to the United States. In fact, vernacular education programs have been implemented in Australia (Siegel, 2006, 2007, Mulder, 2010), Fiji (Rao & Harrington, 1997), American Samoa (Huebner, 1986), Papua New Guinea (Siegel, 1997a, 1997b), and Cyprus (Yiakoumetti, 2006, 2007). Siegel (2007) reports that three creole languages are used in national instruction programs: Seselwa in the Seychelles Islands, Haitian Creole in Haiti, and Papiamentu in the Netherland Antilles (p. 67-68).

Implementing pluralist, respectful language education is important for all languages and cultures worldwide. Many countries have speakers of indigenous varieties in addition to large populations of immigrant students in the process of learning the socially dominant variety. Therefore, linguistically-informed curricula that incorporate contrastive analysis techniques may be beneficial to vernacular-speaking students and L2 students regardless of the L1 and L2 (or D1 and D2).

Several practitioner-oriented publications offer guidance for implementing linguistically-informed lessons and contrastive analysis in primary and secondary classrooms. For instance, West Brown (2009) introduces the various functions of *like*, from preposition to conjunction to quotative to discourse marker. He offers several lessons intended to teach students how *like* functions in Standard English and informal varieties. Similar to West Brown's approach, Wheeler and Swords (2006) report success with a code-switching approach to help students notice differences and similarities between AAVE and Standard English. They recommend using the scientific method to have students collect data, look for a pattern, describe the pattern, and refine the description of the pattern (ibid, p. 76). Charity Hudley and Mallinson (2011, p. 56) recommend emphasizing "different patterns" as opposed to "correct" or "incorrect" English. They also recommend asking students to conduct community surveys regarding lexical variation (ibid, p. 66).

In sum, much of the research focusing on contrastive analysis techniques has focused on the linguistic situation and needs of students who speak a socially stigmatized language variety. Likewise, many of the practitioner-oriented publications offer suggestions specifically for students who use African American Vernacular English language patterns. The attention to African American Vernacular English is justified given previous public

controversies regarding “Ebonics” instruction (Baugh, 2000). Many of the teaching recommendations apply to students who do not yet produce the local standard variety, regardless of the home variety.

Despite the division between bidialectal programs and second language programs, English Language Learners can benefit from instruction that links dialect diversity in their first language to dialect diversity in their second language. In fact, this may help dispel the *commonality myth*, which assumes that a dialect-neutral version of the second language exists (Wolfram & Friday, 1997). The next section discusses the implications that sociolinguistic outreach has for teaching language variation to ELLs.

2.4 Implications for ELLs

English Language Learners have multiple communicative needs that are not met when educators assume English is a single monolithic variety. ELLs must navigate both formal and informal contexts that require a range of lexical, morphosyntactic, and pragmatic styles. While contrastive analysis techniques have been implemented within language awareness curricula specifically tailored for students who speak a vernacular variety, these approaches have yet to be applied to students who must distinguish informal and academic registers in two languages.

It is clear that sociolinguistic outreach efforts can extend into the realm of second language acquisition. Like vernacular-speaking students, many English Language Learners speak a first language that is not valued as highly as English, and they are expected to master Standard English in order to demonstrate academic proficiency. Awareness of language variation within English, coupled with a critical look at language ideologies, can complement ELL students’ understanding of the language they are expected to master. The next chapter

discusses the design of the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders* curriculum, which was informed by the research in contrastive analysis and language awareness curricula reviewed above.

Chapter 3: Development of the Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders Curriculum

This chapter describes the development of the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders (LVSS)* curriculum designed for this study. First, the content, scope and sequence of the curriculum are discussed, along with how the curriculum met English Language Arts standards for fifth grade. Next, the teacher manual and student workbook are described, along with the materials used in the lessons. Finally, the design of the summative assessment language survey is discussed, and how the survey aligns with the curriculum lessons.

3.1 Determining Content, Scope and Sequence

The content selection and sequence of the LVSS curriculum was guided by previous language awareness research (e.g. Reaser & Adger, 2007, described in Chapter 2) in addition to current standards in 5th grade Language Arts (§3.2). Language awareness curricula typically contain three components: (1) a tolerance component that builds respect for different language varieties; (2) a sociolinguistic component that explains language variation and core sociolinguistic concepts; and (3) a contrastive analysis component that gives students explicit compare/contrast practice between home and school language varieties (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2011; Wolfram, 1998c; Wolfram, Adger, & Christian, 1999), as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

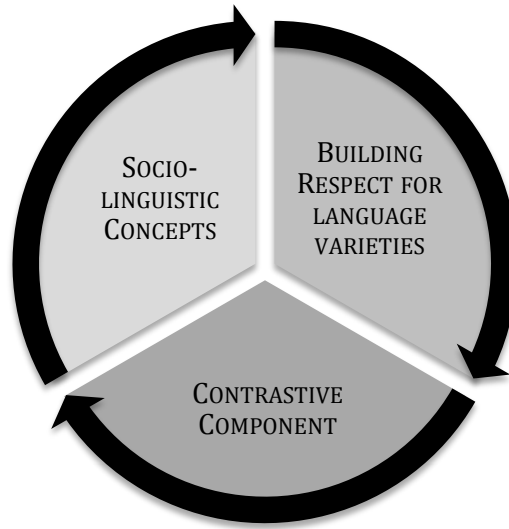


Figure 3.1 Three Components to a Language Awareness Unit

The LVSS unit interwove the three components throughout the eighteen lessons, which were divided into four weeks of instruction. The first week addressed specific sociolinguistic concepts, such as the definitions of terms *language* and *dialect*. The second week addressed language discrimination, making students aware of language bias as well as the concept of linguistic equality: all languages varieties are equal in that they fulfill the communication needs for the speech community. The third week stressed the importance of *style-shifting*, or the need for speakers to match their language according to audience, context, and task. The fourth week was dedicated to explicitly comparing and contrasting standard dialects and other language varieties, practice style-shifting to an academic variety of language, and a reflection on what students have learned about language variation and style-shifting. Table 3.1 below details which lessons addressed the specific components.

Table 3.1: Unit Components and Lessons

<i>Component</i>	<i>Lesson</i>
Sociolinguistic Concepts	<i>Week One:</i>
	W1D1: Language versus Dialect
	W1D2: Vocabulary differences in dialects
	W1D3: Pronunciation differences in dialects
	W1D4: Grammar differences in dialects
	<i>Week Two:</i>
	W2D1: Language change over time (Lord's Prayer)
	<i>Week Three:</i>
	W3D1: Introduction to Style-shifting
	W3D2: Contrasting formal and informal language
	W3D3: The standard dialect
	W3D4: President Obama's English in two situations
Building Respect	<i>Week Two:</i>
	W2D2: Language change over time: Appendix Probi
	W2D3: Assumptions about speakers
	W2D4: Linguistic variation in the classroom
	<i>Week Five:</i>
Contrastive Analysis	W5D2: Reflection
	<i>Week Four:</i>
	W4D1: Question formation in English and Spanish
	W4D2: Spanglish verbs versus Standard Spanish verbs
	W4D3: Informal contractions in English
	W4D4: "Translating" math word problems
	<i>Week Five:</i>
	W5D1: Shifting from informal to formal language

While categorized for simplicity, in reality many of the lessons addressed more than just one component. For example, the twelfth lesson, W3D4 (Week 3 Day 4), asked students to listen to President Obama speaking in two different contexts: first, in a public speech accepting the presidency in 2008, and second, ordering food in a hamburger restaurant (see Figure 3.2). This lesson was designed to illustrate the concept of style-shifting, but it was also intended to reinforce the idea that formal language was not superior to informal

language, a concept that appeared in previous lessons. In sum, the lessons were designed to use the previous lessons' knowledge in order to meet the current objective and prepare for later lessons.

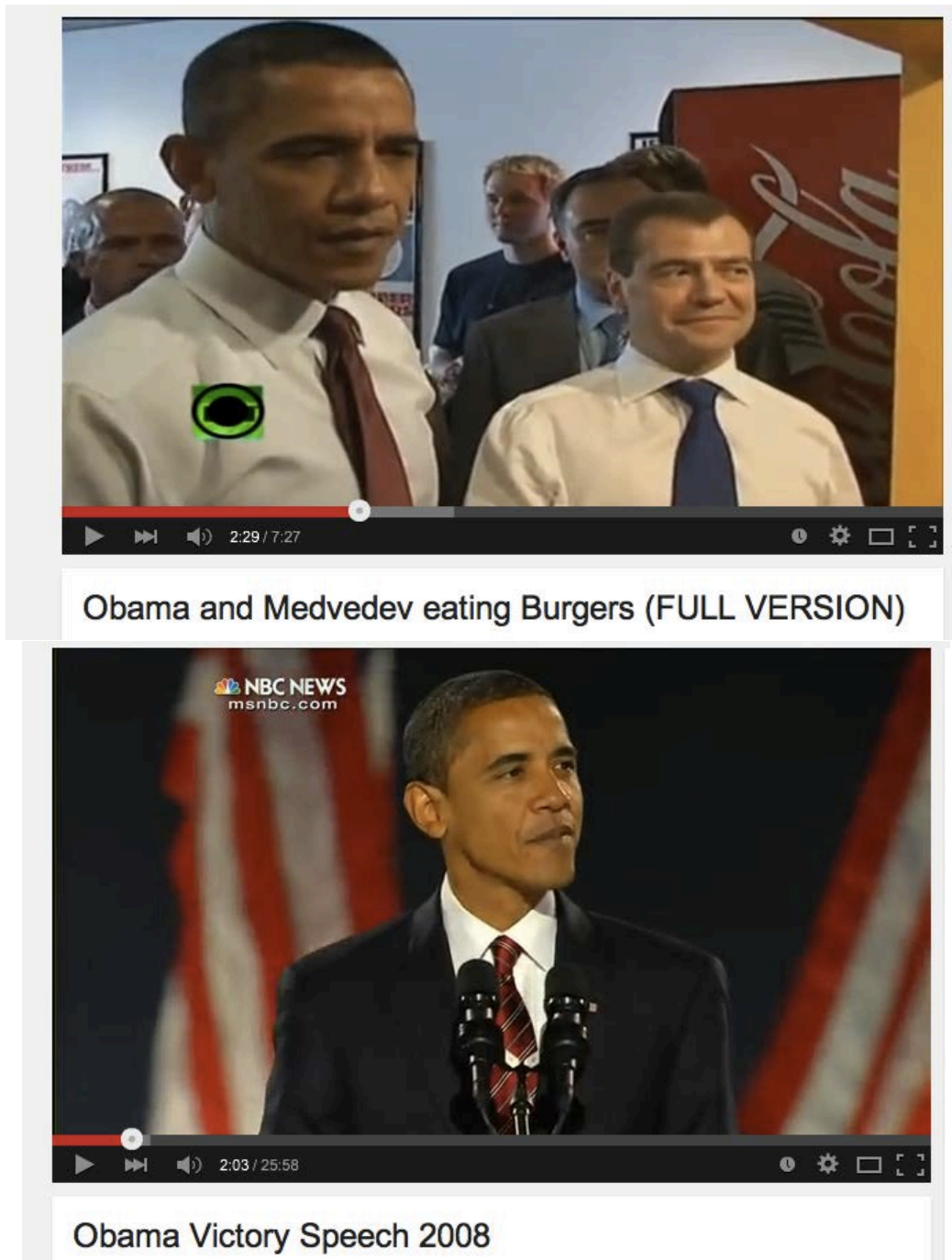


Figure 3.2: President Obama Style-shifting videos

In addition to applying recommendations from linguistic outreach research, several educational theory frameworks contributed to the design of the *LVSS* curriculum. First, the curriculum was constructed following a Backwards Design model (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Curriculum planners who follow the Backwards Design model use the specific end goals of the unit to design summative and formative assessments. Once the end goals and assessments have been determined, the planner creates lessons and activities to meet those end goals. An advantage of the Backwards Design model includes having a clear end goal in mind before planning what to teach and how to teach it (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005, p. 14). The lessons and activities for the *LVSS* unit were created once the research questions were stated and the Sociolinguistic Awareness components were determined. For example, Week Four lessons used contrastive analysis techniques of discrimination and identification drills to point out language differences (Feigenbaum, 1970; Rickford, 2001). In W4D1 “Question formation in English and Spanish”, students compared the grammatical structures and intonation patterns of questions and declarative sentences in English and Spanish (e.g., *Are you happy?* versus *You are happy.*; *¿Estás feliz?* versus *Estás feliz.*). Students were instructed to listen to the instructor read aloud a sentence and then categorize whether the sentence was a question or a declarative. Then students were asked to justify their answers.

Secondly, the lessons and activities created for the *LVSS* unit were oriented towards an “enhanced discovery learning” philosophy which uses the scientific process to assist students in finding answers for themselves (Marzano, 2011; see Reaser, 2006, and Honda, O’Neil, & Pippin 2004a, 2004b for examples of K-12 discovery learning in linguistics education). Students are offered evidence and asked to formulate hypotheses to describe the

evidence, or students are asked to justify their reasoning about certain topics. For example, for the W1D1 lesson students were shown several paragraphs of text and asked to determine (and justify) to which language the paragraph belonged (the options were English, Spanish, Portuguese, Vietnamese, and Arabic).

The third educational framework that guided the design of the lessons and activities is the “Zone of Proximal Development”, an element of the sociocultural perspective of learning (Vygotsky, 1978). The lessons created for *LVSS* were designed to scaffold the learner towards a more complex understanding of the topic, via guided practice followed by independent practice. Examples of this scaffolding process occur in Week Four, during the contrastive lessons. In W4D3, the instructor and students identify and list informal English contractions in the children’s book *Voices in the Park* by Anthony Browne (instructor-led practice). Working in small groups, students then match informal contractions with a non-contracted equivalent (guided practice). Finally, students circulate the room reading a sentence aloud to a partner, and the partner must identify the sentence as containing informal or formal English (independent practice).

The scope of this curriculum is intended to reflect a fifth-grade level introduction to the field of Sociolinguistics and the concept of style-shifting. The topics around which the lessons are based are limited to topics that fifth-grade students are likely to be familiar with, but perhaps have never studied formally. For example, native Spanish-speaking students in the United States are likely to be familiar with Spanglish, but usually do not study this language variety formally in school. Familiar topics are used as baselines to scaffold student learning towards a more technical, scientific understanding of the underlying sociolinguistic concepts. These topics are then explored from an academic, and specifically sociolinguistic,

standpoint. Table 3.2 lists topics used in this curriculum as a beginning point for sociolinguistics instruction. These specific topics were chosen to help the curriculum meet the awareness and readiness of ten to eleven-year-old children.

Table 3.2: Topics addressed in the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders* curriculum

<i>Topic</i>		<i>Sociolinguistic concepts</i>
Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Spanglish ▪ Vocabulary, Pronunciation, and Grammatical differences between English and Spanish ▪ Prescriptivist ideologies about “correct” language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Language diversity ▪ Language patterns ▪ Prescriptive versus descriptive perspectives
Pop culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Slang and Accents ▪ President Obama ▪ Clothing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Pronunciation patterns ▪ Style-shifting ▪ Accommodation
Academics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Math word problems 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Style-shifting

The sequence of the curriculum was designed to establish knowledge that could then lead to a respectful examination of language variation. First, students are introduced to basic terms and concepts to establish an orientation toward the scientific study of language. This scientific orientation sets the stage for the exploration of variability in language (English and Spanish) and specifically, the patterns inherent in the variability. Finally, students put into practice their understanding of language patterns in order to choose appropriate variants for a particular (formal or informal) context.

The *LVSS* curriculum constitutes a teacher’s guide (lesson plans—see Appendix B), a student workbook (student worksheets—see Appendix C), and a language survey (a summative assessment survey which functions as a pretest and posttest to gauge efficacy of the unit—see Appendix A). Each lesson takes approximately 45 minutes of class time. The curriculum offers flexibility by offering extra activity suggestions and homework options.

3.2 Common Core State Standards

A further factor in the design of the curriculum was the alignment with the 5th Grade English Language Arts standards of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), which was a requirement of school district administrators and the university's Institutional Review Board. Two years prior to data collection, the Common Core State Standards were implemented in New Mexico public schools (school year 2011-2012). The CCSS were marketed as “a different approach to learning, teaching and testing that engenders a deeper understanding of critical concepts and the practical application of that knowledge”, with a special emphasis on college and job readiness (New Mexico Public Education Dept.⁹). The *LVSS* curriculum specifically addresses the 5th grade Language component of the Common Core State Standards, and meets the English Language Arts standards listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Alignment of CCSS with Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders curriculum

<i>CCSS Standard</i>	<i>Addressed in LVSS</i>	<i>Lessons</i>
<i>CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.1</i>	Students learn conventions of Standard	W4D1
Demonstrate command of the	English through direct comparisons	W4D2
conventions of standard	with Spanish and nonstandard	W4D3
English grammar and usage	English varieties.	W4D4
when writing or speaking.		
<i>CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.3</i> Use	Students acquire knowledge of language	W1D1
knowledge of language and its	by learning scientific use of terms,	W1D2
conventions when writing,	such as “language” and “dialect”	W1D3
speaking, reading, or		W1D4
listening.		
<i>CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.3a</i>	Students learn that speakers adjust their	W3D1
Expand, combine, and reduce	speech (style-shift) in order to fit	W3D2
sentences for meaning,	with context and audience.	W3D3
reader/listener interest, and		W3D4
style.		

⁹ www.newmexicocommoncore.org, accessed August 25, 2014.

<i>CCSS Standard</i>	<i>Addressed in LVSS</i>	<i>Lessons</i>
<i>CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.3b</i> Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., <i>dialects, registers</i>) used in stories, dramas, or poems.	Students compare and contrast varieties of English and Spanish in children's literature that presents different varieties in authentic ways.	W4D1 W4D2 W4D3
<i>CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.5</i> Demonstrate understanding of figurative language, word relationships, and nuances in word meanings.	Students examine how English and Spanish have changed over time. Students recognize variation in word meanings by interviewing each other for linguistic variation.	W2D1 W2D2 W2D4
<i>CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.6</i> Acquire and use accurately grade-appropriate general academic and domain-specific words and phrases, including those that signal contrast, addition, and other logical relationships (e.g., <i>however, although, nevertheless, similarly, moreover, in addition</i>).	Students compare and contrast formal and informal varieties of English and Spanish. Students demonstrate domain-appropriate language by choosing language variants that are appropriate-to-context.	W4D1 W4D2 W4D3 W4D4 W5D1

Many learning standards that appear under the English Language Arts frame can be met by language awareness curricula, such as the need to acquire domain-specific words (standard 5.6 above). Not only does the *LVSS* unit teach students about the nature of academic registers, it also exposes students to a range of English and Spanish language patterns. The unit also prepares students to think critically about context-based language use. Finally, the *LVSS* unit approaches the familiar topic of language from a scientific, inquiry-based perspective; students study language variation as social scientists do, by examining data, formulating hypotheses, and then testing the hypotheses.

3.3 Teacher Guide

The teacher guide consists of eighteen lesson plans that cover the three components of a language awareness curriculum: establishing sociolinguistic knowledge, building respect, and contrastive analysis. Each lesson contains a brief rationale for the lesson, an

objective, a list of Common Core standards that are met, a list of materials for the instructor and students, a step-by-step procedure that begins with a warm-up task, main learning task(s), and closure steps, in addition to informal assessment checklist and extension activity suggestions (52 pages total, Appendix B).

Although the *LVSS* curriculum was designed and taught by the researcher, steps were taken to make the content knowledge of the unit accessible to non-linguists. For example, the rationale of each lesson offers a brief explanation of why the topic is important. Additionally, the tasks include sample language for an instructor to explain concepts. For example, in W2D1, students are examining language change over time. In this lesson, the instructor introduces language change by reminding students of the previous lesson that examined changes in slang over different generations. The instructor then introduces the concept of language change over centuries:

We know that language changes as years pass, so that the way one generation talks will be different from the next. As many, many years pass, the language changes so much that we have difficulty understanding or reading very old varieties of the language from many, many generations ago.

The step-by-step procedure then continues by directing students to listen to the three audio recordings of the *Lord's Prayer*¹⁰: translations from Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.

The teacher guide offers clear guidance on the step-by-step conduct of the lessons and offers solutions to student activities. The informal assessment checklist allows the instructor

¹⁰ The *Lord's Prayer* lesson was adapted from a lesson in Old and Middle English from the Western Washington University Linguistics in Education website, <http://www.teachling.wvu.edu>. The purpose of the lesson presented in the *LVSS* curriculum was to examine dialectal differences from the perspective of language change over time. English translations of the *Lord's Prayer* date to circa 950AD; this long history makes the text ideal for studying how the same words and phrases change over the centuries.

to keep in mind what work students should be producing, alone or in pairs, in order to demonstrate learning of the objective.

A variety of children's literature appeared in the lessons to offer authentic uses of dialectal features. The books were selected on the basis of 1) authentic use of dialectal features and 2) age-appropriateness for fifth grade. Table 3.4 lists the dialectal feature and the lesson for each book. After the lesson, the books were left in the classroom for children to read at their leisure.

Table 3.4: Children's literature in LVSS

<i>Book</i>	<i>Dialectal feature(s)</i>	<i>Lesson</i>
<i>Liza Lou and the Yeller Belly Swamp</i> by Mercer Mayer	American English, Southern	W1D2
<i>Sukey and the Mermaid</i> by Robert D. San Souci	South Carolinian English	
<i>Harry Potter</i> series by J. K. Rowling	British English, various social groups	W1D3
<i>Paddington Bear</i> by Michael Bond	British English, various social groups	W1D4
<i>Woe Is I J.r.</i> , by Patricia O'Conner	Prescriptive grammar rules Gullah, English	W2D2
<i>Bo Rabbit Smart for true: Tall Tales from the Gullah</i> by Priscilla Joaquin		
<i>Farolitos de Christmas</i> by Rudolfo Anaya	New Mexican Spanish	W2D4
<i>Los Ojos del Tejedor, The Eyes of the Weaver</i> by Cristina Ortega	English with New Mexican Spanish vocabulary	
<i>...And Now Miguel</i> by Joseph Krumgold	New Mexican English and Standard English	
<i>My teacher is an Alien</i> by Bruce Coville	American English, young people	W3D1
<i>Don't Say Ain't</i> by Irene Smalls	African American English Louisiana Cajun English	W3D2
<i>Feliciano Feydra LeRoux: A Cajun Tall Tale</i> by Tynia Thomassie		

<i>Book</i>	<i>Dialectal feature(s)</i>	<i>Lesson</i>
<i>A Series of Unfortunate Events</i> by Lemony Snicket	Hyper-standard English	W3D3
<i>Diary of a Wimpy Kid</i> box set by Jeff Kinney	American English, young people	
<i>Arroz Con Leche</i> , by Lulu Delacre	Latin American Spanish	W4D1
<i>José's Neighborhood</i> by George Ancona	Standard English and Informal Spanish	
<i>Chato y su cena</i> by Gary Soto	California Chicano English / Spanish	
<i>Coqui y sus amigos</i> by Alfonso Silva Lee	Standard Spanish with Puerto Rican vocabulary	
<i>Call Me Maria</i> by Judith Ortiz Cofer	American English, Spanglish	W4D2
<i>Amigos del Otro Lado</i> , by Gloria Anzaldua	Mexican Spanish, Spanglish	
<i>Voices in the Park</i> by Anthony Browne	American English, various social groups	W4D3

A variety of audio files were selected for the *LVSS* curriculum. Audio tracks were selected from publicly available sources such as National Public Radio's *Radio Diaries* program (www.radiodiaries.org), the *International Dialects of English Archive* (www.dialectsarchive.com), and *YouTube* (www.youtube.com). To access audio files, students shared iPod Shuffles that were pre-loaded with audio tracks. Earbuds were linked to the iPod Shuffles by audio splitter cables so that two or more students could listen to the same Shuffle simultaneously. One video, the *Fair Housing Public Service Announcement*, was shown to students from a laptop screen. Table 3.5 shows the audio tracks for each lesson.

Table 3.5: Audio files in LVSS

<i>Audio Track and Source</i>	<i>Lesson</i>
Walter the Seltzer Man (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.radiodiaries.org/walter-backerman-seltzer-man/	W1D1
Accents Library (Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center) Economy—Mexican Accent, https://accents.lingnet.org/spanish/result1.asp?language=Spanish&level=0&topic=2&submit=Submit	
Kent Sakoda, Language Varieties Website http://www.hawaii.edu/satocenter/langnet/sounds/hcesound.html	
Comma Gets a Cure (New Mexico, California, New Jersey samples, International Dialects of English Archive ¹¹) http://www.dialectsarchive.com/comma-gets-a-cure	W1D3
Old English Lord's Prayer: http://youtu.be/7Wl-OZ3breE	W2D1
Middle English Lord's Prayer: http://youtu.be/FM2THEzuzlI	
Modern English Lord's Prayer: http://youtu.be/7WYiOlFa8e8	
Fair Housing Public Service Announcement, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=84k2iM30vbY	W2D3
Cali Rivera, cowbell maker (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.radiodiaries.org/cali-rivera-cowbell-maker/	
Claessa Shields, Teen Contender (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.radiodiaries.org/teen-contender/	
James Weekley, Last Man on the Mountain (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.npr.org/2011/08/11/139547261/the-last-man-on-the-mountain	
Weasel: Deported (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.radiodiaries.org/deported-weasels-diary/	W2D3
Randy: Remembering Ozell (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.radiodiaries.org/andy-in-tchula-mississippi-remembering-ozell/	
Brina at Brown University (NPR, Radio Diaries) http://www.albany.edu/talkinghistory/radiodiaries/rd-td-brina.mp3	
President Obama's 2008 victory speech, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CnvUUauFJ98	W3D4
President Obama orders a hamburger with President Medvedev of Russia, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ujY_cQZFRcg	

3.4 Student Workbook

Participants received a 55-page spiral-bound workbook where they documented their answers to small group and whole-group activities. The student workbook was organized around a theme for each week of learning. Following the table of contents, a “Goals of Unit”

¹¹ Copyright 2000 Douglas N. Honorof, Jill McCullough & Barbara Somerville. All rights reserved.

page prefaced what students would learn, why it was important to learn about linguistic diversity, and how this learning could enhance preparation in other subject areas. The activities and worksheets were separated by weekly sections that listed the overall objective for the week, along with the specific objectives for each lesson.

Effort was made to meet the readiness and ability of fifth graders (see Fabb, 1985 for suggestions on making formal linguistics accessible to ten-year-olds). Many types of activities were included in the workbook to reach an array of learning styles. Text was paired with visual clip-art in many activities. Activities included Discourse Completion Tasks, matching tasks, categorizing, appropriateness ranking, a semantic differential scale, dialect maps, and blank spaces to record group answers. The lesson objective was printed across the top of the worksheet for each lesson; the workbook appeared bilingually in English and Spanish (see Appendix C).

3.5 Language Survey

This section describes the language survey and how it aligns with the *LVSS* lessons. The language survey serves as the summative assessment for the curriculum, as well as the pre and post-tests for the research study. The summative assessment allows instructors to determine the content gained by students, and any attitudinal change that may have resulted from the lessons.

The survey is a five-point Likert-type survey that is set along bipolar scale of *Strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree, or Don't Know*, thus measuring both the direction and the intensity of participants' answers (Kennedy, 2008, p. 63). The middle point often used in Likert scales for neutrality is replaced here with *Don't Know*, physically located to the right of the other responses. The *Don't Know* option gives the respondent an

opportunity to express uncertainty regarding factual knowledge, or an undecided opinion regarding language attitudes (see Appendix A).

There are risks and benefits to including a *Don't Know* response in a survey. The lack of *Don't Know* responses may create a nonattitude effect, where some participants randomly choose answers because of pressure to respond. Offering a *Don't Know* response allows participants to accurately report a lack of knowledge or ambivalent attitude (Barton, 2008, p. 511-513; Holbrook, 2008, p. 208-209). However, including *Don't Know* responses on a survey may increase the chances of a satisficing effect, where participants choose *Don't Know* in order to avoid completing a task due to lack of interest in the survey (Holbrook, 2008, p. 209). Although it is possible for some respondents to use the *Don't Know* responses as an exit strategy to avoid thinking about the items, the benefits of collecting *Don't Know* responses outweigh this risk. First, participants are not forced into making a choice. Second, calculating the change in number of *Don't Know* responses provides another indicator of the efficacy of the LVSS curriculum in increasing student Sociolinguistic Knowledge and/or Language Attitudes.

The language survey has balanced keying, i.e., approximately the same amount of positive and negative aligned statements. Of the twenty items total, nine items would ideally elicit agreement (*Strongly Agree* or *Agree*) and eleven would elicit disagreement (*Disagree* or *Strongly Disagree*). Balanced keying addresses a possible acquiescence response bias where respondents may tend to agree with statements, and the social desirability bias (where respondents try to portray themselves or their social group in a favorable way); however, a possible central tendency bias (where respondents avoid the extreme categories of *strongly agree* or *strongly disagree*) is not addressed (Brill, 2008, p. 429; Ray, 1990).

Ten items measure Sociolinguistic Knowledge, while ten measure Language Attitudes. Items were paired or tripled around themes. For example, Item 13, DIALECTS ARE SLOPPY FORMS OF LANGUAGE and Item 20, DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING are grouped because they measure knowledge of dialect misconceptions. Table 3.6 shows the items that address Research Questions 1 (Sociolinguistic Knowledge) and 2 (Language Attitudes), in addition to the alignment (positive or negative) of the items.

Table 3.6: Language Survey Grouped Items

Research Question 1: After participating in a dialect awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in sociolinguistic knowledge**? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (90 days) maintenance of change in sociolinguistic knowledge?

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Alignment</i>	<i>Grouped Items</i>
Dialect Misconceptions	--	Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language.
	--	Item 20: Dialects and slang are the same thing.
Systemic Dialects	+	Item 3: Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.
	+	Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns.
	+	Item 7: I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks.
Language Variation Awareness	+	Item 10: I have an accent when I speak my native language.
	+	Item 11: Everyone speaks a dialect.
Style-shifting	+	Item 17: Sometimes saying “What’s up?” can be more appropriate than saying “Hello, how are you?”.
	+	Item 8: People can change how they speak according to the situation.
	+	Item 18: Language is always changing.

Table 3.6: Language Survey Grouped Items (continued)

Research Question 2: After participating in a dialect awareness curriculum, do 5 th grade students demonstrate a change in language attitudes ? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (90 days) maintenance of change in language attitudes?		
<i>Theme</i>	<i>Alignment</i>	<i>Grouped Items</i>
Speaker expertise	+	Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly.
	--	Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
Accent superiority	--	Item 9: People from England speak better English than people from the United States.
	--	Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.
	--	Item 16: I think some accents are better than others.
Judgments of speaker intelligence	--	Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk.
	--	Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk.
Prescriptive attitudes	--	Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language.
	--	Item 12: The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language.
	--	Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time.

Although the survey contains groupings of items, it is not a *Likert scale*, strictly speaking. While a Likert scale would consist of several items measuring the same concept, the items in the survey used for this study are largely stand-alone items and do not necessarily measure the same knowledge or attitude (and therefore do not form a “scale”). For example, although the items PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES and PEOPLE FROM SPAIN SPEAK BETTER SPANISH THAN PEOPLE FROM MEXICO are grouped together under the theme of *Accent Superiority*, the items measure separate attitudes (i.e., attitudes towards English varieties and attitudes towards Spanish varieties, respectively). For this reason, the language survey is considered a Likert-

type survey. The analysis of the language survey is discussed further in Chapter 6 (Sociolinguistic Knowledge) and Chapter 7 (Language Attitudes).

The survey items were field-tested with monolingual and bilingual fifth graders attending a different (Maintenance-Bilingual) elementary school in the same school district where the study was conducted. Seven field-testers, two girls and five boys, were asked to complete the survey and explain their answers orally in an interview. Various changes were made in the wording of items until the current language survey was deemed adequate. For example, I DO NOT HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I TALK IN ENGLISH was changed to I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE because students who speak Spanish natively may indeed believe they speak with a non-native accent in English. One field-tester believed he spoke English with an accent because he was originally from Mexico and spoke Spanish as a first language. To me, he sounded similar to his peers when speaking in English; that is, I could not perceive a nonnative or “Mexican” accent from his English speech.

Several field-testers were confused when they attempted to disagree with a negative statement. For example, several students accidentally disagreed with the item IT IS NOT OKAY TO JUDGE SOMEONE NEGATIVELY BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK when subsequent interviews showed students actually agreed with the item. This item was changed to a positive-worded statement, IT IS OKAY TO THINK SOMEONE IS DUMB BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK (the original phrase “judge someone negatively” also proved to be unclear for these field-testers).

Many survey items were designed to match specific lessons in the language awareness unit (see Table 3.7). For example, the item LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING matched lessons that explicitly dealt with language change over time. Other survey items measured knowledge or attitudes that were not explicitly discussed in the curriculum;

however, it was expected that students' acquired sociolinguistic concepts would compel them to reject intolerant statements. Items that measure indirect knowledge or attitudes attained are useful for determining the impact of the curriculum outside of explicit instruction parameters.

Table 3.7: Lesson and Item Matching

<i>Lesson(s)</i>	<i>Items that are directly linked</i>	<i>Items that are indirectly linked</i>
W1D1: What is a language? What is a dialect?	Item 11: Everyone speaks a dialect.	
W1D2: How dialects differ: Vocabulary	Item 3: Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Item 20: Dialects and slang are the same thing.	Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language. Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
W1D3: How dialects differ: Pronunciation	Item 3: Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Item 7: I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks.	Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language. Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
W1D4: How dialects differ: Grammar	Item 3: Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns.	Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language. Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
W2D1: Language Change: Lord's prayer	Item 20: Dialects and slang are the same thing. Item 18: Language is always changing.	Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language. Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
W2D2: Language Change: Appendix Probi	Item 18: Language is always changing. Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language.	Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly.
W2D3: Speech and Identity	Item 7: I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks.	Item 10: I have an accent when I speak my native language. Item 16: I think some accents are

<i>Lesson(s)</i>	<i>Items that are directly linked</i>	<i>Items that are indirectly linked</i>
	Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk.	Item 10: I have an accent when I speak my native language.
W2D4: Linguistic Fieldwork	Item 11: Everyone speaks a dialect.	Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
W3D1: Introduction to Style-shifting	Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time. Item 8: People can change how they speak according to the situation.	Item 16: I think some accents are better than others.
W3D2: Formal versus informal language	Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language.	Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk.
W3D3: Lingua Franca	Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language. Item 17: Sometimes saying “What’s up?” can be more appropriate than saying “Hello, how are you?”.	
W3D4: Style-shifting Obama	Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language. Item 8: People can change how they speak according to the situation.	Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk.
W4D1: Contrastive English and Spanish question formation	Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns.	Item 9: People from England speak better English than people from the United States. Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.
W4D2: Spanglish	Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns.	Item 9: People from England speak better English than people from the United States. Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.
W4D3: Informal contractions in English	Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns. Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language.	Item 9: People from England speak better English than people from the United States. Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.
W4D4: Topic registers	Item 12: The language we learn in	Item 2: Some people sound stupid

<i>Lesson(s)</i>	<i>Items that are directly linked</i>	<i>Items that are indirectly linked</i>
	school is the correct kind of language.	because of how they talk.
W5D1: Style-shifting practice and Reflection	Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language. Item 12: The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language.	

The physical layout of the survey was of prime concern. Only twenty items were included to reduce respondent fatigue; all twenty items were placed on the same (legal-sized) page. Items were distinguished visually from one another with gray coloring for every other item. One side was printed in English, the other in Spanish. Participants were allowed to choose in which language to complete the survey.

3.6 Chapter Summary

The *Language Variation and Style-Shifting* curriculum created for this research study was designed to make sociolinguistics accessible to ten to eleven year old children. The lessons built on previous linguistic outreach research that found that building respect for language variation and establishing background sociolinguistic knowledge were crucial for students to begin contrastive analysis work. The curriculum's effectiveness is measured by a language survey that functions as a pretest and posttest; the survey measures both Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes. The next chapter describes the research site and the participants of the study.

Chapter 4: Profile of the Participants and Research Site

This chapter identifies the methods used to select the research sample, the research site, and the participants. It also offers a rationale for choosing to focus on fifth-grade students for sociolinguistic outreach.

4.1 Sampling Procedure and Site Description

Two sampling strategies were performed in this study: *criterion sampling* (where participants must meet a certain criteria), and *convenience sampling* (where participation relies on availability). The school district targeted for inclusion in the study is a large, urban K-12 district in the southwest United States that serves almost 90,000 students total. Racially and ethnically, the students in this school district are Hispanic (55%), followed by one-third Caucasian (33%), 5% Native American, 4% African American, and 3% Asian American.

This school district was selected for four reasons: (1) the district offers Dual Language education in the elementary schools; (2) the majority of the elementary schools serve low-income families; (3) there is a substantial number (around 15%) of English Language Learners; and (4) many of the elementary schools are considered low performing. Therefore, this school district educates racially, ethnically, linguistically, and culturally diverse students. Although we cannot consider this school district as *representative* of all school districts that face these same issues, it is *illustrative* of the experiences of a demographically diverse district (cf. Mason, 2002, p. 126).

Of the 89 elementary schools in this district, 43 have some type of bilingual education model, ranging from Dual Language (where instruction is 50% English, 50% Spanish),

Maintenance Bilingual Education, or Transitional Bilingual Education. The school where the study was conducted offered both Dual Language and Maintenance Bilingual programs¹².

Chester Nez Elementary School (a pseudonym), the school where this study was conducted, has had a high proportion of students who qualify for free or reduced lunch, hovering at around 93% since at least 2005¹³. In 2008-2009, the most recent year for which data is publicly available, of 702 enrolled students, 40% of students at Chester Nez Elementary were English Language Learners, and 84.6% of the total school population was Hispanic. Chester Nez Elementary has struggled to meet its academic goals in the recent past. In 2011-2012, the school received a “C” on its School Grading Report, with 37% of students proficient or advanced in Reading (28% of ELLs were proficient) and 40% proficient or advanced in Math (33% of ELLs were proficient). However, the majority of those who scored as proficient in both areas were White. In 2012-2013, the school received a “D” on its School Grading Report, with 34% proficient or advanced in Reading (20% of ELLs) and 37% proficient or advanced in Math (20% of ELLs). Once again, the majority of students who scored as proficient were White. Overall, Chester Nez Elementary School tends to be overwhelmingly low-income (93%), low-performing academically, with a large proportion of ELL students, and 84.6% Hispanic.

¹² The *Dual Language* model is defined by the district as “A program of bilingual education for language majority and minority students where at least 50 percent of the instruction is provided in a language other than English and where bilingualism and biliteracy is the goal”. The *Maintenance Bilingual* program is defined by the district as “A program of bilingual education for bilingual students that has as its goal the maintenance and further development of all aspects of the home language and English”, while the *Transitional Bilingual* model is defined as “A program of bilingual education for LEP students that has as its goal the transfer of students from home language instruction to an all English curriculum. This usually occurs after three years”.

¹³ The proportion of students who are eligible for free or reduced lunch is often used as an indicator of the number of students living in poverty (cf. National Center for Education Statistics <http://nces.ed.gov/blogs/nces/post/free-or-reduced-price-lunch-a-proxy-for-poverty>).

The criterion sampling strategy used here included identifying a school district with elementary schools that offered Dual Language programs, and attracting interest in the study by contacting principals at schools, who would participate at their teachers' convenience and availability. A combination of criterion and convenience sampling was most appropriate for this study precisely because there were many schools that fit the criteria of being a Dual Language elementary school, and voluntary participation from the school and teachers was needed. Random sampling, a hallmark of quantitative research, was not feasible due to the already low numbers of potential participants in the Treatment and Control groups (about 25 students in each class).

I started looking for a research site in August 2012. In total, I emailed or called twelve different school principals to pitch my research project. One school principal told me he was not interested in participating because he felt his staff were already too overwhelmed with state requirements, new trainings, and other established research projects. I met with a teacher at one school who agreed to do the study, but she contacted me two weeks later to say she had changed her mind—she was also feeling too overwhelmed.

It is likely that the recent implementation of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) impacted the willingness of schools to participate. The CCSS had been introduced in the state the previous school year (2011-2012), and the 2012-2013 school year was slated for more professional development for educators state-wide. The CCSS were marketed as a different approach to learning that focused on critical concepts and practical application, with a special emphasis on college and job readiness. Although the CCSS have received criticism for not being developmentally appropriate and for overemphasizing reading and math (Zubrzycki, 2011), it was not an optional transition for public schools in the state.

After five months of recruitment attempts, in December 2012 an interested principal put me in contact with a fifth grade classroom teacher. I sent both the principal and the teacher the results of a pilot study conducted in October 2012. In January 2013 I met with the principal and the classroom teacher, and they agreed to participate for the following school year. The school was offered \$1,000 worth of classroom books in exchange for participation; the books were to be used during the sociolinguistic lessons, and then left in the classroom. This same classroom teacher (who taught the 5th grade Dual Language strand) recruited one of her colleagues to serve as the Control group classroom (an English-medium classroom).

4.2 Consent Process and Description of Participants

In August 2013, I visited potential participants in both classrooms during normal school hours to explain the study, the study's goals, and the consent process. Students who wanted to participate were asked to sign the Student Consent form and place it in an envelope provided; students who did not want to participate were asked to leave the Student Consent form blank and place it in the envelope provided. Students were then instructed to take home the Parental Consent form and have their parents indicate whether or not they permitted the child to participate, and to sign it. Parents were asked to sign the form regardless of participation status in order to ensure that all forms were received and read by parents. Of 25 students in the Treatment classroom, there was a 100% participation rate from both students and parents. One student was excluded from the study when she moved away prior to completion of the lessons. Of the 23 students in the Control classroom, there was a 70% (N = 16) participation rate from both students and parents. Of the forty total participants, twenty-three gave permission for demographic academic background information to be collected. Race and ethnicity, first and second language, math and reading proficiency scores, and

gender were collected for sixteen of the twenty-four Treatment group students (approximately two-thirds of the group) while this information was collected for seven of the sixteen Control group participants (just under half).

All of the sixteen students who reported data in the Treatment group were classified as Hispanic by the school district. Five of the reporting Control group students were classified as Hispanic, and the other two were classified as Caucasian (see Table 4.1). Most of the reporting students in the Treatment group were male ($N = 11$, 46%), and five were female (21%). Two of the reporting Control group participants were male (13%), while five were female (31%) (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.1: Race/Ethnicity of Participants

	<i>Hispanic</i>	<i>Caucasian</i>	<i>Unreported</i>	<i>Total</i>
Treatment	16 (66%)	0 (0%)	8 (33%)	24 (100%)
Control	5 (31%)	2 (13%)	9 (56%)	16 (100%)

Table 4.2: Sex of Participants

	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>	<i>Unreported</i>	<i>Total</i>
Treatment	11 (46%)	5 (21%)	8 (33%)	24 (100%)
Control	2 (13%)	5 (31%)	9 (56%)	16 (100%)

The majority of reporting participants from both the Treatment group ($N = 16$, 66%) and the Control group ($N = 5$, 31%) were native Spanish-speaking students who learned English at school (Table 4.3). Eleven of the reporting students in the Treatment group were designated English Language Learner (46% of the total class), while two reporting Control group students (13%) had the ELL designation (Table 4.4).

Table 4.3: Primary Language of Participants

	<i>Primary Language</i>			<i>Total</i>
	<i>Spanish</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Unreported</i>	
Treatment	16 (66%)	0 (0%)	8 (33%)	24 (100%)
Control	5 (31%)	2 (13%)	9 (56%)	16 (100%)

Table 4.4: English Language Learner Status of Participants

	<i>Designated English Language Learner</i>			<i>Total</i>
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Unreported</i>	
Treatment	11 (46%)	5 (21%)	8 (33%)	24 (100%)
Control	2 (13%)	5 (31%)	9 (56%)	16 (100%)

At the time of data collection, the school district assessed grade-level proficiency in math and reading through content exams commissioned by the public education department of the state. The content exams aligned with the state's Content Standards, which were replaced with the Common Core State Standards starting in 2011.

According to content test data, nine of the sixteen Treatment group students were not proficient in fifth-grade level math, and nine students were not proficient in grade-level reading (see Table 4.5). Of the seven Control group students, four were not proficient in math and three were not proficient in reading.

Table 4.5: Academic Proficiency in Math and Reading of Participants

	<i>Math</i>		<i>Reading</i>		<i>Unreported</i>	<i>Total</i>
	<i>Proficient</i>	<i>Not Prof.</i>	<i>Proficient</i>	<i>Not Prof.</i>		
Treatment	7 (29%)	9 (38%)	7 (29%)	9 (38%)	8 (33%)	24 (100%)
Control	3 (19%)	4 (25%)	4 (25%)	3 (19%)	9 (56%)	16 (100%)

In sum, the demographic and academic proficiency information collected show a Treatment group that was Hispanic and Spanish-speaking. Most students were designated as English Language Learners, and at least one-third (if not more) of the Treatment class were

not proficient in grade-level math and reading. The Control group showed slightly more demographic diversity, with a few native-English-speaking Caucasian students taught alongside their Hispanic, native-Spanish-speaking peers. The two groups were similar in grade-level proficiency; both groups demonstrated a near even split in the number of students who were proficient in grade-level content areas. It appears that the main difference between the Treatment and Control group participants was in the language of instruction (Spanish versus English, respectively).

The Treatment group participated in all aspects of the study: the language awareness curriculum, the language surveys that served as pretest and post-test, and the conversational interviews. The Control group participated only in the language surveys and conversational interviews, in order to establish evidence that any change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge or Language Attitudes was due to the curriculum, as opposed to normal developmental growth through the course of the 5th grade year.

4.3 Rationale for Selection of Fifth Graders as Target Population

This study targets fifth graders for a number of reasons. Fifth graders range from 10 to 12 years old and typically, in the United States, they constitute the oldest cohorts in K-5 elementary schools. The fifth grade year is characterized by sexual education curricula, standardized testing and preparation for middle school. Fifth graders are at the end of their elementary career and are about to enter middle school, a process that socially and academically marks them as teenagers or adolescents. As the last year where these students are socially still considered “children” as opposed to “adolescents”, young students’ speech is still mostly modeled on that of family members or teachers (Chambers, 2003; Labov, 1965; Van Hofwegen, 2015; Van Hofwegen & Wolfram, 2010).

Fifth graders are an ideal target population for sociolinguistic outreach because they are right at the cusp of the “roller-coaster” trajectory of vernacularity, an upward swing where adolescents display the highest level of vernacular features in their speech (Farrington, Kohn, & Renn, 2012; Van Hofwegen & Wolfram, 2010; for similar results, see Chambers, 2003; Labov, 1966; Rickford & Price, 2013; Wolfram & Christian, 1976). This roller-coaster trajectory supports Chamber’s (2003) Life Stages model, which predicts that adolescents will display a higher rate of vernacular (non-standard) forms, and by adulthood individuals will display an increased level of standardized forms. Rickford and Price (2013), for example, found this age-grading trend in two African American females, who as teenagers showed high levels of African American English features and as adults displayed lower levels of AAE forms in their interviews.

The middle school years (6th to 8th grade in the U.S.) have been found to show strong linguistic effects from peer-group centered speech, and the highest level of vernacular usage for many individuals (e.g., Fasold, 1972; Labov, 1965, 1966; Milroy, 1987; Rickford & Price, 2013; Romaine, 1984; Wolfram, 1969; Wolfram & Christian, 1976), although the process of acquiring adult-centered norms cannot be assumed to proceed at the same pace or in the same way for everyone (Romaine, 1984, p. 90; cf. also Van Hofwegen & Wolfram, 2010).

There is evidence that young children are aware of the social significance of different linguistic variables, both through language attitudes they display (e.g., Bokhorst-Heng & Santos Caleon, 2009; Echeverria, 2005; Gao, 2009; Oliver & Purdie, 1998; Romaine, 1984) and the ability to style-shift (Arnold, Rosado & Penfield, 1979; Cassell et al., 2009; Hoff, 2010; Maxwell & Doyle, 1996; Reid, 1978; Renn, 2010; Robertson & Murachver, 2003;

Romaine, 1979). In fact, it has been demonstrated that whining among children is a particular vocalization pattern designed to capture the attention of caregivers, displaying rising pitch contours, slowed production and high fundamental frequencies that mimic “baby talk” or “motherese” (Sokol et al., 2005). By a young age, children are adept at manipulating their speech to meet a communicative need.

Fifth graders, therefore, are an ideal group to study because they are linguistically aware individuals who are about to enter a crucial life stage of peer-centered adolescence. Linguistic loyalty to adolescent peer groups may eventually outweigh pressures from school or family to speak with more standard, prestige forms (Labov, 1965; Romaine, 1984), intensifying the roller-coaster trajectory. Furthermore, linguistic loyalty can be strengthened when students attend homogenous schools as opposed to racially and linguistically diverse schools (Farrington, Kohn, & Renn, 2012; Reid, 1978).

4.4 Summary

This chapter described the sampling procedure and research site. The elementary school that participated in the study served a majority Hispanic student body (84.6%) with a large proportion of children from low-income households (93%), and 40% of the students were designated English Language Learners; in addition, the school was considered “low-performing” by state proficiency standards. The participants in the Treatment group (N = 24) were enrolled in the Dual Language strand, receiving instruction in both Spanish and English from a bilingual teacher. The participants in the Control group (N = 16) received instruction exclusively in English. Both groups had a substantial amount of students who struggled with grade-level content proficiency. The next chapter describes the methodology and methods of the current study.

Chapter 5: Methodology and Research Design

The purpose of this study was to teach native Spanish-speaking bilingual 5th grade students about core Sociolinguistic concepts in the expectation that the students would show gains in their Sociolinguistic Knowledge about the ways languages and dialects pattern, and they would show more positive Language Attitudes. In seeking to accomplish these two goals, the study asked the following research questions:

1. After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge**? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (5 calendar months) maintenance of change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge?
2. After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in Language Attitudes**? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (5 calendar months) maintenance of change in Language Attitudes?

This project directs its efforts specifically towards native Spanish-speaking students learning English because they are often victims of “linguicism” (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000), i.e. the students’ native language is not valued as highly as the target language variety, as discussed in Chapter 1. Moreover, many bilingual students speak a stigmatized variety of their native language (e.g. Spanglish) and often acquire informal language patterns of English-speaking peers (e.g. *gonna*, *ain’t*). Therefore, bilingual students in the U.S. face a double barrier of language discrimination towards their variety of Spanish and towards the peer-oriented language variety of English, in addition to being labeled “Limited English Proficient”, a designation that emphasizes what students lack as opposed to what students have (LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994).

This chapter begins with a rationale for the mixed qualitative and quantitative methods employed in the study, and explains the research design (§Chapter 55.1). A description of my role as the researcher is given (§Chapter 55.2), followed by the methods of

data collection and data analysis (§Chapter 55.3). Finally the strengths and limitations of the study design are presented (§Chapter 55.4), and I summarize the chapter (§Chapter 55.5).

5.1 Research Design Rationale and Overview

This study uses methods from both quantitative and qualitative approaches to generate and analyze data. The “intellectual puzzle” (Mason, 2002, p. 18) of this project is to discover what effect a Sociolinguistic Awareness unit may have on the Sociolinguistic Knowledge and the Language Attitudes of bilingual children. A mixed-methods approach allows investigation of this effect both numerically (via the scores on the language surveys) and qualitatively (via the conversational interviews and lesson reflections). The triangulation of data sources lends validity to the findings and offers a fuller understanding of any change in the children’s Sociolinguistic Knowledge or Language Attitudes (cf. Bogden & Biklen, 2011, p. 115-116; Creswell, 2013, p. 244-252; Mason, 2002, p. 33-34). By comparing the surveys and interviews of children who participate in the Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons with a comparison group, this study attempts to illustrate how language awareness instruction can impact children’s awareness of language-based issues such as accent discrimination, language variation, and academic language registers.

The study follows a repeated-measures quasi-experimental design that applies the findings and recommendations from a broad base of research, specifically: 1) sociolinguistics research regarding language variation and language change, 2) theoretical research regarding language attitudes and language discrimination; and 3) best practices in elementary-level curriculum development and design. This interdisciplinary study therefore continues previous research and theory in language awareness instruction (Charity Hudley & Mallinson, 2011; Denham & Lobeck, 2010; Reaser, 2006; Sweetland, 2006; West Brown, 2009; Wheeler &

Swords, 2006) and extends this research into a new realm, i.e., Bilingual Education. To my knowledge, this is the first study that attempts to reach bilingual students in this way, although it has been suggested before that the study of language variation would benefit English learners (e.g., Mahboob & Barratt, 2014; Wolfram, 2014).

The study design is structured with a pre-test—post-test treatment with two groups of students, only one of which participated in the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit. Potential participants were recruited from two intact classrooms: students in one Dual Language classroom served as the Treatment group, and students in one English-medium classroom served as the Control group. Both participant groups were 5th graders attending the same elementary school; the major difference between the two groups was language of instruction (see Chapter 4 for a discussion of participant demographics). The possible effects of this prior-existing difference are discussed in section 5.4 below. A total of 40 students participated in the study: 24 students in the Treatment group, and 16 students in the Control group.

The Treatment students participated in eighteen lessons (approximately 810 instructional minutes spread over six weeks, described in Ch. 3) that used a Sociolinguistics Awareness approach to teach students about core sociolinguistics concepts in addition to particular linguistic variation of English and Spanish language varieties, taught by the researcher. Students in both the Treatment group and the Control group completed language surveys before and after the Sociolinguistic Awareness intervention took place. I recorded two-column descriptive and reflection field notes after teaching each lesson (see section 5.3.2).

Quantitative measurements of all participants' Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes via paper Likert surveys were collected in order to numerically track change (the construction of the survey is discussed in 3.5). The participants were tested a total of four times using the same items on the language survey. Testing the same students before and after the Treatment group participated in the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit provides evidence for a claim that a change in participants' knowledge or attitudes derive from the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit as opposed to normal maturation or developmental growth. In addition, comparing the Treatment group's post-test scores to the Control group's post-test scores provided evidence of the unit's direct impact.

Administering the same language survey multiple times may lead to respondent fatigue or boredom. I addressed this challenge by scrambling the order of the items on each successive survey and by administering the surveys at least five weeks apart. Additionally, efforts were made to keep the language survey visually simple: all the items appeared on one side of a legal-size page, and every other item was grey-shaded to help participants visually keep track of their responses.

To supplement the numerical scores of the language surveys, a select number of participants from both the Treatment group and the Control group were asked to explain their answers to the survey items in recorded conversational interviews in order to elicit a richer picture of the participants' change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes. These conversational interviews were conducted to help understand how students interpreted the survey items and to help understand why students responded they way they did (see section 5.3.4).

Lesson reflections were created after each lesson to document the chronology of the lessons and my impressions of the relative “success” of the lessons. The lesson reflections function as a window into the delivery of the lessons and the responsiveness of the students. Precisely because teachers and students experience the classroom differently (Bogden & Biklen, 2011, p. 243-244), the lesson reflections offer a teacher’s perspective of the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit (see section 5.3.2).

5.2 The Role of the Researcher

The advantage to teaching the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit myself as opposed to the classroom teacher was that the lessons took on an aura of “enrichment” from an outside expert teacher. The time I spent with the students each day felt (to me) like a sacred block of time dedicated to questioning common assumptions about language. In addition, extra interest in me as an individual was generated by the fact that I gave birth to my son one month into the school year—students got to see me nine months pregnant and they met my newborn son a few weeks later. Many students offered baby name suggestions before I gave birth, and when I brought my son into the classroom many more told me stories about themselves or their younger siblings as babies. I strongly believe that the students witnessing my physical and social change from pregnancy to motherhood had an enormous impact on their interest in me as a person, and on their motivation to allow me to direct their attention for forty-five minutes each day.

Our social position can also shape our teaching. In this case, I was the teacher of the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit in addition to the researcher. As a former elementary school teacher and current linguistics graduate student, I was aware of the conflict between the need for students to master the socially prestigious language variety and the equally valid need for

students to understand and respect language variation. This research project was motivated by an earlier project I conducted with my former second-grade Spanish-dominant students. Over the course of the school year we collected and documented different ways of “saying the same thing”: e.g., *going to / gonna, para que / pa’ que*. My previous experience teaching language variation to children convinced me that a systematic, rigorous curriculum was needed for bilingual students who were faced with the need to understand and master *two* prestigious dialects—Standard English and Standard Spanish.

5.3 Data Collection and Analysis

This section explains how data were generated, collected and analyzed. First, I discuss the data collection timeline. Second, I discuss the lesson reflections documented for each lesson. Third, I discuss the language surveys that served as pretest and posttests measurements for the research study, in addition to the summative assessment of the curriculum. Fourth, I discuss the conversational interviews conducted with a randomly selected group of Treatment and Control students. Finally, I discuss the demographic information collected about the participants.

5.3.1 Funding and timeline

A New Mexico Research Grant funded this project, awarded in November 2012 from the Graduate and Professional Student Association of the University of New Mexico (totaling \$4,160.90). The NMRG is a funding source specifically for research collaborations with state agencies, or in areas that benefit the state of New Mexico. The award funded the copy costs for the teacher guide and student workbooks, iPod Shuffles used during lessons, a digital recorder to record oral interviews, and a laptop computer. In addition, approximately \$1,000 was dedicated to purchasing dialectally sensitive books for the lessons. After the relevant

lesson, six copies of each book, or one copy of a book series, were left in the Treatment classroom for the students to read at their leisure, which remained in the classroom once the study ended. Approximately \$150 was dedicated to purchasing a collection of 50 age-appropriate books for the Control classroom as thanks for participating¹⁴.

Data collection commenced in August 2013 once I advertised the study to students and parents, and the consent process was completed. In November 2013, I administered the Pretest to both the Treatment and the Control group participants, and asked several participants from both groups to explain their answers to the items in oral interviews. I taught the curriculum through November and December 2013 (eighteen lessons that lasted approximately 45 minutes), documenting my impressions of the curriculum's effectiveness. Posttest1 was administered to the Treatment and the Control group participants before they were released for winter break; the same students who participated in the oral interviews were once again asked to explain their answers to the survey. In late January 2014, Posttest2 was administered to both groups, and in late April and early May 2014, Posttest3 was administered to both groups.

5.3.2 *Lesson reflections*

The lesson reflections function as a tool for teacher and researcher reflexivity. Mason (2002, p. 52) points out that researchers are not completely neutral collectors of data, but instead express their epistemological position through the methods they utilize. Reflexivity entails thinking critically about actions, thoughts and assumptions, and consciously recognizing that our social position shapes our research (Bogden & Biklen, 2011, p. 244; Creswell, 2013, p. 214-217; Mason, 2002, p. 5).

¹⁴ The \$1,150 amount was the amount remaining from the grant after calculating costs of other materials pertinent to the study, such as copy costs, hardware material, and software.

After teaching each lesson of the *LVSS* curriculum, I typed two-column lesson reflections that described the chronological progress of each lesson (“descriptive notes”) in addition to my impressions of how the lesson went (“reflective notes”). The lesson reflections were written in order to document any modifications to lessons or activities and my impressions of each lesson’s effectiveness.

The lesson reflections offer a source of data concerning the relative “success” of each lesson from the perspective of the teacher/researcher. Of course, the perspective of the student participants is excluded from such data, with the exception of where I documented student comments from memory. The lesson reflections are included in the data analysis (see chapters 6 and 7).

While the lesson reflections offer my own perspective, by nature they exclude the viewpoints and experiences of the children who participated in the lessons and the surveys. Therefore, it is not possible to regard these observations or impressions as neutral indicators of a lesson’s effectiveness. However, combined with the numerical scores and the oral interviews, the lesson reflections offer a richer explanation of the merits of the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit designed for this study.

5.3.3 Language survey

This section explains how the data from the language surveys were collected and analyzed. First I explain how the survey items were presented to students. Second I explain how the surveys were administered, and finally I explain the analysis of the survey data.

The survey items were randomly ordered at each time-point for several reasons: (1) to encourage participants to read each item carefully; (2) to discourage participants from copying their answers to previous surveys from memory; and (3) to avoid a possible serial

position effect¹⁵. Random placement of survey items distributes any potential order effects across all the items, so that no particular item is disadvantaged or advantaged by its position in the survey (Oldendick, 2008, pp. 663-665). Table 5.1 below presents the item order for the four administrations. The item numbers refer to the original order that the items were presented on the Pretest.

¹⁵ A serial position effect may occur when a respondent remembers items at the beginning and end of a list better than items that appear in the middle of the list (Scanlon, 2008, pp. 609-610).

Table 5.1: Survey item order randomization

<i>Pretest</i>	<i>Posttest1</i>	<i>Posttest2</i>	<i>Posttest3</i>
1. Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time.	15	10	17
2. Some people sound stupid because of how they talk.	13	17	20
3. Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.	19	5	11
4. People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.	4	11	8
5. I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly.	5	2	18
6. People who speak dialects are lazy.	18	13	15
7. I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks.	7	9	3
8. People can change how they speak according to the situation.	8	20	6
9. People from England speak better English than people from the United States.	20	12	1
10. I have an accent when I speak my native language.	10	19	19
11. Everyone speaks a dialect.	11	3	16
12. The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language.	12	6	2
13. Dialects are sloppy forms of language.	1	15	9
14. It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk.	14	8	4
15. Dialects follow rules or patterns.	3	1	13
16. I think some accents are better than others.	16	18	10
17. Sometimes saying “ <i>What’s up?</i> ” can be more appropriate than saying “ <i>Hello, how are you?</i> ”.	17	7	5
18. Language is always changing.	9	4	14
19. Formal language is always better than informal language.	6	16	7
20. Dialects and slang are the same thing.	2	14	12

I came in to both classrooms to administer and collect the language surveys from participants at all four time-points (Pretest, Posttest1, Posttest2, and Posttest3). I circulated as

students completed the surveys and answered any questions students had. For example, several Control participants asked, “What is a dialect?” I responded that dialects are “different kinds of English or different kinds of Spanish”. Completion of surveys took around fifteen minutes for each time-point. I endeavored to make sure the Treatment participants and Control participants completed the surveys on the same day; only Posttest3 was administered on separate days (the Control group completed Posttest3 six days after the Treatment group). I left paper surveys with the classroom teachers for participants who were absent or unavailable; I collected completed surveys on a subsequent visit to the school. Despite this attempt to collect surveys from all consented participants, not all participants completed all four surveys (see Table 5.2). Posttest2, administered towards the end of January 2014, had the lowest completion rates in both groups: 87.5% for the Treatment group and 81% for the Control group.

Table 5.2: Survey completion rates

<i>Group</i>	<i>Pretest November 6, 2013</i>	<i>Posttest1 December 16, 2013</i>	<i>Posttest2 January 27, 2014</i>	<i>Posttest3 April 28, 2014 (T) May 5, 2014 (C)</i>
Treatment	24/24 (100%)	24/24 (100%)	21/24 (87.5%)	23/24 (96%)
Control	13/16 (81%)	15/16 (94%)	13/16 (81%)	14/16 (87.5%)

When participants who completed the surveys in my presence returned the surveys to me, I visually scanned the surveys to make sure all items had a response. I requested students to answer any items that were left blank. Despite this precaution to avoid nonresponses, there were some nonresponses on each survey (see Table 5.3). For example, on the Treatment group’s Posttest1, there were three nonresponses out of a total expected 480 responses.

Table 5.3: Number of survey nonresponses

<i>Group</i>	<i>Pretest</i>	<i>Posttest1</i>	<i>Posttest2</i>	<i>Posttest3</i>
Treatment	1/480	3/480	1/420	5/460
Control	0/260	0/300	1/260	4/280

Once Treatment and Control group participants completed the language surveys, they were kept in a locked file cabinet in my office. Once data was entered into spreadsheets, the student names were physically cut from the sheets and pseudonyms replaced student names in the database.

There are currently two different positions in the literature regarding the analysis of Likert data (Barnette, 2010, p. 717). Many researchers advocate considering Likert data as continuous, and therefore appropriate for parametric analysis (e.g., Norman, 2010). Studies that have analyzed Likert data as continuous include Alford and Strother (1990), in which native and nonnative speakers of English rated various U.S. English accents on a 7-point Likert scale. These responses were summated, averaged, and analyzed via Repeated Measures ANOVA. In another study, Bokhorst-Heng and Santos Caeon (2009) examined the language attitudes of bilingual youth in Singapore towards their mother tongues and English using a 4-point Likert scale (*Strongly Agree-Agree-Disagree-Strongly Disagree*) with 16 items, calculating a mean score and conducting a Repeated Measures ANOVA.

Other researchers claim that Likert data is strictly ordinal, and therefore require nonparametric analysis (e.g., Busch, 1993; Edmondson, 2005; Gardner & Martin, 2007). Gardner and Martin (2007) argue that Likert data are inherently “lumpy” in that the 5-point or 7-point response scale forces a response to fit a small number of choices. This lumpiness stands in direct contrast to the nature of the equidistant interval scale. They argue that calculating an average from ranked data is therefore misleading. Busch (1993) argues that

treating ranked responses as equidistant is “untenable because the relative intensity of these category labels is ambiguous. How much greater is *sometimes* when compared to *often*?” (p. 734).

In his original design, Rensis Likert (1932, cf. Wood & Fabrigar, 2007, pp. 536-540) intended for multiple items that measured the same attitudinal object to be scored for approval rating (e.g., 5 points for *Strongly Approve*, 4 points for *Approve*, 3 points for *Neutral*, 2 points for *Disapprove*, 1 point for *Strongly Disapprove*), and then summated or averaged. Multiple items were preferred over single items for two reasons: first, summing or averaging scores across related items could minimize the impact of biases of an individual item, and second, multiple items capture the breadth of an attitude, including beliefs, feelings, and behaviors associated with the attitudinal object. The sum or average of multiple items resulted in a *Likert scale*. Likert himself advocated for parametric analyses because the item distributions approached normality (Barnette, 2010, p. 717).

In this study, individual survey item responses are considered to be ordinal scales, while the 10-item subsets of Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes are considered to be interval scales for which a mean score can be calculated. Therefore, both parametric and nonparametric analyses are performed.

The data gathered from the language surveys was coded using two different methods to account for the parametric and nonparametric analyses. The first coding scheme was binary in order to conduct parametric analyses using mean scores, and the second coding scheme followed an ordinal 5-point scoring in order to gauge change in strength of agreement. Each survey item had five possible responses: *Strongly Agree*, *Agree*, *Disagree*, *Strongly Disagree*, and *Don't Know*. Nine items were positive-aligned (ideally respondents

would *Agree/Strongly Agree*) and eleven items were negative-aligned (respondents would ideally *Disagree/Strongly Disagree*) (see Chapter 3 for a detailed description of the language survey).

According to the (parametric) binary coding scheme, positive-aligned items that received agreement responses received 1 point, while disagreements or *Don't Know* responses received zero points (see Example 5.1). On negative-aligned items, responses that expressed disagreement received one point while agreements or *Don't Know* responses received zero points (see Example 5.2). This binary coding scheme resulted in a score called the *Response Index*, and indicates a percentage of students who responded in a favorable (intended) manner toward an item.

Example 5.1 Positive Aligned items: Forward Scored					
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
Everyone speaks a dialect.	1	1	0	0	0

Example 5.2 Negative Aligned items: Reverse Scored					
	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
People who speak dialects are lazy.	0	0	1	1	0

Don't Know responses were scored as zero in the binary coding scheme for two reasons: first, in order to calculate a Response Index that includes only those responses which were considered “correct”, and second, students who responded *Don't Know* on the posttests did not demonstrate expected growth in either Sociolinguistic Knowledge or Language Attitudes. Therefore, it was assumed that students who were uncertain or doubtful of their

responses were not positively impacted by the curriculum. It is important to keep in mind that each item's Response Index score represents 100% of responses for that particular item.

The binary coding scheme allowed statistical analysis of (continuous) mean scores. A Mixed ANOVA was performed with the two 10-item subsets for the Treatment and Control groups (Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes). Steps were made to meet the assumptions of the Mixed ANOVA (i.e. normal distribution, homogeneity of variances, equality of covariance, and sphericity), discussed further in chapters 6 and 7. While all data points were conserved for the calculation of the Response Index, participants with missing data were excluded from the parametric tests.

The Mixed ANOVAs are used to determine if there were differences in the dependent variables of Sociolinguistic Knowledge or Language Attitudes between the two groups over time. The Mixed ANOVA tests for an interaction between the independent variables and the dependent variable. That is, the Mixed ANOVA checks for any effect that group membership (Treatment or Control) or time of survey (Pretest, Post1, Post2, Post3) has on the mean scores for Sociolinguistic Knowledge or Language Attitudes. It also compares the mean scores of Treatment and Control participants across all four time-points (i.e. the equivalent of a Repeated Measures ANOVA), and it compares the mean scores between the two groups regardless of time-point (i.e. the equivalent of a one-way ANOVA). The Between-Subjects factor was GROUP and consisted of two levels: Treatment and Control. The Within-Subjects factor was TIME and consisted of four levels: Pretest, Posttest1, Posttest2, and Posttest3.

The second coding scheme considered the data to be ordinal, producing ordered rankings that conveyed information about the relationship between the values (see Dykema, Blixt, & Stevenson, 2008, pp. 555-556). Therefore, it was assumed that *Strongly Agree*

represented a stronger commitment to agreement than *Agree*, but there is no assumption about how much greater the strength of agreement is.

Positive-aligned survey items were scored according to a five-point system where agreement responses received higher points than disagreement responses, and *Don't Know* responses were coded as zero (see Example 5.3). Similarly, negative-aligned items scored more points with disagreement responses, and agreement responses scored fewer points (see Example 5.4).

Example 5.3: Positive-Aligned Items: forward-scored

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
Everyone speaks a dialect.	4	3	2	1	0

Example 5.4: Negative-Aligned Items: reverse-scored

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
People who speak dialects are lazy.	1	2	3	4	0

This 5-point ordinal scoring allowed nonparametric analysis to be conducted with the data. The Friedman test is the nonparametric equivalent to the Repeated Measures ANOVA and is used with ordinal dependent variables. The Friedman test measures if there were any changes in respondent scores across all four time-points. The independent variable was TIME and had four levels: Pretest, Posttest1, Posttest2, and Posttest3. The dependent variable(s) were the individual survey items that appeared either in the Sociolinguistic Knowledge subset or the Language Attitudes subset. The Friedman test excludes participants

with missing data points, although all data points are reported in the frequency tables (see Chapters 6 and 7).

5.3.4 Conversational interviews

To support the numerical data gathered from the paper language surveys, informal conversational interviews were conducted with select participants from both groups with the intent of gaining insight into why participants selected the answers they did. That is, the purpose of the conversational interviews was to give participants a chance to explain why they agreed or disagreed with an item. The conversational interviews were informal semi-structured interviews that asked open-ended questions (e.g. “Can you tell me why you agreed with number two?”) with unscripted probes to clarify question meaning. To select the interview participants, I selected every fourth student on a classroom student list and asked each one to individually participate in a short interview in which they would explain their answers to the survey items.

To conduct the conversational interviews, I sat next to the participant with the student’s paper survey and digital recorder placed on the table in front of the student. I explained to each student that I was interested in why he/she responded the way he/she did, and that there was no right or wrong answer. I read each question aloud and simply asked, “Can you tell my why you strongly agreed/agreed/disagreed/strongly disagreed?” The conversational interviews took about twenty minutes per student. The conversational interviews were digitally recorded, and identifying information was replaced with pseudonyms in the transcriptions.

Conversational interviewing may produce more accurate survey responses than formal interviewing, especially in situations where the question concepts may be unfamiliar

or ambiguous to respondents (Currivan, 2008). To illustrate how I utilized the conversational interviewing method, below is an excerpt from the Pretest conversational interview conducted with Liz, one of the Control students. In this excerpt, Liz had marked *Disagree* on her paper survey in answer to the item PEOPLE FROM SPAIN SPEAK BETTER SPANISH THAN PEOPLE FROM MEXICO. At first, Liz explained she was unsure how to answer the question, and I followed up by asking her to explain her final response of *Disagree*. When she explained that “they kind of like are the same,” I asked a clarifying question.

Liz: Like I wasn't really like sure about it and um and like, I like, I didn't agree but at the same time I didn't know.

Mary: Okay.

Liz: Yeah.

Mary: Why would you say you don't agree?

Liz: Cause um, because uh, they like, it seems like they kind of speak the same like, like none is better because they kind of like are the same.

Mary: Mm-hmm. Like it's the same kind of Spanish?

Liz: Yeah.

From this exchange, it becomes clear that Liz disagreed with this survey item because she was not aware of the differences between Iberian Spanish and Mexican Spanish. This kind of clarification is crucial to understanding not only the language attitudes of 5th graders, but also the extent of their exposure to language variation.

Six randomly-selected students from each group (for a total of twelve students) participated in a conversational interview that lasted approximately twenty minutes, three females and three males from each group. The conversational interviews were conducted twice with each of the twelve students: after the Pretest and after Posttest1. The conversational interviews were conducted as soon as possible after completion of the survey; most conversational interviews were completed within a week of taking the survey. The interviews were conducted in the language of the paper survey, e.g. if the student had

completed the Spanish side of the survey, then the conversation took place in Spanish (see Table 5.4).

Demographic information from six of the twelve students was collected; the parents of the remaining six students declined to allow the school district to provide this information. All of the Treatment interview participants were bilingual in Spanish and English, while only two Control interview participants were bilingual (see Table 5.4). Sonya was the only Control group student that I interviewed who was bilingual in Spanish and English. Although Jean was listed as a native Spanish speaker in the documents the school district provided, she did not give any indication of bilingualism and spoke in English in each interaction. Zack appeared to be a heritage speaker of Spanish; in his interview, he self-identified as Hispanic and reported that his grandmother spoke Spanish but that English was his native language. It was my impression that Billy and Henry were not bilingual; our interactions were conducted entirely in English and they gave no indication of considering themselves part of a Spanish-speaking community.

Table 5.4: Demographic and achievement information of conversational interview participants

<i>Pseudonym</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Ethnicity</i>	<i>Native Language/ELL?</i>	<i>5th grade Reading proficiency</i>	<i>5th grade Math proficiency</i>	<i>Language used in interview</i>
<i>Treatment group</i>						
Daniela	F	--	--	--	--	E
Mariana	F	Hispanic	Spanish/Yes	No	No	S
Sofia	F	--	--	--	--	S
David	M	Hispanic	Spanish/Yes	Yes	No	S
Emmanuel	M	Hispanic	Spanish/No	Yes	Yes	E
Matias	M	Hispanic	Spanish/No	No	Yes	E/S
<i>Control group</i>						
Jean	F	Caucasian	Spanish/No	Yes	Yes	E
Liz	F	Caucasian	English/No	No	No	E
Sonya	F	--	--	--	--	E
Billy	M	--	--	--	--	E
Henry	M	--	--	--	--	E
Zack	M	--	--	--	--	E

My own physical characteristics of White, female, early-thirties, and native English speaker may have affected students' interview experience and willingness to respond.

Nevertheless, it is likely that these students were familiar with White female teachers from previous experiences at their school; nationally, White teachers made up 84% of the teaching workforce in 2011, and 84% of teachers are female (Feistritzer, 2011). Therefore, students' responses may reflect what they perceive a White female native English speaker would expect to hear.

In my conversations with students, I maintained a calm, casual demeanor that I hoped would diminish any atmosphere of testing or interrogation that often accompanies interactions with adults in schools. I positioned myself as an active listener by making eye contact with students as they spoke and inserting conversational cues such as "mm-hmm" and "okay" when appropriate.

To minimize interviewer-related error that may occur when respondents attempt to respond according to what they perceive is the expected answer, I attempted to maintain as attitudinally neutral as possible regarding the survey items (Anderson-Knott, 2008). Social desirability bias may occur when respondents choose answers that appear to be socially acceptable. For example, several survey items dealt with discrimination towards other speakers based on speech, although some items expressed this concept more overtly than others. Several students changed their answers to the survey questions during their interviews. At times it was clear that the student had misread the question, and other times the motivation was not as clear. For example, Jean, a Control group participant, changed her answer from *Agree* to *Disagree* early in her Pretest interview for the item SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK after I read the question aloud for her. When I asked her to explain her answer, she seemed unable or unwilling to discuss this item.

Mary: Why do you disagree?

Jean: Cause, I don't know.

Mary: Do you think some people sound stupid or not intelligent when they talk, or not really?

Jean: Not really.

Mary: You don't get that feeling from anybody? Okay.

I decided not to pressure her to answer, and we moved on to the next question.

I did not reveal my own opinions or preferences regarding the survey items, although it is likely that the Treatment group students had at least a vague impression of how I would answer certain survey items after participating in the lessons with me. Therefore, it is possible that Treatment students may have been subject to the acquiescence response bias on the posttests, despite my explicit attempts to relieve them of the need to respond "correctly".

Once the conversational interviews were transcribed, student responses for each survey item were extracted and collected in separate Word documents. The student responses were then coded for any change in agreement or disagreement, and themes that came to light in the responses were identified. For example, Control group student responses for the item THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE were extracted from the transcriptions and placed together in a single document. The student responses were coded for “Change” or “No Change” in response. Then, student responses were grouped according to emergent themes. In the case of this particular item, identified themes included “English is correct language for school” and “Either language is acceptable”.

The advantage of asking participants to explain their answers lies in the clarification of students’ thought processes when reading and answering the item. Explanations expressed in students’ own words may generate a more sophisticated analysis of how deeply students understood (or misunderstood) a particular point. A limitation to this use of the conversational interviews was the restricted number of participants who completed the interviews; therefore, the insights gained from the interviews may only be applicable to those particular individuals. However, it is likely that the student interview responses are indicative of the interpretations, attitudes, and impressions of other 5th graders.

5.3.5 Demographic information

Demographic information on Treatment and Control participants was collected from the school district, including birthdate, ethnicity, gender, first and second languages spoken, ELL status, and select academic performance data concerning participants whose parents allowed such data to be collected (16 out of 24 Treatment participants, and 7 out of 16 Control participants). The academic performance data included the district-level benchmark

assessments for reading and math, as well as reading levels in English and Spanish, if applicable, as seen in Table 5.4 above.

5.4 Strengths and Limitations of Study Design

This study adds to previous research on teaching public school students about language variation and style-shifting. The design of the study extends this research to an important new area, the education of English Language Learners in Dual Language programs. Bilingual students are in the unique position of needing to acquire the socially prestigious language variety of both their languages, and therefore they are in dire need of instruction that teaches respect and analysis of language varieties encountered in school contexts.

The study follows a pretest-posttest longitudinal design with one group receiving instruction in Sociolinguistic Awareness and one group receiving normal 5th grade instruction with no Sociolinguistic Awareness intervention. The survey was administered a total of four times, including one pretest and three posttests in the last six months of the school-year. A limitation in the longitudinal design is attrition and non-response; indeed, it was difficult to get all participants to participate in each survey time-point, with the result that no survey had 100% participation from all students (see Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 for response rates).

Several constraints limit the generalizability of this study. First is the quasi-experimental nature of the study. This study was not a true randomized experiment due to the fact that study participants were not randomly assigned to a condition (Treatment or Control); instead, the two intact classrooms were volunteered to serve as potential participants by their classroom teachers. Therefore, experimental validity could be compromised by pre-existing differences between the two groups.

An important preexisting difference between the Treatment and the Control groups was the language of classroom instruction. The Treatment group students were enrolled in the Dual Language strand of their elementary school and most of these students had received instruction in both Spanish and English since kindergarten. The Control group students were enrolled in the English-only strand, and had a much wider variability in bilingualism as well as ethnic origin. Therefore, the two groups were not entirely comparable on a demographic level, although they attended the same grade in the same elementary school. This possible selection bias threat means the results may not be entirely attributable to the Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons; for example, the bilingual students' preexisting awareness of language issues may predispose them to be more sensitive to instruction regarding dialectal variation and style-shifting. However, the application of a pretest to determine the similarities and differences in participants' Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes may help alleviate this possible validity threat, in that the students' pretest scores serve as control indicators. Thus, a similar starting point in Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes may provide more evidence for the efficacy of the *LVSS* lessons.

The restricted sample size is a second factor that limits the generalizability to other populations. There were not an equal number of participants in each group; 24 students (the entire class) participated in the Treatment condition, while only 16 students (roughly two-thirds of the class) participated in the Control group. It is possible that the Control group students who volunteered to participate were students who, in general, were more interested in school or scientific studies. Furthermore, the majority of students who participated, both in the Treatment and Control conditions, were of Hispanic origin and likely all of the students (even the native English-speaking students) had at least a minimal exposure to Spanish (if

they were not fully bilingual). Therefore, the student population in this study does not represent the general population of K-12 students in the United States. This small sample size limits the statistical power to detect a true effect of the lessons.

Other sources of variability that may stem from the participants include the different levels of student achievement, including English proficiency, and classroom behavior.

Overall, the Treatment participants impressed me with their engagement in the lessons and ability to work in small groups; it is likely that their good behavior also impacted the successfulness of the *LVSS* curriculum.

Other limitations stem from the logistical decisions made in order to implement the *LVSS* curriculum. First there were a limited amount of lessons imparted to Treatment participants. While this particular curriculum contains only 18 lessons of approximately 810 contact minutes, it does approximate the length of other units commonly encountered in 5th grade, such as a science unit on weather or a math unit on fractions. Ideally, Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons would be incorporated into reading, writing, and spelling curricula throughout the school year and in every grade level. To achieve long-lasting and far-reaching change on Language Attitudes and gain in Sociolinguistic Knowledge, age-appropriate sociolinguistics education must be sustained over the entire grade-school career. I will return to this point in the conclusion.

There were advantages and disadvantages of teaching the *LVSS* curriculum myself, as opposed to recruiting the classroom teacher. As an experienced public school classroom teacher, I was familiar with the common challenges in elementary education, such as behavior issues and constant interruptions. As the designer of the lessons, I could gain a first-hand experience in what worked and did not work in the lessons. In addition, managing the

conflicting goals of the curriculum (teaching students to respect all language varieties, while at the same time teaching students that one particular variety is crucial to academic success) required persistent tact and diplomacy.

On the other hand, inviting a classroom teacher to take part in Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction could have offered valuable feedback not only in the design of the lessons but also in how the students internalized (or not) the Sociolinguistic Knowledge imparted by the lessons. As visitor to the elementary school, I did not have familiarity or a long-term history with the site or the students, and I was not personally invested in the success of the students beyond the research project. Furthermore, I was unfamiliar with the local speech patterns of the participants (for example, if they used phrases such as *¿Qué onda?* or *What's up?* in peer-to-peer contexts). A classroom teacher who has daily contact with students would likely have a better understanding of the local speech patterns. Therefore, classroom teachers are ultimately the appropriate conveyors of linguistic knowledge that can result in improved language attitudes due to their committed relationships with their students and the school context. Students may be more motivated to learn about language variation when the instruction comes from their own classroom teacher.

Another issue to consider is the use of paper surveys with children. Surveys may not be a completely valid way to capture children's attitudes or beliefs towards language. It may be a difficult cognitive burden for some children to go through the multi-step process of comprehending the survey item, assessing their own opinion, and mapping their opinion onto the survey responses provided. In addition, assessing knowledge gained through *Agree/Disagree* responses may not entirely capture what participants learned; some information that students learn may not be reflected on the survey, or participants may

misinterpret the survey items. Indeed, it became clear that some participants interpreted survey items in different and even unintended ways (discussed further in chapters 6 and 7). Expecting standard results from different children, who by nature possess a wide variability of experiences and knowledge to draw from, may be one of the major inevitable flaws of educational research. Indeed, it may be unreasonable to expect all children to interpret unanimously survey items that deal with the fuzzy area of attitudes, beliefs and opinions. Yet, at the heart of language awareness instruction is the acknowledgement that all human beings are different, and one of the myriad ways of expressing this difference is via language.

As with much research conducted in schools, the study was conducted at the convenience and availability of the students and classroom teachers. I came in to teach the *LVSS* lessons at differing times of school day, according to the classroom teacher's schedule; sometimes my lessons were the first instruction the students received that day, sometimes I came in after the students returned from lunch, and sometimes the *LVSS* lessons were the last lessons of the day. As can be expected in any public school setting, the lessons were subject to multiple interruptions from the intercom, students being pulled out of class for specific programs such as Gifted and Talented or Special Education, and students returning from these programs. Despite this constant negotiation of logistics, this situation represents the reality for many public school classroom teachers who successfully teach their subjects notwithstanding the constant interruptions to a lesson's procedure.

A final point that deserves consideration in the design and implementation of all curricula, not just language awareness units, includes the group reference factor, or the willingness of students to participate and learn. The group reference factor and motivation of the students may outweigh any instructional program, no matter how well designed (Labov,

1965; Wolfram, Adger, & Christian, 1999; Wolfram & Fasold, 1974, p. 184). That is to say, student motivation to learn the socially preferred language variety or to maintain his/her own native dialect overrides even the best teaching methodology. To successfully acquire or maintain a language variety, there must be a desire and expectation on the part of the student to become a member of the group represented who speaks that variety. If students do not see the relevance of the proposed variety to their lives, or do not identify with the group who uses that variety, they may resist learning it (Wolfram, Adger, & Christian, 1999).

5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the rationale for the study design and the implementation of the *LVSS* curriculum. This mixed-methods study investigates whether a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum can impact the Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes of bilingual fifth graders. The collection and analysis of the data points were discussed in detail, specifically the lesson reflections, the language surveys, the conversational interviews, and the demographic information of participants. These multiple data points attempt to measure both quantitatively and qualitatively any change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge or Language Attitudes on the part of the students. The next two chapters discuss the results of the study regarding change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge (Chapter 6) and Language Attitudes (Chapter 7).

Chapter 6: Sociolinguistic Knowledge Results

6.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items of the language survey for the Treatment and the Control groups. The ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items were designed to answer the first research question:

Research Question 1: After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge**? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (5 months) maintenance of change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge?

There are three major findings identified from the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items. First, the Treatment group showed a positive change in mean score on eight out of ten survey items, providing evidence for the effectiveness of the *LVSS* curriculum in increasing Sociolinguistic Knowledge of participants. However, only two of the eight successful items sustained the positive change by the end of the school year, indicating that Sociolinguistic Knowledge, like other types of learning, is vulnerable to loss over time. The second major finding was that the Control group students performed significantly lower on the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items than their Treatment group peers. This finding strongly suggests that students in Dual Language classrooms may be more sociolinguistically knowledgeable than their peers in English-only classrooms. Finally, the third major finding involved gender. Treatment boys performed slightly better than Treatment girls on three out of four survey time-points, and both genders showed gain from the Pretest to Posttest3. In contrast, the Control group boys showed a steady decline in performance on Sociolinguistic Knowledge over the course of the school year. While Control group girls' scores wavered, they too ended the school year lower than their Pretest mean scores. This finding provides

evidence that bilingual boys appeared slightly more sociolinguistically knowledgeable than bilingual girls, and furthermore, both genders in the English-only class appeared to lose Sociolinguistic Knowledge over time. Together, these three findings support the usefulness of the *LVSS* curriculum in providing sociolinguistic content to students; moreover, these findings suggest that Dual Language education may be superior to English-only instruction in promoting sociolinguistic awareness in students.

In this chapter, first I discuss the reliability and validity of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items that appeared on the survey. Second, I present a comparison of the Treatment and Control group students' performance on the survey, first as intact groups, next according to gender. Third, I discuss the results of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items across all four administrations (Pretest, Posttest1, Posttest2, and Posttest3). I discuss both numerical results and the conversational interviews to help explain the observed trends. I conclude the chapter by discussing the efficacy of the *LVSS* unit in increasing Sociolinguistic Knowledge of bilingual fifth-grade students.

6.2 Reliability and Validity of the Sociolinguistic Knowledge Survey Items

Identifying the reliability and validity of the survey is critical to determine if the survey yields consistent results and if it measures what it is designed to measure. The construct validity was tested using principal components analysis (PCA). PCA was used to determine if the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items actually measure the Knowledge content of dialect knowledge, style-shifting, and language variation. PCA involves a series of steps to determine any underlying structure that the ten survey items may have, that is, if the ten survey items appear to be measuring similar variables. If the ten items do not load onto the three or four factors predicted by the test's design, that would indicate that the items do

not measure what they are supposed to measure and therefore have poor validity. If, however, the items do load onto three or four factors, that would indicate that the items are measuring similar constructs and would provide evidence of strong construct validity.

Therefore, a principal components analysis (PCA) was run on the 10-question subsection of the language survey that measured Sociolinguistic Knowledge on the twenty-four Treatment Participation students' first posttest scores, with a total of 238 observations and 2 nonresponses. Appendix D details the statistical steps taken to determine if the data were factorizable and what steps were taken to accommodate assumptions of the PCA. The final results for the PCA are reported in Table 6.1 below. The PCA resulted in the identification of four factors (variables) among nine out of ten survey items. One item that does not appear in Table 6.1 was eliminated from the PCA analysis because it loaded onto two factors relatively weakly, indicating it did not accord with the identified factors (LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING¹⁶).

The remaining nine items loaded strongly (at 0.70 or above) onto the four identified factors. These four factors were given the names “Systemic Dialects”, “Dialect Misconceptions”, “Variation in All Speakers”, and “Variation in Own Speech” according to the sociolinguistic content of the survey items. The column labeled “communality” indicates the proportion of each item’s variance that can be explained by the extracted factors. All communalities are relatively strong (0.50 or above) indicating that these items do not need to be excluded from the statistical analysis.

¹⁶ The problematic loading of this item indicates it was not interpreted as intended, making it a candidate for revision. The students’ interpretation of this item is discussed in section 6.5.4.3.

Table 6.1: Sociolinguistic Knowledge factor loadings and communalities

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factors</i>				<i>Communality</i>
	<i>Systemic Dialects</i>	<i>Dialect Miscon- ceptions</i>	<i>Variation in All Speakers</i>	<i>Variation in Own Speech</i>	
Item 15, Dialects follow rules or patterns	.83				.72
Item 3, Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar	.81				.79
Item 7, I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he or she talks	.71				.57
Item 13, Dialects are sloppy forms of language		.93			.90
Item 20, Dialects and slang are the same thing		.87			.82
Item 11, Everyone speaks a dialect			.87		.85
Item 8, People can change the way they speak according to the situation	.41		.75		.74
Item 17, Sometimes saying ‘What’s up?’ can be more appropriate than saying ‘Hello how are you?’				.87	.82
Item 1, I have an accent when I speak my native language	.30		.37	.71	.74

Note. Factor loadings < 0.3 are suppressed.

The PCA results reported above give a strong indication of the survey items’ construct validity, that is, that the items are measuring what they were designed to measure. Special note should be taken of the item I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE, which had a strong loading onto the factor “Variation in Own Speech”, but also relatively weak (but not unnoticeable) loadings onto two other factors, “Systemic Dialects”

and “Variation in All Speakers”. These weaker loadings given an indication that revision may be necessary to rule out any unintended interpretations. The item PEOPLE CAN CHANGE THE WAY THEY SPEAK ACCORDING TO THE SITUATION also had a weaker cross-loading of 0.41 on the factor “Systemic Dialects”.

In addition to the construct validity of the survey items, the reliability (i.e. the extent to which the items yield stable and consistent results) was also calculated using Cronbach’s alpha for each of the four identified factors from the principal components analysis (see Table 6.2). The first factor, “Systemic Dialects”, consisted of three questions. The scale had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.726. The second factor, “Dialect Misconceptions”, consisted of two questions and had a high level of internal consistency (0.807). The third factor, “Variation in all speakers”, consisted of two questions and had a low level of internal consistency (0.495). The fourth factor, “Variation in Own Speech”, consisted of two questions and also had a low level of internal consistency (0.363). The relatively low correlation coefficients for “Variation in All Speakers” and “Variation in Own Speech” are likely due to the weaker cross-loadings of items included in those factors.

Table 6.2: Sociolinguistic Knowledge descriptive statistics for Cronbach's alpha

<i>Factor</i>	<i>No. of items</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Cronbach's α</i>
Systemic Dialect Variation	3	1.91	1.164	0.726
Dialect Basics	2	0.92	0.929	0.807
Variation in All Speakers	2	1.08	0.830	0.495
Variation in Own Speech	2	1.17	0.761	0.363

The results from the reliability correlation coefficient indicate that at least five of the Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items are reliable measures. The remaining five survey items should be examined for possible revision in future studies.

A further tool used to determine quality of test items is item analysis. Item analysis helps identify test items that may need to be eliminated or rewritten. This is achieved by calculating each item's difficulty and each item's capacity to discriminate between higher and lower-scoring students. Test items that are assessed with dichotomous answers (correct/incorrect) must achieve an item difficulty level of above 0.50 (the level at which students could guess the correct answer by chance) and below 1.0 (the level at which all students obtain the correct answer). An item difficulty level of around 0.75 would indicate adequate difficulty. The discriminatory power of each item was calculated with point-biserial correlations, that is, the correlation between performance on the individual test item and performance on the overall test. A higher correlation (closer to 1.0) indicates a stronger discriminatory power, while a low or negative correlation indicates poor discriminatory power.

Table 6.3 shows the corrected point-biserial correlations (discriminatory power) for each item and the corresponding means (difficulty level). Items that are considered "acceptable" require a corrected point biserial correlation of at least 0.15 (Varma, n.d.); three items did not meet this threshold of item quality, suggesting these items should be reviewed for content and wording (I CAN GUESS WHERE A PERSON COMES FROM BY LISTENING TO HOW HE/SHE TALKS; EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT; SOMETIMES SAYING 'WHAT'S UP?' CAN BE MORE APPROPRIATE THAN SAYING 'HELLO HOW ARE YOU?').

The mean scores column shows the ratio of Treatment students who scored correctly on Posttest1, which gives an indication of the item's difficulty. Five items had mean scores that clustered around the 50% level, meaning that these items may not be strong indicators of sociolinguistic knowledge, since students may have been able to guess the correct answer. These five items are candidates for future revision. One item, DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING had the lowest number of correct responses (42%), indicating that this was the most difficult of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items. Four items had difficulty levels at or near the 75% level, suggesting these items were strong indicators of Sociolinguistic Knowledge.

Table 6.3: Item Analysis for Sociolinguistic Knowledge Scale

<i>Item</i>	<i>Corrected Point Biserial Correlation</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Revisions Recommended?</i>
Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar	.61	.67	No
I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks	.13	.74	Yes
People can change how they speak according to the situation	.32	.54	Yes
I have an accent when I speak my native language	.40	.46	Yes
Everyone speaks a dialect	.13	.54	Yes
Dialects are sloppy forms of language	.21	.50	Yes
Dialects follow rules or patterns	.18	.54	Yes
Sometimes saying “What’s up?” can be more appropriate than saying “Hello, how are you?”	-.01	.71	Yes
Language is always changing	.15	.78	No
Dialects and slang are the same thing	.35	.42	Yes

In sum, the item analysis showed that two items had both an adequate level of difficulty and an adequate correlation with total test performance (DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, AND GRAMMAR and LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING), and thus may not need revision. Of the remaining eight items, two items had adequate difficulty level but did not correlate well with total test performance. Five items’ difficulty level was close to chance, and despite adequate discriminatory power, should be examined for possible revision. Finally, one item (DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING) had adequate discriminatory power but was possibly too

difficult for students. These numerical results, along with the qualitative results from student interviews, should inform future revisions of the Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items.

Taking into consideration the results of the PCA and the original design of the items, the ten items were grouped into thematic sets that guide the remainder of the analysis (see Table 6.4 below). Two items assessed dialect misconceptions; three items assessed knowledge of systemic dialect patterning; two items assessed language variation awareness; and three items assessed knowledge of style-shifting¹⁷.

Table 6.4: Sociolinguistic Knowledge grouped items

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Grouped Items</i>
Language Variation Awareness	Item 11: Everyone speaks a dialect. Item 10: I have an accent when I speak my native language.
Systemic Dialects	Item 3: Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns. Item 7: I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks.
Dialect Misconceptions	Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language. Item 20: Dialects and slang are the same thing.
Style-shifting	Item 17: Sometimes saying “What’s up?” can be more appropriate than saying “Hello, how are you?”. Item 8: People can change how they speak according to the situation. Item 18: Language is always changing.*

*Note. This item was originally meant to refer to language change over time.

The next section compares the results of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items of the Treatment and Control group participants.

¹⁷ The item “Language is always changing” was originally meant to refer to language change over time, but few students interpreted it that way, as will be discussed below.

6.3 Comparison of Treatment and Control Groups

The first research question asked if 5th graders receiving lessons in Sociolinguistic Awareness would demonstrate a change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge. In order to determine if any change the Treatment group may exhibit was due to the curriculum as opposed to normal developmental growth and maturation, the responses of the Treatment group are compared to those of Control group students, who did not participate in the curriculum.

To compare the responses of the two groups numerically, a Mixed ANOVA was run with the data using SPSS version 22, with the within-subjects variable being TIME (four levels: Pretest, Post1, Post2, and Post3), the between-subjects variable being GROUP (Treatment or Control), and the dependent variable being the mean scores of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items. A Mixed ANOVA is essentially the performance of a Repeated Measures ANOVA simultaneous with a one-way ANOVA.

In this case, the Mixed ANOVA determines if there is an interaction between TIME and GROUP on the mean scores of the students. This statistical procedure may help determine if one of the experimental treatments (participation in *LVSS* or non-participation in *LVSS*) is more effective at raising Sociolinguistic Knowledge. If the *LVSS* curriculum were effective at educating students in Sociolinguistic Knowledge, we would expect to see a difference between the two groups' scores and between the Treatment group's Pretest and Posttest(s).

Several steps were taken to meet the assumptions of the Mixed ANOVA. First, the data was inspected for outliers. There were two outliers in the data, as assessed by visual inspection of a boxplot for values greater than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of the box (the

scores of Treatment participants 16 [100%] and 24 [40%] in Posttest2). Both these outliers were removed from the analysis (see Figure 6.1).

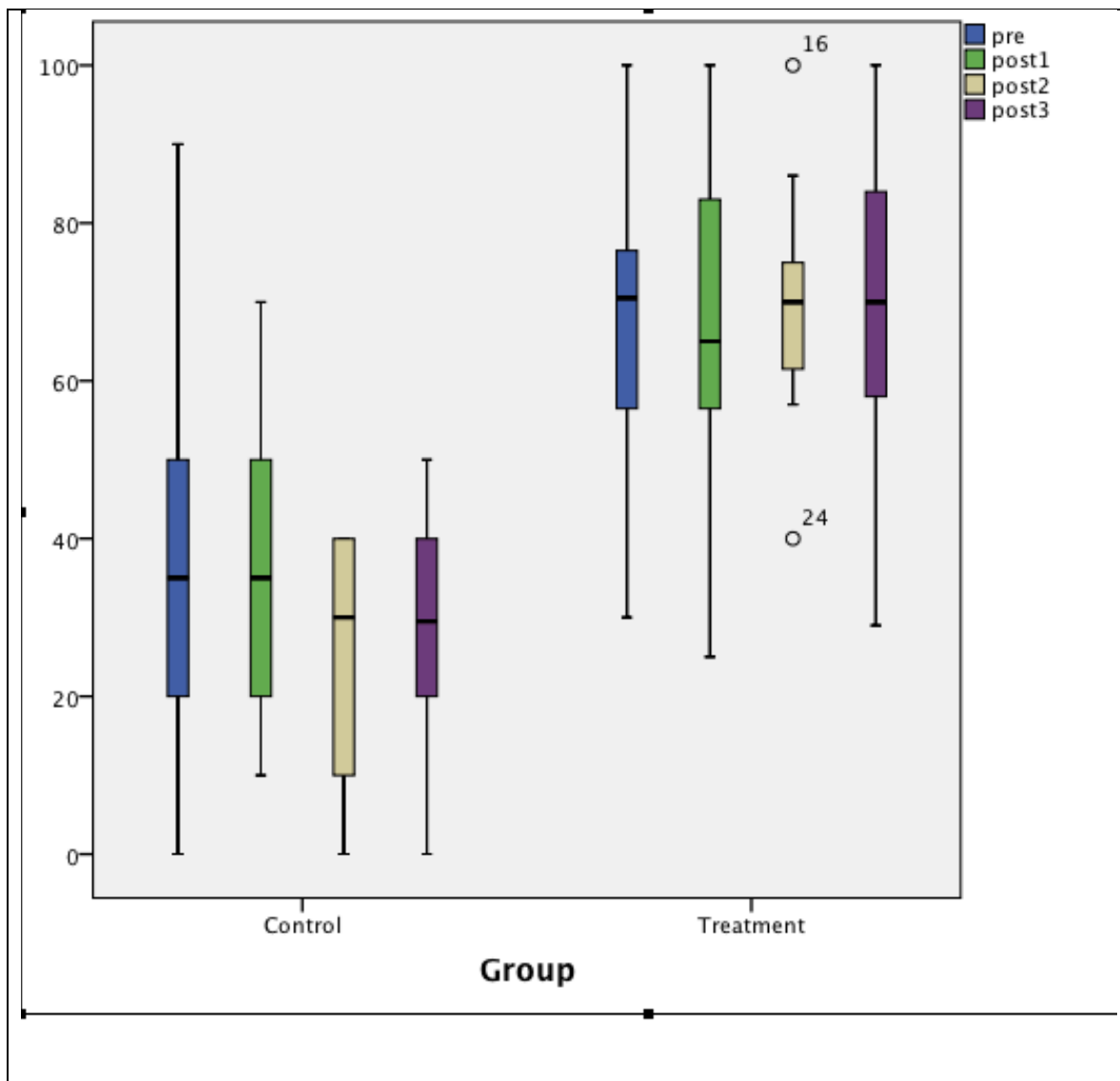


Figure 6.1: Sociolinguistic Knowledge boxplots for Treatment and Control groups

The second assumption of a Mixed ANOVA is a normal distribution of scores. The Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores were normally distributed for all interventions at all time points, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > 0.05$), except for the Control group's Post2 scores ($N = 13$, $p = 0.019$). Z scores were calculated for the Control Post2 scores with a skewness of -0.451 (standard error = 0.687, $z = -0.656$) and kurtosis of -1.79 (standard error

= 1.334, $z = -1.34$). Because the z scores fell within ± 2.58 , the Control Post2 scores were determined to be normally distributed. This was confirmed by a visual inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots.

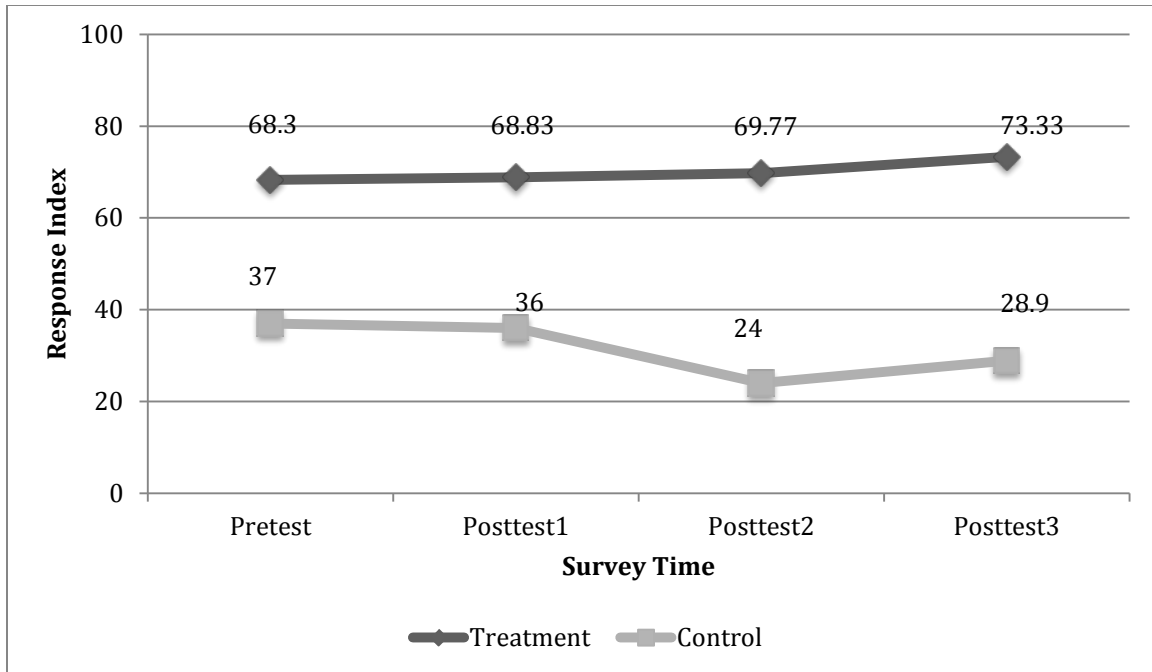
A third assumption of the Mixed ANOVA that must be met is homogeneity of variances, that is, that the samples not be skewed. There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variance ($p > 0.05$), except for Posttest2 ($p = 0.0005$). A fourth assumption has to do with the covariation between the two experimental conditions; this is due to the same participants participating in each time-point. There was homogeneity of covariances, as assessed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices ($p = 0.313$).

A further assumption of the Mixed ANOVA is sphericity, which tests the equality of variances of the differences between treatment levels (the differences between pairs of scores also require equal variances). The assumption of sphericity was violated, as determined by Mauchly's test of sphericity ($p = 0.024$). This result indicates that the variances between the difference scores were significantly different, and therefore results in a loss of statistical power to detect a true effect of the *LVSS* curriculum on the Treatment students' mean scores. This loss of power is likely due to the low sample size (Treatment group $N = 24$, Control group $N = 16$). Future investigations must take care to increase sample size to ~300 participants to increase statistical power. To correct for this violation, the Greenhouse-Geisser F-ratios are reported.

The Mixed ANOVA gives the F-ratio and p-value for the within-group variable TIME and the between-group variable GROUP, to determine if there were statistically significant differences in the two groups' mean scores over time (the four administrations of

the survey). There was not a statistically significant interaction between GROUP and TIME on Sociolinguistic Knowledge, $F(3, 78) = 1.297, p = 0.283$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.048$. The main effect of TIME did not show a statistically significant difference in Sociolinguistic Knowledge at the different time points, $F(3, 78) = 0.650, p = 0.552$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.024$. The main effect of GROUP showed that there was a statistically significant difference in Sociolinguistic Knowledge between intervention groups $F(1, 26) = 92.918, p < 0.0005$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.781$.

The Mixed ANOVA numbers point to two main statistical results. First, the Treatment group performed better than the Control group on all four measurements (a statistically significant difference, $p < 0.0005$), indicating stronger Sociolinguistic Knowledge on the part of the Treatment students. The superior performance of the bilingual students over the (mostly) monolingual students in Sociolinguistic Knowledge is likely related to superior metalinguistic awareness of bilingual children (Bialystok, Peets & Moreno, 2014; Cummins, 1978; Galambos & Hakuta, 1988). Secondly, neither the Treatment group nor the Control group changed their survey answers significantly across time (see Figure 6.2).



GROUP x TIME: $F(3, 78) = 1.297, p = 0.283$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.048$

TIME: $F(3, 78) = 0.650, p = 0.552$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.024$

GROUP: $F(1, 26) = 92.918, p < 0.0005$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.781$

Figure 6.2: Summary mean scores for Sociolinguistic Knowledge items

The results of the Mixed ANOVA indicate that the *LVSS* curricula did not result in statistically significant gain scores for the Treatment group over the four survey administrations. However, there was a statistically significant difference between the Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores of the two groups. To find out exactly where this difference was located, independent samples t-tests were run between the scores of the two groups.

As in the Mixed ANOVA, certain assumptions must be met in t-tests. There were no outliers in any of the survey scores, as assessed by a visual inspection of boxplots. Mean scores for both groups were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro Wilk's test, (except

for the Posttest2 scores for the Control group), and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, except for Posttest2 (see Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Independent Samples t-test assumptions of Sociolinguistic Knowledge mean scores

	<i>Shapiro Wilk's test</i>		<i>Levene's test</i>
	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Control</i>	
Pretest	0.142	0.229	0.304
Posttest1	0.526	0.330	0.476
Posttest2	0.491	0.01	< 0.0001
Posttest3	0.192	0.839	0.573

The independent samples t-tests confirm that the Treatment group students performed significantly different from the Control group on all four survey administrations, $p < 0.0005$ (see Table 6.6 below).

Table 6.6: Independent Samples t-tests results

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Difference Score</i>	<i>Confidence Interval</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
PRETEST								
Treatment	24	66.91	17.23					
Control	13	33.07	23.93	-33.83	-47.67 -20.00	35	-4.966	0.0005
POSTTEST1								
Treatment	24	67.7	17.82					
Control	15	39.33	19.8	-28.37	-40.78 -15.96	37	-4.634	0.0005
POSTTEST2*								
Treatment	19	69.1	8.23					
Control	13	25.69	16.96	-43.41	-52.58 -34.23	15.902	-8.561	0.0005
POSTTEST3								
Treatment	23	71.6	20.10					
Control	14	34.64	17.48	-36.96	-50.16 -23.77	35	-4.966	0.0005

*equal variances not assumed.

In sum, the Treatment group performed significantly better than the Control group on the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items on all four surveys, although there was not a statistically significant difference in the Treatment group's mean scores across all four time periods. These results indicate that the Treatment group began with more Sociolinguistic

Knowledge than their Control group peers, and that this difference was maintained over the course of the study. The Mixed ANOVA results suggest that the *LVSS* curriculum did not significantly increase Sociolinguistic Knowledge of the Treatment students (that is, any change could be due to random chance). To probe this conclusion further, the next section discusses the survey results of boys and girls in each group.

6.4 Treatment and Control Group Results by Gender

To probe the results of the Pre- and Posttests further, the mean scores of the Treatment and Control group students were compared across gender (see Figure 6.3). Given that previous research has provided evidence of girls' superior verbal skills and quicker language development (e.g., Coates, 2004; Gurian & Stevens, 2004; Odat, 2013), it would be expected that girls would show higher Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores than male peers, and that bilingual girls would show the highest Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores, having the two advantages of being female and bilingual.

However, this expectation was not born out. In fact, the bilingual boys had the highest Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores on three out of four surveys. The boys in the Treatment group performed slightly better than the Treatment girls on the Pretest, Posttest2, and Posttest3, although these differences were not statistically significant¹⁸. Of special note is that both the boys and the girls in the Treatment group ended the school year with higher scores. The boys' mean score on the Pretest was 0.69, which increased to 0.74 on Posttest3, a gain of five percentage points. The girls' mean score on the Pretest was 0.62, which increased to 0.68, a gain of six percentage points by Posttest3. These percentage gains provide promising

¹⁸ Mixed ANOVA results (Between-subjects, Treatment Girls, Treatment Boys, Control Girls, Control Boys): Test for interaction, $F(9,78) = 0.77$, $p = 0.644$, partial eta squared = 0.082; Test of main effect for TIME, $F(3,78) = 0.484$, $p = 0.694$, partial eta squared = 0.018; Test of main effect for GENDER, $F(3,26) = 563.04$, $p = 0.0001$, partial eta squared = 0.758.

evidence that the *LVSS* curriculum is effective at increasing Sociolinguistic Knowledge in students of both genders. Furthermore, the difference in scores of the Treatment boys was statistically significant from both the Control boys ($p = 0.01$) and the Control girls ($p = 0.005$). The difference in the Treatment girls' scores was statistically significant from the Control boys ($p = 0.014$) and the Control girls ($p = 0.006$) as well¹⁹.

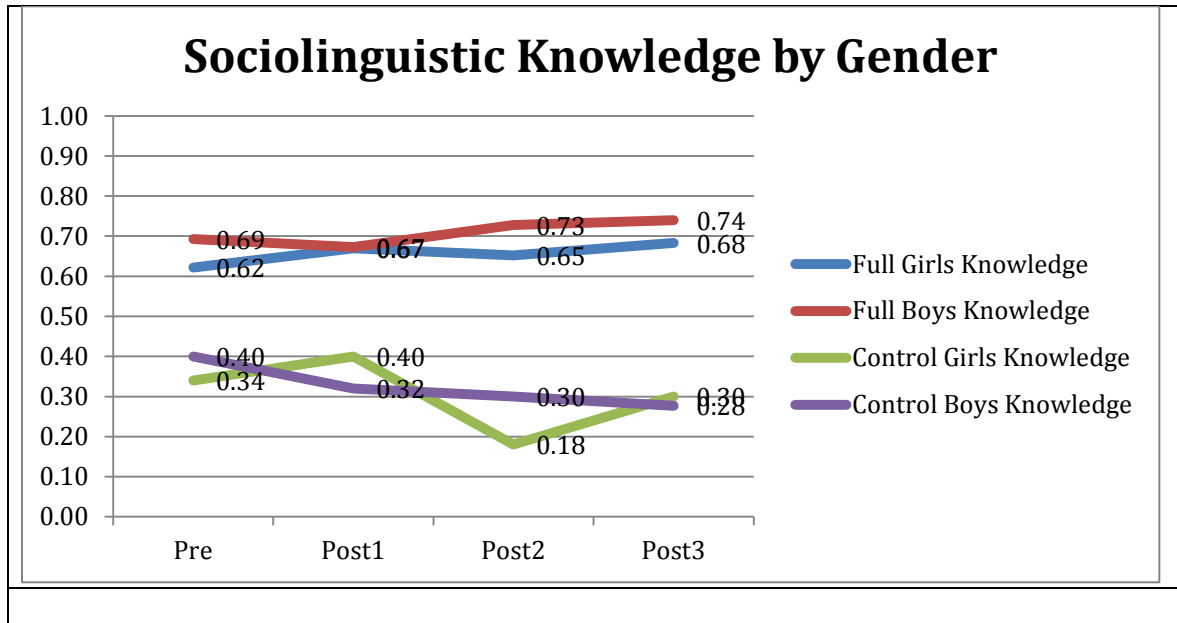


Figure 6.3: Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores by gender

In contrast, the boys and girls in the Control group showed a reverse trend from their Treatment group counterparts. Instead of increasing their scores over time, or maintaining scores, both the boys and the girls in the Control group showed a decrease in mean scores over time (which were significantly different from each other). That is, both the boys and the girls had lower scores on Posttest3 than they had on the Pretest. While the Control girls' scores wavered, increasing on Posttest1 and decreasing again on Posttest2, the boys demonstrated a steady decline of Sociolinguistic Knowledge over time. The boys' mean score on the Pretest was 0.40, which decreased twelve percentage points to 0.28 on Posttest3.

¹⁹ with Games-Howell correction for unequal variances.

The girls' mean score on the Pretest was 0.34, which decreased four percentage points to 0.30 on Posttest3. The results from the Control group provide a strong indication that without instruction in sociolinguistic concepts, students actually lose Sociolinguistic Knowledge over time. This finding supports the assertion that all students would benefit from sociolinguistic instruction.

Considering that previous research has found girls to be superior in language development, it is surprising that the bilingual boys outperformed the bilingual girls in Sociolinguistic Knowledge on three out of four surveys. There are several possible explanations for this result. First, it may be that the bilingual boys in this sample simply had higher metalinguistic (and sociolinguistic) awareness. Ardila et al. (2011) investigated gender differences in cognitive abilities such as Language, Spatial, and Sensory-Perceptual domains. Although they concluded that gender differences were minimal, they found the boys outperformed girls in three domains, one of which was Language.

A second possible explanation is related to interactions between the teacher and students. Gender differences in academic performance have been found to correlate with teacher gender favoritism (Entwisle, Alexander, & Olson, 1997). That is, teachers who favor boys have greater test score gains among boys than girls, and the reverse is true for teachers who favor girls. Teacher gender favoritism may be conveyed by actions such as eye contact, smiling at students, acknowledging or ignoring students, or pressing some but not others for answers (ibid. p. 132). Different sets of behaviors are either encouraged or discouraged by a child's social network (parents, teachers, peers) according to the gender group to which a child has been assigned (Gallagher & Kaufman, 2004, p. 319). Hence it is possible that the higher Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores in bilingual boys reflect my own unconscious (or

the classroom teacher's) gender favoritism towards boys. If the lessons had been videotaped, that would have provided evidence to support or dispute this theory, since my interactions with boys in comparison with girls could be analyzed. While I do not think I favored boys in the lessons, it is possible that like many teachers, I unwittingly collude in the dominance of boys in the classroom by expecting girls to be quiet and compliant, giving boys more attention, or admonishing girls for the same types of behavior that go unnoticed in boys (Coates, 2004, p. 191-196). Despite this possibility, the bilingual boys actually lost ground on Posttest1 (losing two percentage points, from 69% to 67%) while the bilingual girls gained five percentage points (62% to 67%) on Posttest1. Therefore, I think it unlikely that gender favoritism is an adequate explanation.

A third possible explanation lies in self-efficacy beliefs, which have been found to be powerful predictors of performance (Pajares, 2004). Boys tend to be overconfident in their answers, while girls, especially gifted girls, are more prone to underconfidence. Pajares (2004, p. 304-309) notes that there is little evidence for gender differences in self-efficacy beliefs at the elementary level, with differences usually emerging at middle school and increasing as students get older. Nevertheless, self-efficacy beliefs could be at work among these 10-to-11 year olds; a useful gauge of the participants' self-efficacy beliefs could have asked students to indicate their confidence in their answers. I will discuss the ramifications of these gender differences for future studies in Chapter 8.

6.5 Sociolinguistic Knowledge Item Results

This section presents the results of the ten individual Sociolinguistic Knowledge items. First I present overall results of each of the ten items. Next I discuss the Treatment group's and the Control group's performance on and perception of each item.

As was explained in Chapter 5, for each item, a Response Index was calculated that reflects the “correct” scores obtained by the group of students. A Response Index was calculated in order to account for forward-coded and reverse-coded survey items, that is, survey items that required an agreement response (*Agree* or *Strongly Agree*) to be considered correct and survey items that required a disagreement response (*Disagree* or *Strongly Disagree*) to be considered correct. *Don’t Know* responses are coded as “incorrect” responses in the Response Index calculation, since this response indicates lack of Sociolinguistic Knowledge or uncertainty regarding Language Attitude. Therefore, the Response Indices reported below give an indication of the proportion of students who scored “correctly” on that particular item.

Table 6.7 below shows the rank order of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items by highest difference between the Treatment group’s Posttest1 and Pretest mean scores through the lowest difference in mean scores, which provides a glance of which items measured the most impact of the LVSS lessons. Eight of the ten items experienced at least some positive change, while two items experienced zero or negative change. Item 11 EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT and Item 20 DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING showed the most growth from Pretest to Posttest1 with 21% change on both items. Item 3 DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR experienced zero change from Pretest to Posttest1, while Item 10 I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE actually measured loss of knowledge (-4% change).

Table 6.7: Summary results of Sociolinguistic Knowledge items for Treatment group

<i>Rank Order</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Pretest Mean</i>	<i>Posttest1 Mean</i>	<i>Difference Posttest1 -- Pretest</i>
1	Item 11 Everyone speaks a dialect	0.33	0.54	0.21
	Item 20 Dialects and slang are the same thing	0.21	0.42	0.21
2	Item 15 Dialects follow rules or patterns	0.38	0.54	0.16
	Item 7 I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks	0.58	0.74	0.16
	Item 13 Dialects are sloppy forms of language	0.38	0.5	0.12
4	Item 18 Language is always changing	0.71	0.78	0.07
5	Item 17 Sometimes saying What's up can be more appropriate than saying Hello how are you?	0.65	0.71	0.06
	Item 8 People can change how they speak according to the situation	0.48	0.54	0.06
6	Item 3 Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar	0.67	0.67	0.0
7	Item 10 I have an accent when I speak my native language	0.5	0.46	-0.04

Figure 6.4 shows the change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge items from the Pretest to Posttest1, where the change in mean scores is mapped onto the Y-axis and the change in standard deviations is mapped onto the X-axis. This figure gives a pictorial representation of the successfulness of the survey items, presenting both the change in mean score and change in variability of responses. Only one item, I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE, showed a negative change in mean score, but no change in variability. One item showed no change in mean score or standard deviation (DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, AND GRAMMAR).

The remaining eight knowledge items showed positive growth in mean scores. Three items showed both positive gains in mean score and reduction in variability, suggesting that

the lessons were successful in conveying sociolinguistic concepts as measured by these three particular items (I CAN GUESS WHERE PEOPLE COME FROM BY LISTENING TO HOW HE/SHE TALKS; LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING; SOMETIMES SAYING ‘WHAT’S UP?’ CAN BE MORE APPROPRIATE THAN SAYING ‘HELLO, HOW ARE YOU?’). Four items showed more variability in responses, but still showed positive gains in mean scores (DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING; DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS; DIALECTS ARE SLOPPY FORMS OF LANGUAGE; EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT). Finally, one item showed no change in variability, and positive gains in mean scores (PEOPLE CAN CHANGE THE WAY THEY SPEAK ACCORDING TO THE SITUATION). In sum, Figure 6.4 shows that the LVSS lessons increased Treatment participants’ Sociolinguistic Knowledge.

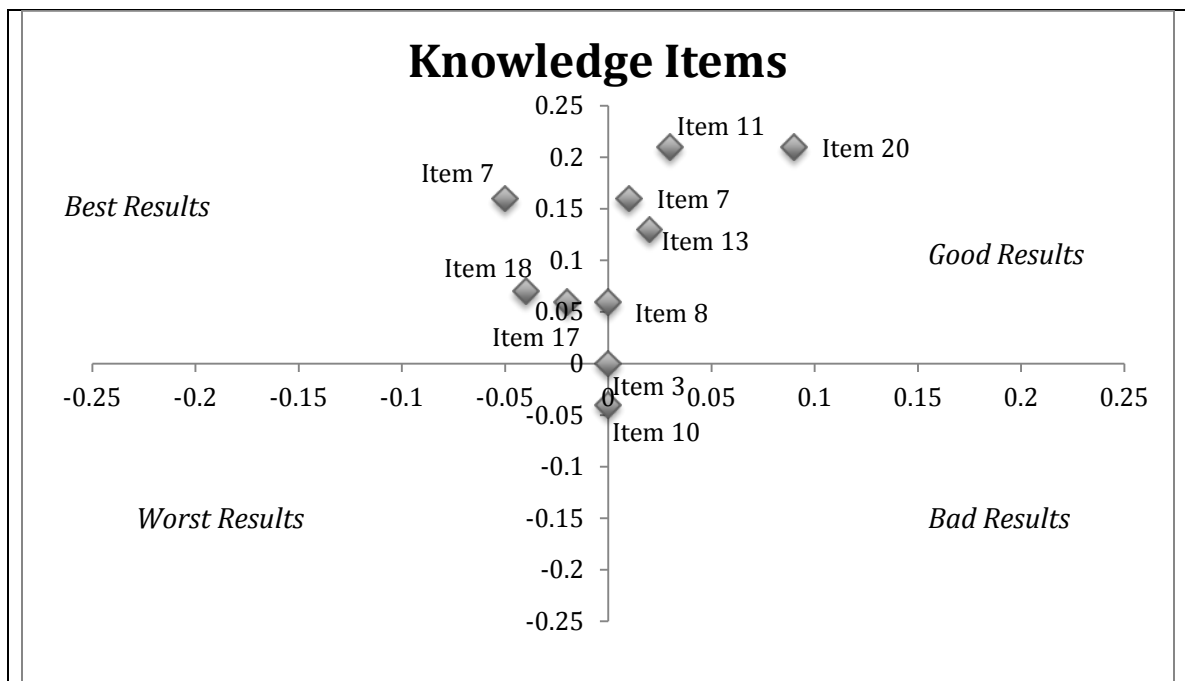


Figure 6.4: Change in Means and Standard Deviations for Sociolinguistic Knowledge items

Unquestionably, these are positive overall results for the Sociolinguistic Knowledge component of the LVSS curriculum. The following sections discuss the Sociolinguistic

Knowledge items as they were thematically grouped, beginning with the two dialect misconception items, followed by the three systemic dialect patterning items, the two language variation awareness items, and finishing with the three style-shifting items. The ordinal-level survey responses to each item were tested for statistically significant differences using a nonparametric Friedman's test; the results are reported in the figures for each item and discussed further in section 6.6 below.

6.5.1 *Dialect misconceptions*

Four lessons dealt with common misconceptions regarding dialects. Three lessons in the first week (W1D2, W1D3, and W1D4) detailed specific dimensions of language variation, i.e. vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammatical variation, with an emphasis on the patterned and predictable nature of these three dimensions. For example, W1D2 presented vocabulary through a discussion of *slang* and *jargon*. Students were asked to provide a topic they were familiar with that had slang words; a student volunteered the topic of “soccer”, and students brainstormed vocabulary words associated with soccer (wing, center, pass, goal/gol, midfielder). For the jargon topic, students selected “science”, and students suggested words such as *elements*, *microscope*, and *predict*. The classroom teacher, who was listening to our conversation, asked the students how they “watch” in science, and reminded the students that they used this word only the day before in their science lesson. After a few moments of puzzlement, a student finally guessed at her hint: *observation*. We ended the lesson with a short discussion on how knowing the vocabulary of “soccer” or “science” indicates that someone is part of the group of people who “do” soccer or science (field notes Nov. 9, 2013),

The two survey items assessing dialect misconceptions both showed immediate positive gains in mean scores. We first discuss item 20 DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME

THING, followed by item 13 DIALECTS ARE SLOPPY FORMS OF LANGUAGE. While Item 20 was explicitly taught in the LVSS lessons, Item 13 was not; that is, it was expected that after multiple lessons in the patterns and rules of different language types, students would infer that dialects are, in fact, not sloppy.

6.5.1.1 Dialects are sloppy forms of language

The item DIALECTS ARE SLOPPY FORMS OF LANGUAGE showed some favorable change among the Treatment group students immediately following the LVSS lessons, however, this trend was all but erased by the end of the school year (see Figure 6.5 below). The Response Index increased twelve percentage points, from 0.38 (Pretest) to 0.50 (Posttest1), before beginning a gradual decline to 0.48 (Posttest2) and 0.39 by the end of the school year (Posttest3). At its highest peak on Posttest1, only half of the students (12 out of 24) believed that dialects are not sloppy. While the increase reflects a positive change of attitude for some Treatment students, half of the class still believed dialects to be sloppy, despite the lessons in dialect patterning. Perhaps the lessons did not go far enough in convincing some students of the systematic nature of language.

Surprisingly, the Control group students performed better on three out of the four surveys. Although this group had a roller-coaster trend in the mean scores, a higher percentage of Control students disagreed that dialects were sloppy. Eleven out of 15 Control students disagreed with this item on Posttest1 (73% of respondents).

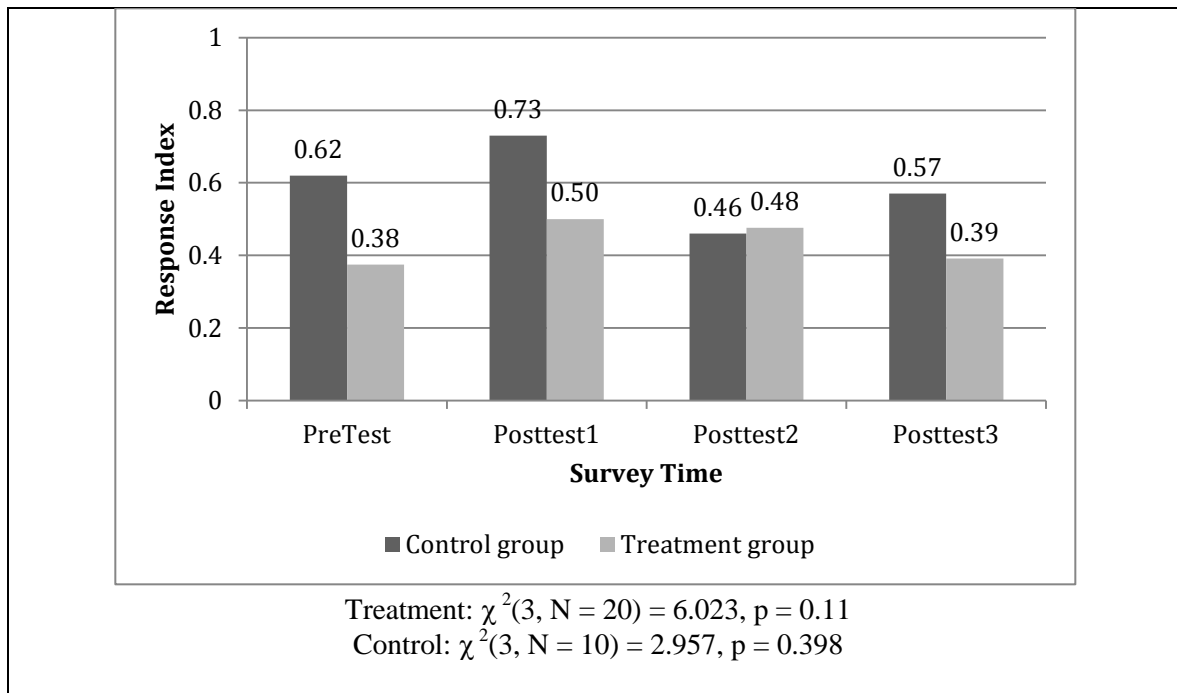


Figure 6.5: Response index for Item 13, "Dialects are sloppy forms of language"

Not only did the lessons have a subdued effect on Treatment students' understanding of dialect patterning, but on Posttest1, four more students actually believed dialects to be sloppy, a decidedly unintended change. The number of *Don't Know* responses decreased on Posttest1 (4 responses) indicating more certainty, although the certainty was short-lived (8 responses on Posttest2, and 9 responses on Posttest3). Nevertheless, a favorable change is evident in the number of students expressing disagreement: nine students on the Pretest increased to twelve students on Posttest1 (Table 6.8 below). Perhaps sustained lessons in dialect patterning, as well as discussions on the negative connotations of "sloppy" speech may convince more students that dialects are not sloppy.

Although it appears from Figure 6.5 above that more Control group students knew that dialects were not sloppy forms of language, the actual number of students who disagreed with this item was comparable to the actual number of students who disagreed in the Treatment group. For example, on the Pretest, nine students (out of twenty-four) in the

Treatment group disagreed (38%) while eight students (out of thirteen) in the Control group disagreed (62%) (see Table 6.8 below). Nevertheless, the proportion of Control students who disagreed with this item was higher on three out of four time-points.

Table 6.8: Strength of agreement for Item 13, "Dialects are sloppy forms of language"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	0 (0%)	4 (16%)	6 (25%)	3 (13%)	11 (46%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	5 (38%)	3 (23%)	4 (31%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	3 (13%)	5 (21%)	8 (33%)	4 (16%)	4 (16%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	1 (6%)	6 (40%)	5 (33%)	3 (20%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	2 (10%)	1 (5%)	5 (24%)	5 (24%)	8 (38%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	5 (38%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	2 (9%)	3 (13%)	5 (22%)	4 (17%)	9 (39%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	3 (21%)	5 (36%)

The oral interviews for the Treatment students indicate that the *LVSS* unit was not entirely effective at dispelling the myth that sloppy dialects exist. Three of the six interviewed students disagreed with this item on Posttest1, indicating that the lessons *did* impact these students' understanding of dialect patterning. However, only one of the three (Emmanuel) actually expressed the opinion that dialects are not sloppy. Two others, Daniela and David, believed that sloppy *speakers* exist. Daniela explained that some people cannot help the way they speak:

Because there's some people that are sloppy and there's some people that aren't, and we can't change, well there's people that are and some people that are not but we can't change the way they talk. (Daniela)

It seems that Daniela and David believed *speakers* of dialects could be sloppy in their delivery; it was unclear whether or not they believed the *dialects* to be sloppy as well. In fact,

two of the Control group students also believed speakers could be sloppy (Zack and Billy). In his Posttest interview, Billy explained his disagreement: “Because like I don’t think that how someone speaks you should judge them, cause that’s just how they are born.” Like Daniela, Billy indicated that sloppy language was due to the speaker’s inherent (cognitive or linguistics) capabilities, and therefore it was not the speaker’s fault.

The other three Treatment students did not show expected growth in their understanding of dialect sloppiness. Sofia and Mariana responded *Don’t Know* on both the Pretest and Posttest1. Matias agreed with this item on Posttest1, but appeared to interpret the word “descuidado” (the Spanish translation for “sloppy”) as “inappropriate” or “rude”. He explained: “porque si dicen algo malo, puede ser descuidado eso y si hay alguien que no le gusta la palabra, puede pasar algo²⁰”, indicating that careless speakers could insult another person.

Only one interviewed Control group student agreed that dialects are sloppy. On her Pretest, Jean indicated agreement, but could not explain why she agreed. She later changed her answer to *Don’t Know* on Posttest1. Although Sonya disagreed with this item on her Pretest, she said in her interview that some dialects were sloppy, but she was unable to provide an example. She also changed her answer to *Don’t Know* on Posttest1.

In sum, half the Treatment class (N = 12, 50%) disagreed that dialects were sloppy on Posttest1, an increase of three students on the Pretest (N = 9, 38%). Although this immediate effect is encouraging, this effect essentially disappears by Posttest3. In addition, at least half of the Control group class also disagreed with this item at all four time-points. This item would perhaps benefit from rewording in order to clarify the distinction between sloppy

²⁰ “Because if they say something bad, that could be careless and if there is someone who doesn’t like that word, something could happen.”

speakers and sloppy *dialects*; a rewording such as “Some people’s dialects have sloppy grammar” may remove the emphasis from the speaker to the grammar.

It is important to note that this item was never explicitly taught in the *LVSS* curriculum. Instead, it was expected that after participating in lessons on dialect patterning, students would infer that dialects are not sloppy. Future language awareness curricula must take note that many language myths may not be entirely dismantled by new learning. In fact, adjustments to language ideologies may take place over many months or years of instruction; in turn, these ideologies may be affected by current social change (Coupland, 2010).

6.5.1.2 Dialects and slang are the same thing

The next item in the Dialect Basics set is Item 20, DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING showed a favorable gain on Posttest1 for the Treatment students. Along with lesson W1D2 discussed above, lesson W2D1 also explicitly discussed slang, this time from a language change perspective. Students viewed a chart of English slang phrases from the 1920s, 1960s, 1980s, and 2010s. The students seemed surprised that previous generations used their own slang expressions, and the students began to use some of these slang expressions in their interactions with one another and with me. In fact, one student began to say “Catch you on the flip side” with some regularity whenever the lessons ended.

The Response Index for this item increased eleven percentage points from 0.21 on the Pretest to 0.42 on Posttest1, before falling to 0.24 on Posttest2 and 0.30 on Posttest3 (see Figure 6.6 below). It is worth noting that the item analysis discussed in section 6.2 above found that this to be the most “difficult” item, receiving the lowest score on Posttest1 of all the Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items; it is likely that this item needs to be reworded in order to make it less difficult. Despite the apparent difficulty, there was a statistically

significant difference between the Pretest and Posttest1 scores ($p = 0.032$). These results indicate that some Treatment students understood the difference between dialects and slang immediately following the lessons, but as time went on students returned to a Pretest level of misunderstanding.

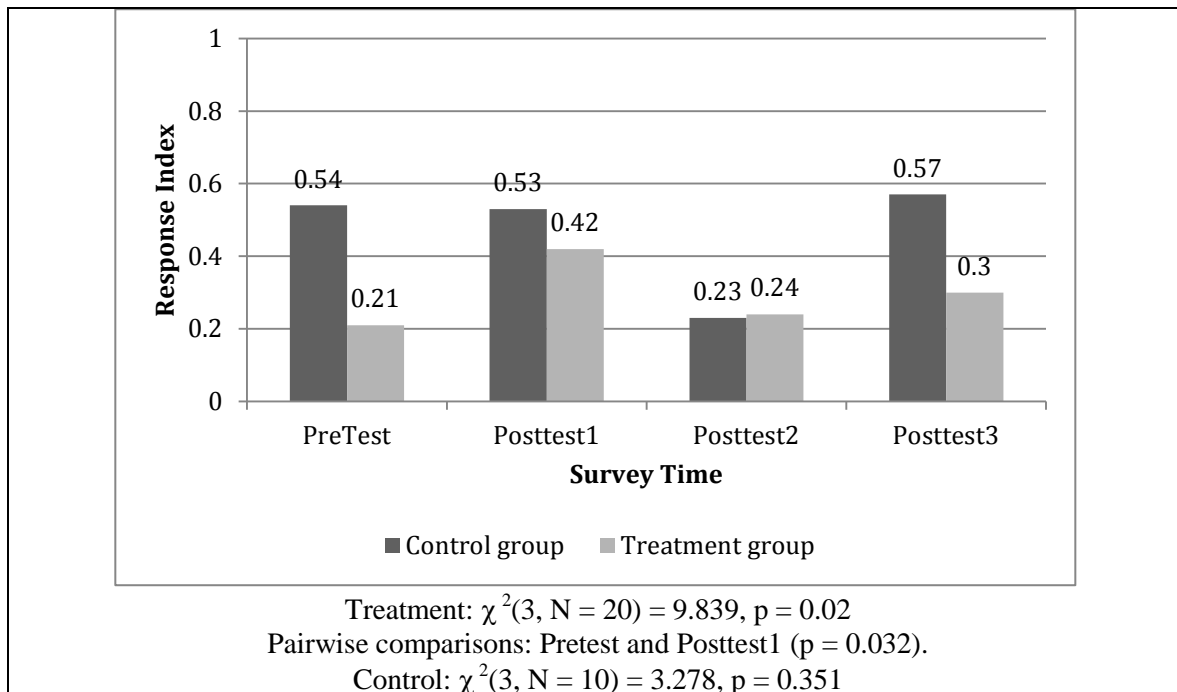


Figure 6.6: Response Index for Item 20, "Dialects and slang are the same thing"

Further evidence of this item's impact lies in the change in number of *Don't Know* responses. Three-fourths of the Treatment class (18 students) responded *Don't Know* on the Pretest. The number of *Don't Know* responses decreased dramatically on Posttest1 with only 8 responses (33%), before increasing again on Posttest2 to 13 responses out of 21 (62%), and once again falling to 10 responses out of 23 (43%) (see Table 6.9). The large proportion of doubtful responses on Posttest2 and Posttest3 indicates that many students seemed to forget what slang was as time went on.

The Control group students, on the other hand, demonstrated very little change in response type, with around half the group disagreeing. The exception to this pattern is Posttest2, where only three students (out of 13) disagreed, and a surge of students (10 out of 13) responded *Don't Know* (see Table 6.9).

Table 6.9: Strength of agreement for Item 20, "Dialects and slang are the same thing"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	5 (21%)	0 (0%)	18 (75%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	2 (15%)	6 (46%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	2 (8%)	4 (16%)	5 (21%)	5 (21%)	8 (33%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (53%)	0 (0%)	7 (47%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	0 (0%)	3 (14%)	3 (14%)	2 (10%)	13 (62%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	1 (8%)	10 (77%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	2 (9%)	4 (17%)	6 (26%)	1 (4%)	10 (43%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	3 (21%)	5 (36%)

Qualitative interviews show that misunderstanding among the Treatment students was likely connected to the language in which the students completed the survey. The slang lessons were conducted in English, where the English term *slang* figured prominently. The Spanish translation of *slang* that appeared on the survey was “jerga”, which was not used orally as much as the English “slang”, and did not appear at all in the student workbook. It is possible that students who completed the survey in Spanish (N = 18, 75% on Posttest1) were at a disadvantage compared to students who completed the English version (N = 6, 25%).

Two interviewed students, Sofia and David, responded *Don't Know* on the Pretest and disagreed on Posttest1, which would appear to indicate favorable growth in knowledge for these students. Posttest1 interviews, however, show that both students struggled to articulate

why *slang* and *dialects* are different concepts. Both students stated that slang (“jerga” on the Spanish version) was informal while dialects were formal. While they were correct in that slang is associated with informal speech, they incorrectly equated dialects as the direct opposite of slang, i.e. formal.

Two students, Matias and Mariana, responded *Don’t Know* on both the Pretest and Posttest1, showing no growth for this particular item. Both students used the Spanish version of Posttest1, so it is possible that the term “jerga” confused them. Future versions of the unit must be careful to use terminology equally in both languages, or to have the survey items translated into both languages right next to each other instead of one side printed in English and other side printed in Spanish. That may have avoided this particular confusion, since the students could have used the English translation to aid them with the unfamiliar Spanish term “jerga”.

Two students, Daniela and Emmanuel, showed favorable change on this item. Both students responded *Don’t Know* on the pretest but changed their answers to “Disagree” on Posttest1. Both students were able to articulate that slang is associated with informal speech, while dialects represent certain ways of speaking a language, such as Australian English. Important to note is that both of these students used the English version of Posttest1, where “slang” appeared.

In their interviews, four of the six Control group students exhibited doubt or confusion on this item. Two students, Henry and Jean, responded *Don’t Know* on both Pretest and Posttest1; two more students, Billy and Sonya, initially disagreed with this item on the Pretest but later changed their answers to *Don’t Know* on Posttest1. On his Pretest, Billy explained that the question itself cued him to disagree:

I disagreed because uh, they would've uh, they would've uh, kept it the same name instead of changing it [the names of the terms]. (Billy)

For her part, Sonya defined *slang* with words that are “not said right”:

Sonya: Uh, dialects are different than slang because um like, language is pronounced different like, you say different things.

Mary: So what's slang?

Sonya: Like, like saying a different language differently, like in a different way.

Mary: Uh-huh. Can you give me an example?

Sonya: Uh, like if you say “what?” you say it in a different way.

Mary: Like how?

Sonya: Like you don't spell it right, you say it different like, hmm. Like, “what” (*aspirated [t]*) or something like that, yeah.

Mary: So that would be slang?

Sonya: Yeah

Mary: Why?

Sonya: Because it's, it's just, the same word, it's the word, “what” but, it's just not said right.

It appears that Sonya's definition of *slang* is related to the idea of “incorrect” pronunciation. Meanwhile, Liz and Zack both seemed to have a deeper understanding of *slang*, connecting it with informal speech (“*hi bro* or *what's up dude* and stuff like that” [Liz]) and “country words” like *y'all* (Zack). Furthermore, it is important to point out that of the six interviewed Control students, only Zack claimed to have an understanding of the term *dialects*: “[...] dialects are how people talk [...]”.

This item showed a positive gain among Treatment students that perhaps could have been sustained over time with a clearer use of terminology in the slang lessons and the survey. In addition, a further emphasis could be made to establish a relationship between the two terms *dialect* and *slang* whereby *slang* is firmly positioned as a dimension of dialectal vocabulary.

In sum, both survey items measuring knowledge of Dialect Misconceptions showed immediate gains on the Treatment group's Posttest1. It is clear from the interviews that many students were aware of issues that were not discussed in the *LVSS* curriculum, such as voice quality change with age, language loss and the vernacularity trajectory. This pre-established awareness suggests that future language awareness curricula need not shy away from these topics. While many Treatment students showed growth in knowledge regarding slang and dialect patterning, the ambiguous wording of the survey items may have hindered students from expressing actual acquired knowledge (e.g, the use of “jerga” on the Spanish version of the surveys). Future lesson modifications include incorporating discussions on how cognitive and linguistic disabilities affect verbal communication, and the difference between a speaker's “sloppiness” versus grammatical “sloppiness”. Furthermore, the slang lesson should firmly establish *slang* as a dimension of dialectal vocabulary.

6.5.2 *Systemic dialect patterning*

The next subset of items assessed student knowledge of the systemic nature of dialects in a direct manner. The knowledge assessed by all three items was explicitly discussed in the first and fourth weeks of instruction, with a special lesson devoted to how speech is connected to identity expression. The first week of instruction dedicated three lessons to exploring the three major dimensions of dialectal variation, namely, vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. The fourth week of instruction compared and contrasted various grammatical patterns of English and Spanish varieties.

For example, W4D2 implemented contrastive analysis exercises in which students compared Standard Spanish verbs with Spanglish verbs. Students volunteered Spanglish verbs they were familiar with and as a whole group, we identified the Standard Spanish

equivalent. Students volunteered the Spanglish verbs *molear* (to go to the mall), *janguear* (to hang out), and *pompear* (to pump gasoline). After listing the Standard Spanish equivalents, students were asked to use some of the Spanglish verbs to write a story. Students were instructed to use Standard Spanish verbs in the narration of action, and Spanglish verbs in the dialogue between characters. We had a short discussion on how the type of verbs (Spanglish or Standard Spanish) that a character uses gives us an indication of the character's origin and personality. Volunteers were asked to read their stories aloud.

About half the class struggled with this activity, which required using quotation marks and punctuation. I spent much of the time devoted to the activity helping particular students produce mechanically correct dialogue, as opposed to helping students develop a character with Spanglish verbs. Classroom teachers in tune with students' strengths and challenges would doubtless anticipate the need for a minilesson in quotation marks and periods before attempting an activity such as this.

Nevertheless, some students successfully created short stories using Spanglish. The short story of Matías and Emmanuel demonstrated both Spanglish *-ear* verbs and code-switching, which was another feature of Spanglish discussed earlier in the lesson:

Un día había un niño que llamo a su amigo y dijo “que paso quieres ir a **janguear** in my house.” So quando llego su amigo empizaron a jugar el playstation 3. El niño se quejó “quiero **cliquear** el button pero no sirve.” “Quieres ir a **lonchear**” dijo el niño. Pero el amigo dijo “mi mama no sabe **parquear** the car.” (Matías and Emmanuel)²¹

To end this activity, other students listening to the story were asked to identify the Spanglish verbs used by the writers (which were noted on the whiteboard) and as a class, we

²¹ One day a boy called his friend and said “what’s up do you want to hang out in my house.” So when his friend came they started to play the playstation 3. The boy complained “I want to click the button but it doesn’t work.” “Do you want to eat lunch” said the boy. But the friend said “my mom doesn’t know how to park the car.”

briefly discussed how the stories would have sounded different if the Spanglish verbs had been Standard Spanish verbs.

Two of the Systemic Dialect Patterning items showed positive gains in Treatment group's mean scores, while one item showed no change from the Pretest to Posttest1. First we discuss the item that did not exhibit gain: item 3, DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, AND GRAMMAR, followed by the more successful items, item 15, DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS and item 7, I CAN GUESS WHERE A PERSON COMES FROM BY LISTENING TO HOW HE/SHE TALKS.

6.5.2.1 Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar

Item 3 DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, AND GRAMMAR measured knowledge of the systematic patterning of dialects through these three specific dimensions. It was expected that Treatment students would display more agreement with this item after studying the three dimensions in both English and Spanish. The Treatment group's Response Index plateaued on the Pretest and Posttest1 (0.67), before dropping slightly to 0.62 on Posttest2 and 0.65 on Posttest3 (see Figure 6.7 below). This absence of gain suggests that the lessons had a negligible effect in teaching students that pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar are major factors in dialect differentiation.

In comparison with the Treatment group, the Control group demonstrated very low agreement levels with this item (26% agreement on Posttest1, their highest average score of all four survey administrations). The low Response Index for the Control group suggests that

the Control group students were not aware of these three dialectal dimensions. In fact, only one student agreed with this item on Posttest3.

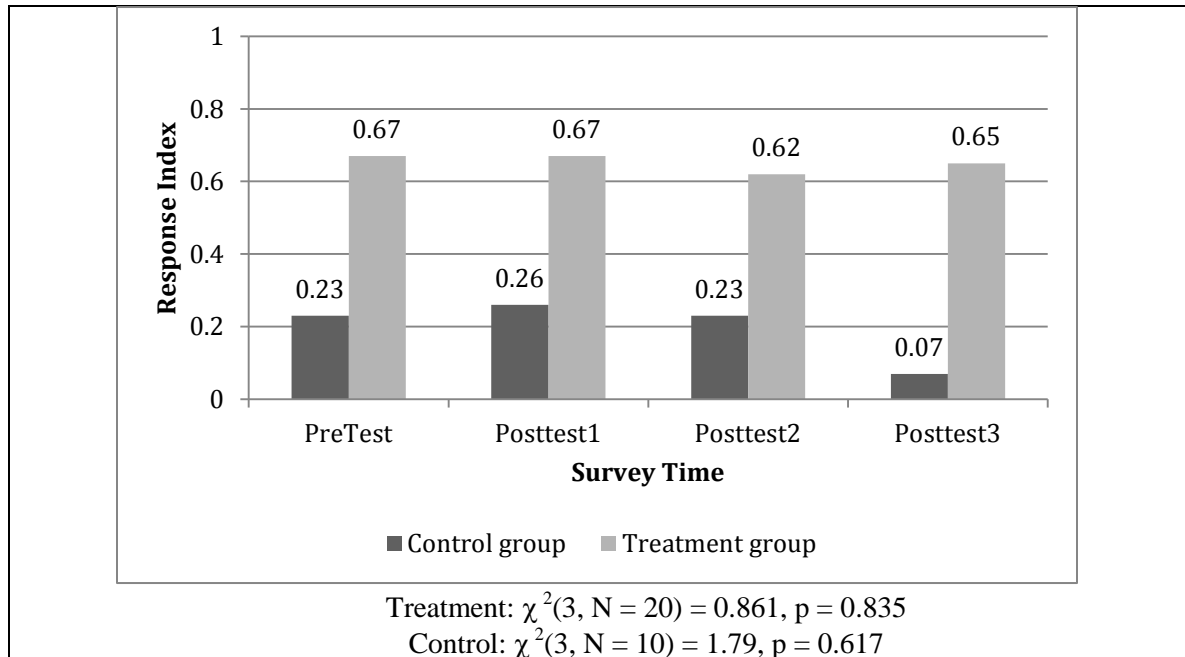


Figure 6.7: Response index for Item 3, "Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar"

A positive trend for this item was the Treatment group's low level of disagreement across all four tests (Table 6.10 below). Interestingly, 16 out of 24 students indicated agreement on this item on the Pretest, before the lessons began. This may be the phenomenon of acquiescence response bias where students agree with an item because it sounds right (Villar, 2008), consistent with Billy's explanation above as to why he disagreed with DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING. Alternatively, it may be the case that the Treatment students were simply more aware of pronunciation, lexical, and grammatical differences due to their experience in a Dual Language classroom. Although the same number of students, 16, agreed on Posttest1, there was a strong shift towards *Strongly Agree*: five more students strongly agreed, indicating more certainty with this item and a strong

effect from the lessons. However, on Posttest2 and Posttest3 more students shifted back towards *Agree*, indicating loss of certainty on this item.

Evidence of the Treatment group's loss of certainty comes from the change in *Don't Know* responses over time. While seven students answered *Don't Know* on the Pretest, only four answered that way on Posttest1, which is a strong indication that more students felt certain of their answer after they had received instruction in dialectal patterning. However, on Posttest2 and Posttest3, the number of students choosing *Don't Know* surpassed Pretest levels, indicating that by the end of the school year along with the loss of *strength* of agreement, more students began to feel *uncertain* of their knowledge.

Meanwhile, half of the Control group students consistently expressed uncertainty via *Don't Know* responses at all four survey time-points. The lack of instruction in dialectal patterning likely contributed to these students' uncertainty.

Table 6.10: Strength of agreement for Item 3, "Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	5 (21%)	11 (46%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)	7 (29%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	0 (0%)	7 (54%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	10 (42%)	6 (25%)	4 (16%)	0 (0%)	4 (16%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	4 (27%)	2 (13%)	1 (7%)	8 (53%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	5 (24%)	8 (38%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (38%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (23%)	2 (15%)	0 (0%)	8 (62%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	6 (26%)	9 (39%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (35%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	0 (0%)	8 (57%)

The qualitative interviews support the somewhat mixed results this item garnered.

Mariana and Sofia showed no change after the lessons: they both had *Don't Know* on their

Pretest and Posttest1. Both Matias and David agreed with this item on the Pretest, but changed their answers on Posttest1. David responded *Don't Know* while Matias disagreed, explaining that only pronunciation is a difference between dialects since the vocabulary and grammar differences actually have the same meaning in different dialects. Matias obviously took in the lessons that emphasized how grammatical variation accomplishes the same communicative task, but he failed to catalog grammatical variation as a “difference”.

Daniela and Emmanuel both demonstrated favorable (intended) growth on this item. Daniela agreed with this item on both her Pretest and Posttest1, but in her Pretest interview was unable to explain why she agreed. In her Posttest1 interview, she did show understanding of how pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar are different in dialects. It is interesting that Daniela responded *Don't Know* on the other Dialect Patterning item DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS reported on below, since she clearly learned that dialects differ in these three principal areas. Crucially, Daniela did not recognize pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammatical differences as “patterns”.

It is perhaps not surprising that all six Control students responded *Don't Know* on Posttest1. Like many of their classmates, the interviewed Control group students did not feel certainty with this Sociolinguistic Knowledge item. Three of the students had expressed agreement or disagreement on the Pretest, however. Jean was the only student who agreed on the Pretest, but she was unable to explain why she agreed.

Both Zack and Sonya disagreed on the Pretest. Both students indicated awareness of dialectal differences due to regional origin, but neither student saw these dialectal differences as originating in pronunciation, vocabulary, nor grammar. For example, Zack stated in his Pretest interview “it’s just the way they speak”:

Mm, on that one I put ‘no’ because if people like see like a country person, um, it’s not really because of punctuation or vocabulary or grammar, it’s just the way they speak with their dialects and stuff, that’s why I put “no I disagree”. (Zack)

Perhaps this lack of connection is due to an incomplete understanding of how phonological, lexical and grammatical differences are influenced by a speaker’s regional origin. It is likely that if Zack and Sonya were exposed to instruction on how dialects pattern, their understanding of “the way people speak” would incorporate these three dimensions.

In sum, the impact of the item DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY AND GRAMMAR was reflected in the marked shift towards *Strongly Agree* responses and fewer *Don’t Know* responses in the Treatment group.

However, the Treatment group’s increasing *Don’t Know* responses reflected in Posttest2 and Posttest3 show that this specific knowledge is vulnerable to memory loss from lack of reinforcement. It is likely that with repeated reinforcement over the school year and across the grades, students would remember that dialects pattern across these three dimensions.

6.5.2.2 *Dialects follow rules or patterns*

The next item in the Systematic Dialect Patterning subset is Item 15, DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS, which demonstrated an immediate gain in Treatment student scores in the posttests. The Response Index increased from 0.38 (Pretest) to 0.54 (Posttest1) and the gain was sustained on Posttest2 and Posttest3 (0.52) (Figure 6.8 below). This upward-sloping gain that was maintained over time indicates that many students internalized the systemic nature of dialects.

The Control group, on the other hand, began the study with similar percentage of agreement as the Treatment group, but showed fewer students agreeing with this item over

time. By Posttest2 and Posttest3, only one student in the class agreed with this item at each time point (Phil agreed on Posttest2, and Olivia agreed on Posttest3). Most Control group students either expressed disagreement or responded Don't Know (Table 6.11).

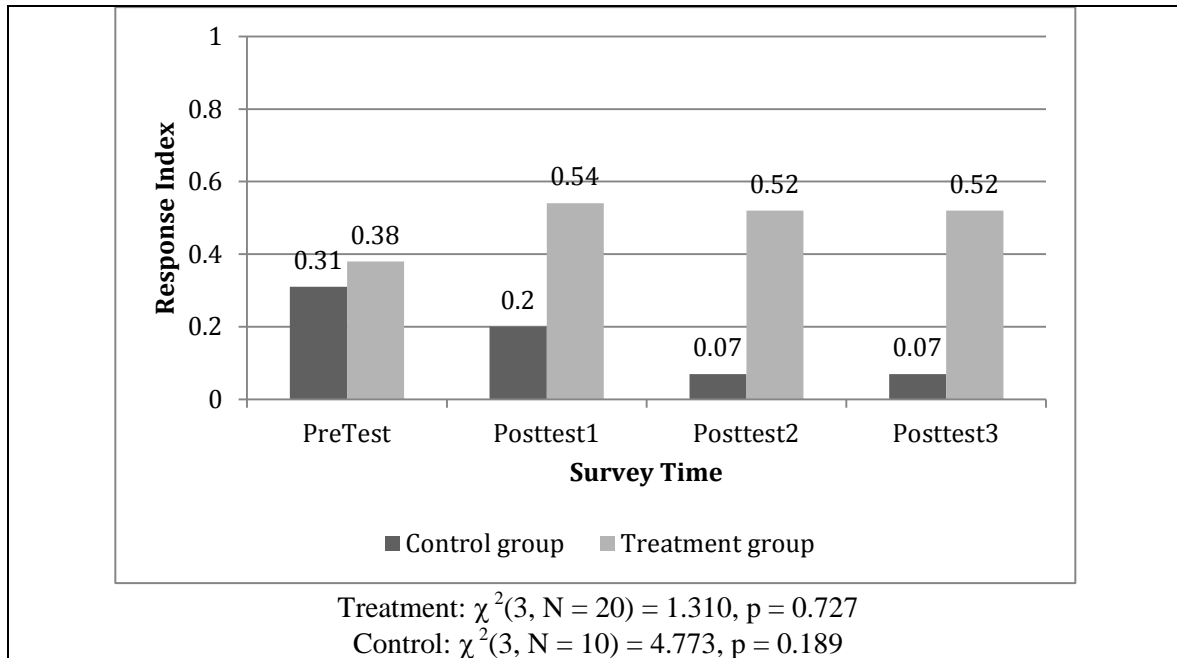


Figure 6.8: Response index for Item 15, "Dialects follow rules or patterns"

Four more Treatment students agreed on Posttest1 (13 out of 24 students) than on the Pretest (9 out of 24 students), resulting in just over half the class agreeing with this item after receiving *LVSS* lessons (see Table 6.11 below). An encouraging trend is that at least half the class agreed with this item over subsequent Posttests, indicating that there was less attrition with this item overall, which is very promising for future language awareness research. However, each posttest continued to receive eight *Don't Know* responses, indicating that some uncertainty lingered with this item.

Looking closely at the Treatment students who responded *Don't Know* on this item, there were three students who responded *Don't Know* across all surveys (Matias, Daniela, and Mariana); the lessons clearly did not take hold for these three students. Two students

who responded *Don't Know* on the Pretest had an answer for Posttest1, but by Posttest2 and Posttest3 Luciana and Sofia had returned to *Don't Know* responses, indicating loss of knowledge over time. In the case of Martin and Emiliano, their agreements on Posttest1 and Posttest2 were replaced by *Don't Know* responses on Posttest3, also indicating attrition or loss of certainty over time.

Table 6.11: Strength of agreement for Item 15, "Dialects follow rules or patterns"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	3 (13%)	6 (25%)	5 (21%)	0 (0%)	10 (42%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)	0 (0%)	7 (54%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	4 (16%)	9 (38%)	3 (13%)	0 (0%)	8 (33%)
Control	15	1 (7%)	2 (13%)	5 (33%)	0 (0%)	7 (47%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	3 (14%)	8 (38%)	1 (5%)	1 (5%)	8 (38%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	4 (31%)	0 (0%)	8 (62%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	6 (26%)	6 (26%)	3 (13%)	0 (0%)	8 (35%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	9 (64%)

The qualitative interviews illustrate that patterned nature of dialects was not clear for some Treatment students. For example, Daniela, Mariana and Matias were the three students who responded *Don't Know* on all four survey administrations, as noted above. On his Pretest, David disagreed, stating that dialects did not follow patterns. On Posttest1, however, he lost his confidence in this answer and responded *Don't Know*. Emmanuel, meanwhile, agreed that dialects follow some patterns on his Pretest, but also lost confidence in his answer on Posttest1.

Sofia was the one interviewed Treatment student who showed a favorable (intended) change. On her Posttest1 she responded *Agree* (after a *Don't Know* on her Pretest), but was unable to give me an example of a dialect pattern or a rule, despite the many patterns

reviewed in class. On her Posttest2 and Posttest3, she returned to *Don't Know* responses, likely losing confidence when she couldn't give an example of a dialect pattern or rule. Thus, even for students who did grasp that dialects were patterned, it may not have been clear that the differences in English and Spanish pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar were actually patterns. Future lessons that discuss dialectal differences must emphasize these differences as patterned and systemic across the dialect.

This item seemed especially bewildering to the Control group students. Three interviewed students (Henry, Jean and Zack) responded *Don't Know* on both the Pretest and Posttest1. Liz disagreed on her Pretest, explaining that “um like if they're from like here or something then they like know the law and rules like that”, but later changed her answer to *Don't Know*. It is clear that Liz interpreted the word “rules” to mean “laws”, and was therefore confused on how a dialect could follow a law.

Liz was not alone in this “lawfulness” interpretation. Sonya also understood this item to refer to “free speech”:

Sonya: Um some languages don't have rules. Like, English you could say whatever you want, and nobody will arrest you or anything.

Mary: So does English have rules?

Sonya: No.

Mary: Are there languages that do?

Sonya: Mm, I don't know.

Mary: So do you mean like with English, we have free speech, like it's okay to say whatever we want to say and no one can arrest you for saying that?

Sonya: Mm-hmm.

It is likely that this lawfulness interpretation is what confused Zack, and possibly other

Control students:

Zack: I didn't really get that question at all.

Mary: Is it because you didn't know what dialects were?

Zack: No, I didn't really, follow rules or patterns, I didn't get that part.

Mary: Mm, like how could they follow rules?
Zack: Or patterns, or patterns, I didn't get that.

It is possible that students in the Control group were not yet exposed to the concept of “grammar rules” or “language rules”. Despite this confusion among some students, Billy insisted that speakers do not follow rules when they talk: “Cause it’s just how they speak, it doesn’t mean they follow a rule or a pattern.” It is clear that the Control group students were unaware of the patterned, systemic nature of language.

At the fifth grade level, most students (if not all) have had exposure to the concept of patterns in math. It should not be difficult to extend the concept of patterns to language. In fact, future language awareness curricula may want to make this link explicit—numbers follow patterns, and so do language features. This connection to what students already know may make the idea of “language patterns” more comprehensible to a primary school audience.

To summarize, the item DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS was a relative success among Treatment students, although none of the interviewed students could identify a rule or pattern. The high number of *Don't Know* responses shows that for about one-third of the Treatment class, it was not clear that the grammar differences discussed in the lessons were patterns or rules. The Control group interviews confirm that at least some of the confusion stemmed from a “lawfulness” interpretation of the word “rules”. Future lessons must emphasize that the dialect and language differences explored in lessons could be considered patterns, or even “rules”.

6.5.2.3 *I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks*

The third item in the Systemic Dialect Patterning set assessed students' awareness that accent is often an indicator of a speaker's regional origin. One lesson, W2D3, directly explored the concept that a person's voice may indicate social categories such as age, gender, and regional origin. In this lesson, students listened to short audio clips of three speakers and filled out Semantic Differential scales that measured students' impressions of the speaker's physical features, personality, and social status. Students then compared their impressions of the three speakers.

It is encouraging that at all time-points, at least half the Treatment class agreed with this item, and there was a sixteen percentage point gain on Posttest1. The Response Index shows a roller-coaster trajectory for the Treatment students, where agreement levels increased from 0.58 (Pretest) to 0.74 (Posttest1) before falling slightly to 0.67 (Posttest2) and increasing yet again to 0.83 on Posttest3, with a statistically significant difference between the Pretest and Posttest3 scores ($p = 0.02$) (see Figure 6.9 below). There were low levels of disagreement responses and *Don't Know* answers on this item, indicating both high levels of certainty and that the majority of students felt they could identify a speaker's origin by listening to him/her speak. It is more encouraging still that on all three posttests, more Treatment students agreed with this item, suggesting that the *LVSS* lessons were effective at teaching students how pronunciation is affected by regional origin.

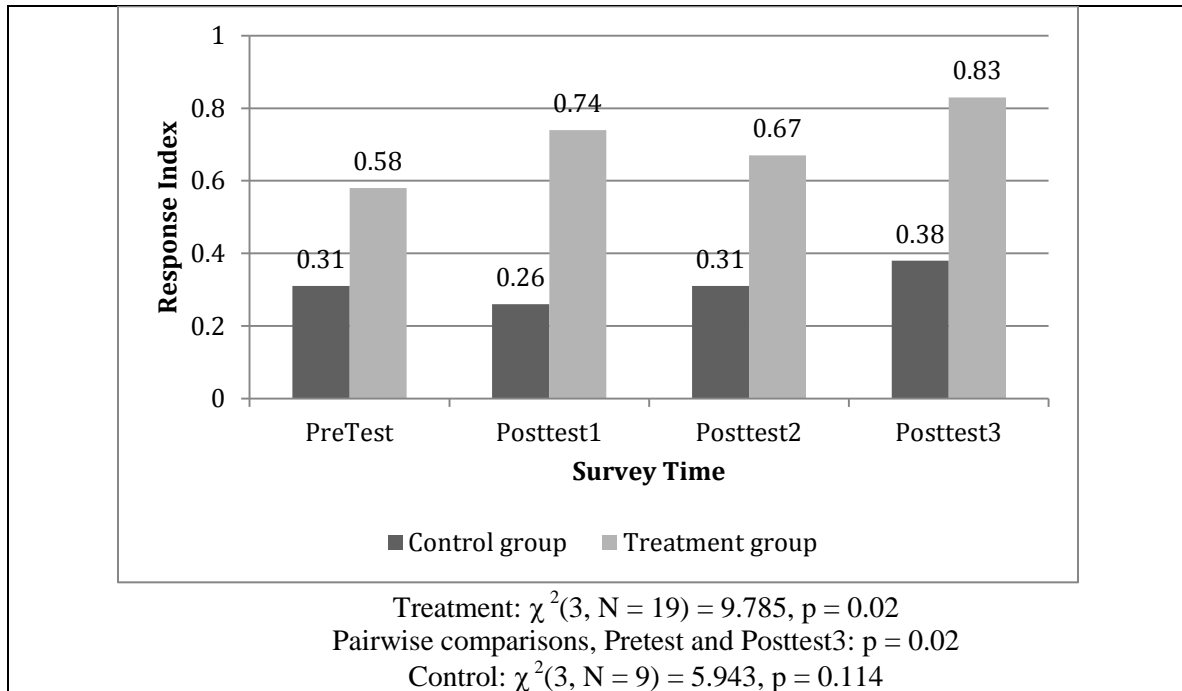


Figure 6.9: Response index for Item 7, "I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how she/he talks"

The Control group students showed low amounts of agreement with this item, with only four to five students agreeing at any time-point. These low agreement levels indicate that as a whole, many Control students were unaware of how pronunciation is linked to a speaker's regional origin. In addition, as time went on, more Control students responded *Don't Know* (see Table 6.12).

Table 6.12: Strength of agreement for Item 7, "I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how she/he talks"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	7 (29%)	7 (29%)	7 (29%)	0 (0%)	3 (13%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	6 (46%)	2 (15%)	1 (8%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	23*	7 (30%)	10 (44%)	3 (13%)	1 (4%)	2 (9%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	4 (27%)	4 (27%)	1 (7%)	6 (40%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	6 (29%)	8 (38%)	3 (14%)	2 (10%)	2 (10%)
Control	13	1 (8%)	3 (23%)	2 (15%)	2 (15%)	5 (38%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	10 (43%)	9 (29%)	3 (13%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	2 (15%)	2 (15%)	4 (31%)

*Note: One student did not respond to this item on Posttest1.

Despite the positive results by the Treatment students reported above, the qualitative interviews show that some students did not interpret this item as intended. The question was intended to mean that by listening to the particular pronunciation features that a speaker uses, one could guess the regional, within-country origin (such as New Mexico in the case of English, or Northern Mexico in the case of Spanish). However, several interviewed students interpreted this question to mean that by listening to the *language* that a person speaks, it is possible to guess their country of origin. For example, Emmanuel explained that by listening to “the language and the voice” it is possible to guess what country a speaker was from (like Japan or India). Matias said that when you hear Chinese people speak Chinese, a listener would know they were from China. David believed that one could assume English speakers were from the United States and Spanish speakers were from Mexico. His example was that we would know his grandmother was from Mexico, because she only speaks Spanish. When I asked him how would we know that his grandmother was from Mexico instead of say,

Colombia, he was unable to answer. Most likely, David wasn't yet completely familiar with the distinguishing features of worldwide Spanish.

Unlike her classmates discussed above, Daniela warned against the over-simplistic assumption when she explained why she disagreed with this item:

Because um when one time there was a boy in my class, he came from I think Puerto Rico and he talked weird and I didn't, I didn't know where he came from until he told me. (Daniela)

Daniela made it clear that a listener needs familiarity with a dialect in order to recognize it. In her Posttest1 interview, she further emphasized the dangers of assuming where a person comes from: "Maybe they talk a lot of English and they're really from Mexico and you really don't know."

Sofia and Mariana also interpreted the item to mean within-language variation. Sofia gave the example of identifying Spaniards based on their particular Spanish pronunciation, and Mariana gave an example of listening to Puerto Rican Spanish.

Admittedly, it is an over-simplification to assume that a speaker comes from a certain regional area because of the dialect features they use. It is even more erroneous to assume that all speakers of Spanish are from Mexico, or all speakers of English are from the United States. Unintended misinterpretation of this item probably stemmed from the wording, since the phrase "how he/she talks" is not explicitly linked to pronunciation. This item could be better worded along the lines of "It is possible to guess what part of the country someone comes from based on his/her accent". Future versions of this unit must explicitly ask students to avoid generalizations based on speaker language; it is likely that bilingual students would be open to a different interpretation of a monolingual United States or a monolingual Mexico.

In fact, two of the interviewed Control group students (Billy and Sonya) objected to the oversimplification inherent in the question, like Daniela above. Sonya disagreed with this item on her Pretest, stating:

Sonya: Uh well, I don't think that's right because some people come from Mexico and they sometimes speak English.

Mary: Mm-hmm.

Sonya: And yeah.

Mary: And you might not be able to tell that they're from Mexico?

Sonya: Yeah.

Thus, some Control group students also interpreted this item to mean guessing a speaker's country of origin, instead of the within-country regional origin. Four of the remaining five Control group students stated in their interviews that sometimes it is possible to guess the origin of a speaker, and sometimes it is not possible. For example, Henry mentioned accent as a clue-giver: "Sometimes you can [guess a speaker's origin] by their accents, if they have like an accent." In his posttest interview, Billy gave the example of Texans as a social group easy to identify because "they might have a little bit of an accent."

To sum up, two of the three Systemic Dialectal Patterning items showed evidence of successful learning on the part of the Treatment students. The item DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, AND GRAMMAR did not exhibit the expected growth, perhaps due to misinterpretation of the item. For this item, some students appeared to not recognize these three domains as patterns, while the item DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS was misinterpreted by some to mean "Dialects follow laws". It is clear that the items must be concisely worded to avoid confusion for young students who may make literal interpretations of certain words.

Future lessons must reinforce the idea that phonological, lexical and grammatical differences tend to be systemic in nature, and may therefore be considered “patterns”. This trend gives further evidence for the need of students to study multiple phonological, lexical, and grammatical patterns, and for dialectal awareness education on a long-term basis.

6.5.3 *Language variation awareness*

The two items assessing student awareness of language variation showed mixed results. Item 11 EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT showed an immediate gain in Treatment student scores, which gradually eroded over the school year; while item 1 I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE showed a negative change in Treatment mean scores. It appears contradictory that students would learn that everyone (and presumably, they themselves) are speakers of dialects, but fail to learn that they have accents, which are one of the three domains of dialects studied in the *LVSS* curriculum.

6.5.3.1 *Everyone speaks a dialect*

Two lessons in the *LVSS* curriculum directly taught the concept that everyone is a speaker of a dialect, W1D1 and W2D4. The first lesson introduced the term *dialect* in comparison with the term *language*, with the main objective of getting students acquainted with the idea that languages are not monolithic, unvarying entities. The second lesson, W2D4, was an opportunity to sample the linguistic variety in the classroom.

The item EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT showed an immediate, impressive gain that gradually decreased over time. Treatment group mean scores increased twenty-one percentage points from 0.33 (Pretest) to 0.54 (Posttest1), before falling slightly to 0.48 (Posttest2) and 0.43 by the end of the school year (Posttest3), showing that many students learned that everyone does in fact speak a dialect (Figure 6.10 below). The last two posttests

show evidence of loss, indicating that students need reinforcement in order to maintain the gain.

Meanwhile, the Control group students showed evidence of steady decrease in agreement over time, suggesting that the majority of Control group students were not aware that everyone speaks a dialect. Only three students expressed agreement on both Posttest2 and Posttest3, with the majority of the class expressing disagreement or responding *Don't Know* (Table 6.13 below). It is likely that most of the Control group students were unaware that themselves are speakers of dialects. These results give further evidence for the need for dialect awareness curricula among *all* students.

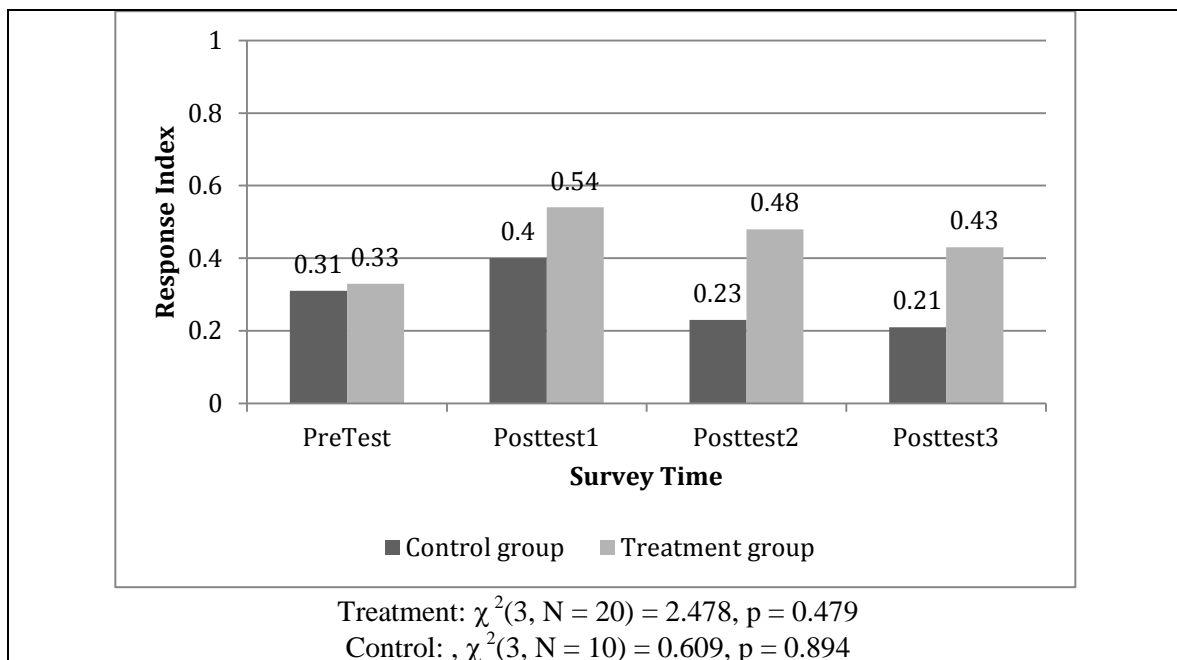


Figure 6.10: Response Index for Item 11, "Everyone speaks a dialect"

Table 6.13: Treatment group's strength of agreement for Item 11, "Everyone speaks a dialect"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	4 (17%)	4 (17%)	10 (42%)	1 (4%)	5 (21%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	4 (31%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	4 (17%)	9 (38%)	6 (25%)	1 (4%)	4 (17%)
Control	15	1 (7%)	5 (33%)	3 (20%)	1 (7%)	5 (33%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	1 (5%)	9 (43%)	3 (14%)	2 (10%)	6 (29%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	0 (0%)	7 (54%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	3 (13%)	7 (30%)	7 (30%)	2 (9%)	4 (17%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (21%)	7 (50%)	0 (0%)	4 (29%)

Qualitative interviews show confusion over the term *dialect* on the pretest, which is expected given that students probably had limited exposure to the scientific meaning of the term before participating in the lessons. The posttest interviews showed that many students grew in their understanding of what a dialect was, although some still didn't believe that everyone spoke a dialect (seven Treatment students disagreed on Posttest1).

Two students showed me that the dialect lessons overemphasized dialectal features in English and Spanish, and perhaps did not go far enough in explaining that dialectal features exist in all languages. David and Daniela stated in their Posttest1 interviews that not everyone spoke a dialect. David explained his answer by citing people in China, explaining that Chinese people speak a language, not a dialect. He seemed to understand dialects as existing in English and Spanish, but not in other languages. In order to avoid this misunderstanding in future versions of this unit, the lessons will need to emphasize that dialectal variation exists across all human languages.

On her part, Daniela gave the example of deaf people as people who did not speak a dialect, interpreting literally the statement that not "everyone speaks" a dialect, since in fact

many deaf people use sign language to communicate. She explained that her mother works with children with disabilities and that these children do not speak due to their disability. Once again, future lessons must expand their scope to include a discussion of dialects in other languages, including sign languages such as American Sign Language. Also necessary is a discussion on how mental disabilities may affect a person's communicative ability. Thus, David and Daniela's interpretation of this survey item offer a strong impetus to expand these lessons and go deeper into dialectal variation across all types of human communication.

Three Treatment students showed misunderstanding of the term *dialect* on the pretest, illustrating that the terms *dialect* and *language* were a source of confusion for many students before they participated in the lessons. Sofia said she didn't know what a dialect was, while Matias and Mariana understood *dialect* to mean a *language*. Mariana explained that many people know English and do not know Spanish, and there are other people who speak English, Spanish and French, thus equating *dialect* with *language*. On Posttest1, it was unclear whether Matias and Mariana understood the relationship between the two terms, although they both continued to agree that everyone speaks a dialect. Sofia, meanwhile, continued to respond *Don't Know* on Posttest1.

One interviewed student, Emmanuel, showed the kind of growth in sociolinguistic knowledge that was intended in the lessons. He disagreed that everyone spoke a dialect on the pretest, explaining that monolingual people don't speak a dialect. However, on his Posttest1, he changed his answer to *Agree* and cited the examples of Australian English and New England English as examples of dialects.

One of the six interviewed Control group students appeared to realize that he himself was a speaker of a dialect. In his Posttest interview, Billy explained his agreement:

I agreed because like, everyone speaks how they talk, like, how they, how they do their accent, everyone has a dialect, there's not someone who *doesn't* have a dialect unless they don't talk. (Billy)

Billy seemed to have an awareness of dialects that was not found among his peers.

While Sonya and Zack agreed that “everybody talks different”, it was unclear from their answers if they understood the item’s meaning. For example, Sonya listed herself and her friends as speakers of different languages (appearing to confuse *dialects* with *languages*), and Zack listed people from other countries as examples of people with dialects:

Like country people and Mexican people and Spain people and French people, all those people have dialects because they always speak different, like accents and stuff, and that’s why I put yes I agree. (Zack)

In sum, this item showed encouraging results among the Treatment group students as indicated by the large increase in agreement. It is clear from the interviews that the lessons pertaining to the terms *dialect* and *language* need to be modified to include discussions of all types of human communication, in addition to a discussion on how mental disabilities may impair a person’s ability to communicate verbally. It is also evident from the Control group students’ responses that few students were aware that everyone speaks a dialect, and therefore they too would benefit from Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction.

6.5.3.2 *I have an accent when I speak my native language*

Two lessons in the LVSS curriculum indirectly touched on the idea of each speaker having an accent (W2D3 and W2D4). Both lessons discussed how each speaker has a unique way of speaking. The first lesson dealt primarily with pronunciation features that signal social identity, and the next lesson dealt with lexical differences.

The second item in the Language Variation set was Item 1, I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE, which showed a loss of four percentage points on the first

posttest. However, the Treatment students did exhibit a gain of eleven percentage points for this item on Posttest3 (Figure 6.11). The Treatment group Response Index decreased from 0.50 (Pretest) to 0.46 (Posttest1), falling further to 0.38 on (Posttest2), before increasing beyond Pretest levels to 0.61 on Posttest3, suggesting that by the end of the school year, many students believed they had an accent when speaking their native language(s).

The low Response Index numbers from Posttest1 and Posttest2 appear to indicate that the lessons did not have the intended effect in communicating to Treatment students that all speakers have accents, even in their native languages. A few more Treatment students expressed disagreement on Posttest1 (nine students) then on the Pretest (seven students), reinforcing the conclusion that the lessons did not convince students that all speakers have an accent in their native language (see Table 6.14 below). Only eight Treatment students agreed on Posttest2, showing more evidence of deterioration of student knowledge of native speaker accents.

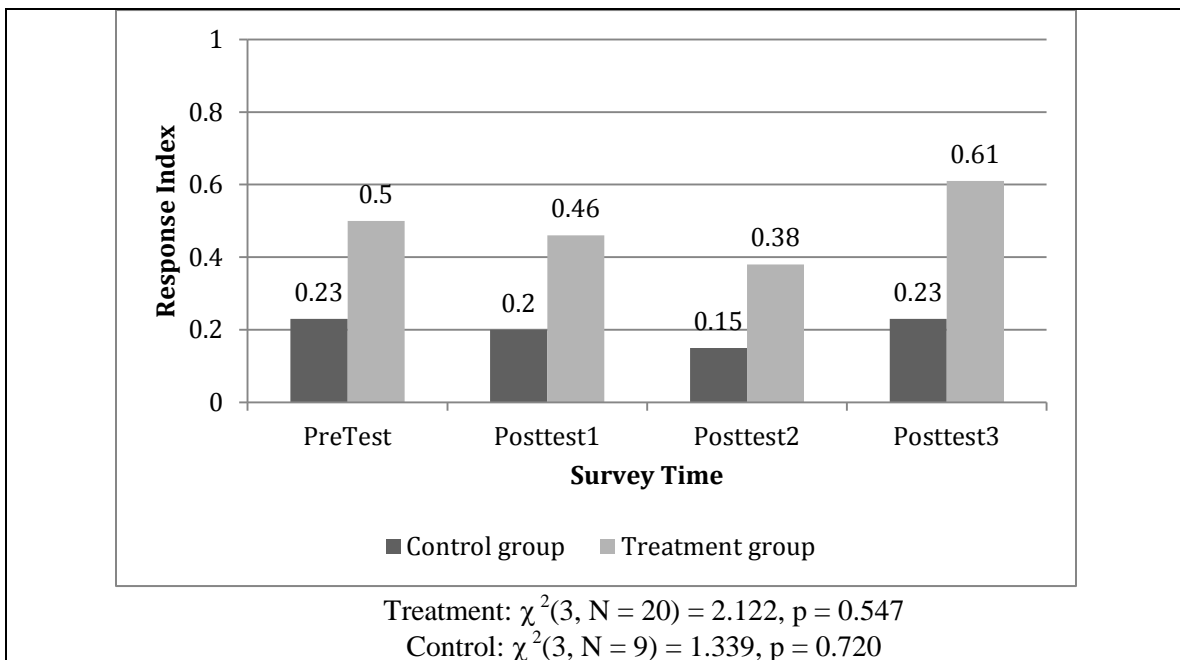


Figure 6.11: Response index for Item 1, "I have an accent when I speak my native language"

On Posttest3, the unexplained increase to fourteen agreements is baffling. What happened in the classroom (or at the school) between January and May that convinced so many more students that they spoke with an accent? A closer look at the survey data shows that several students had an abrupt change-of-opinion on Posttest3 in May: Valentina, Jeronimo, Mateo, Diego, Agustin, and Gabriela. These six students disagreed (or in the case of Gabriela, chose *Don't Know*) on Posttest2, yet all changed their answers to *Agree* or *Strongly Agree* on Posttest3. The dramatic rise in agreement on Posttest3 may be attributed to growing awareness of being Spanish-speakers in an English-dominant country as they prepared for an all-English middle school, although this is only speculative.

Two Treatment students, Daniela and Mariana, marked *Don't Know* for their responses on all four surveys, which suggest that the lessons had little impact for these two girls. One student, Emiliano, marked *Don't Know* on all surveys except Posttest1, where he agreed with the item. It is possible that his subsequent uncertainty stems from loss of knowledge over time. Table 6.14 below shows that the increasing number of *Don't Know* responses over time coincides with increasing agreement over time—more students began to feel uncertain about having accents at the same time that more students began to agree they did have accents.

The Control group students also experienced a similar pattern in responses. Like the Treatment group, agreement with this item decreased over time until Posttest3, when agreement matched Pretest levels, when only six students disagreed. The number of *Don't Know* responses appeared relatively stable.

Table 6.14: Strength of agreement for Item 1, "I have an accent when I speak my native language"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	5 (21%)	7 (29%)	5 (21%)	2 (8%)	5 (21%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (23%)	4 (31%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	3 (13%)	8 (33%)	8 (33%)	1 (4%)	4 (16%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	7 (47%)	2 (13%)	3 (20%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	3 (14%)	5 (24%)	5 (24%)	2 (10%)	6 (29%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	5 (38%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	4 (17%)	10 (43%)	3 (13%)	1 (4%)	8 (35%)
Control	13	1 (8%)	2 (15%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)	4 (31%)

The qualitative interviews highlight that Treatment students were not convinced they had accents. Five of the six students interviewed did not change their answers from the Pretest to Posttest1. David, Sofia and Matias disagreed that they had accents. David explained, “porque yo no tengo ningún acento cuando hablo mi lengua”. When I asked Matias if he thought he spoke “normal”, he said, “yeah, I mean not like *hello mate*”, in imitation of Australian English. For Matias, only outsiders had accents.

Interestingly, Emmanuel also believed that only outsiders had accents, although he agreed with this item on the Pretest and Posttest1. On his Pretest, he explained that some people do have accents when they speak their native languages. On his Posttest1, he agreed because “other people, from like Japan, when they hear us they think we have like an accent”. In both interviews, when I asked him if he thought he had an accent, he responded “no”:

Mary: Mm-hmm. So do you think that *you* have an accent?

Emmanuel: Um no.

Mary: But other people think you have an accent?

Emmanuel: Sometimes.

Mariana, on the other hand, disagreed on her Pretest that she had an accent in her native language “porque sabemos nuestra lengua”, but changed her answer to *Don’t Know* on Posttest1. Mariana expressed doubt on this issue, like Daniela, who responded *Don’t Know* on the Pretest and Posttest1. For Mariana, knowing one’s language means not having an accent.

It is clear from the Posttest1 and Posttest2 results that the lessons did not go far enough in connecting knowledge about pronunciation to the students’ own speech. Many students clearly still believed that they spoke “normal”, and only outsiders had accents. Although Emmanuel showed awareness that others would think he had an accent, he still believed his own speech to be unmarked. It would be interesting to find out what exactly was the change that caused so many more students to believe that had accents by the end of the school year.

Like the Treatment group students, four of the six interviewed Control students believed they did not have accents and spoke “normal”. The fifth student, Sonya, said she did not have an accent in her Pretest interview. However, in her Posttest1 interview, she had changed her mind and believed she did have an accent in her native language (Spanish). It is interesting that as one of the only two Control group students who spoke Spanish at home (Renata, not interviewed for this study, was the other), Sonya believed herself to have an accent while the other four (English monolingual) students believed they spoke “normal”. Jean, the sixth student, reported *Don’t Know* for this item²². Perhaps like her peers in the

²² Jean was born in Mexico but reported English as her first language and English as the dominant language at home.

Dual Language classroom, Sonya was becoming increasingly aware of her position as a bilingual speaker moving up to a monolingual middle school.

In sum, following the *LVSS* lessons, more Treatment students believed their pronunciation to be unmarked (except for the unexplained rise in agreement on Posttest3). It is clear that many Treatment and Control students were unaware that they have accents, even in their native language(s). Future lessons must connect students' own pronunciation patterns to identifiable regional dialects in order to make clear that however unmarked their own speech may appear, it will be marked for someone else. Activities such as pronunciation interviewing in the classroom and in the community could help students detect local accents, in addition to activities in which students compare and contrast pronunciation features of their own speech in different contexts (such as reading aloud versus speaking on the playground).

6.5.4 *Style-shifting*

Several lessons presented the concept of style-shifting to students and gave them opportunities to change language features to match a context. The four lessons in week 3 introduced and defined the concept of style-shifting, formal and informal language, and the concept of appropriate language. Lessons in week 4 were contrastive analysis lessons for which students compared features of English and Spanish language varieties.

Following suggestions from Wheeler and Swords (2006), the concept of style-shifting was first presented with an analogy of appropriate clothing. An activity from W3D1 asked students to brainstorm what kind of shoes they would wear to different locations/events, such as the grocery store, a wedding, school, and the beach. There was a short discussion on the usefulness of flip-flops for the beach, and whether or not one should wear them to a wedding.

I asked the students about high-heels, and if this type of shoe would be appropriate for the four locations. It was decided that high-heels would be most suitable for a wedding, less so for the grocery store or school (excepting teachers, who apparently had permission to wear high-heels in school), and not acceptable for a beach. (In the warm-up period for the next day's lesson, I asked the students to summarize our discussion from the previous day. The classroom teacher presented the students with a unique conundrum—what about high-heels at a beach wedding? The students came to the conclusion that high-heels would be equally inappropriate in that case, because of the sand.)

Students were then asked to do a similar activity of brainstorming greetings for these same four locations. The phrases “what up” and “wassup” were offered by some students after a few moments of pair work; two students claimed that these phrases could be used in all four places. I asked the class if it would be appropriate to say these phrases to a bride and groom on their wedding day; the consensus was that a bride and groom would prefer “hello, how are you”, but it would be okay to say “what up” to a friend who was at the wedding but not participating in the ceremony. The discussion then turned to the use of “sup” at a grocery store. Students agreed that one could say this phrase to a friend encountered at the grocery store, but not to a cashier that one did not know. One student said that it was okay to say “sup” to an unfamiliar cashier if that person were “cool” (field notes, December 2, 2013). It was decided, by the end of this activity, that the person being addressed was sometimes more important than where the greeting took place. This conclusion on the part of students confirms previous style-shifting research that has found that familiarity with interlocutor influences the degree of style-shifting (Cukor-Avila & Bailey, 2001).

Three items provided evidence of student awareness of style-shifting: Item 17 Sometimes saying *What's up?* can be more appropriate than saying *Hello, how are you?*; Item 8, People can change how they speak according to the situation, and Item 18, Language is always changing²³. All three items showed positive gains in mean scores of the Treatment students.

6.5.4.1 *Sometimes saying "What's up?" can be more appropriate than saying "Hello, how are you?"*

Lessons such as W3D1 (discussed above) paid particular attention to common informal and formal greetings and the difference in familiarity that each phrase conveyed. This item showed immediate gains in awareness of style-shifting, although by the end of the school year scores actually decreased below Pretest levels (Figure 6.12 below). The Treatment group's Response Index increased six percentage points from 0.65 (Pretest) to 0.71 (Posttest1), before decreasing to 0.57 (Posttest2) and 0.52 on Posttest3. While there was an immediate gain in awareness of style-shifting as seen in the increased Posttest1 scores, as the school year progressed many students began to disagree that "What's up?" could be more appropriate than the more formal "Hello, how are you?". Over half the Treatment class agreed with this item on all four administrations of the survey, which is encouraging despite the gradual loss of Posttest1 gains over time (Table 6.15 below). Only five students disagreed with this item on Posttest1, but disagreement increased over time.

The Control group students showed little vacillation with this question over time. Only two students agreed on the Pretest and Posttest2 (15% of the class), while four students

²³ This item was originally intended to measure student knowledge of language change over time. However, as shall be discussed below, many students interpreted this item to mean switching between languages. Therefore, it is analyzed with the other two style-shifting items.

(26%) and five students (36%) agreed on Posttest1 and Posttest3, respectively. The number of Control students who expressed disagreement also remained relatively stable. Both groups had low levels of *Don't Know* answers across all four survey time-points, indicating the students felt certain in their responses (Table 6.15).

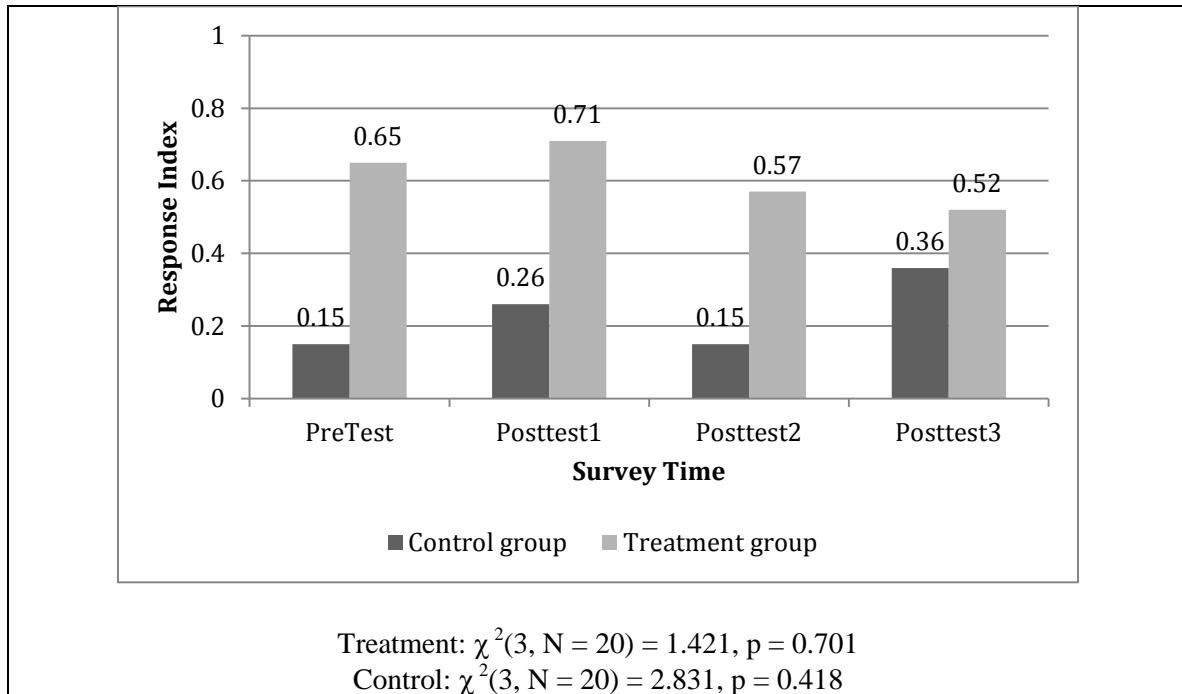


Figure 6.12: Response index for Item 17, "Sometimes saying 'What's up?' can be more appropriate than saying 'Hello, how are you?'"

Table 6.15: Strength of agreement for Item 17, "Sometimes saying 'What's up?' can be more appropriate than saying 'Hello, how are you?'"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	23*	7 (30%)	8 (35%)	3 (13%)	4 (17%)	1 (4%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	6 (46%)	3 (23%)	2 (15%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	8 (33%)	9 (38%)	3 (13%)	2 (8%)	2 (8%)
Control	15	2 (13%)	2 (13%)	6 (40%)	4 (27%)	1 (7%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	5 (24%)	7 (33%)	3 (14%)	5 (24%)	1 (5%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	2 (15%)	8 (62%)	2 (15%)	1 (8%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	6 (26%)	6 (26%)	8 (35%)	2 (9%)	1 (4%)
Control	14	1 (7%)	4 (29%)	7 (50%)	1 (7%)	1 (7%)

*Note: One student did not respond to this item on the Pretest.

In their interviews, several Treatment group students spoke about their negative perceptions of speaking informally. Two students, Daniela and Mariana, believed that the informal variant, *What's up?* in English and *¿Qué onda?* in Spanish, were disrespectful, and should never be used. Mariana said that *¿Qué onda?* should not be used with strangers, while Daniela associated *What's up?* with “people that really weren’t um good when they were like children”. These two students show the stigma that speaking informally may carry with it among children who perceive themselves as well-behaved. Emmanuel and Sofia also believed that *Hello how are you?* is “how you are supposed to say it”, interpreting the word *appropriate* to mean “correct” or “proper”, when it was originally intended to mean “suitable”. On her Pretest, Sofia disagreed that *¿Qué onda?* could be appropriate, “porque no me suena bien”.

It should be noted that the word “appropriate” is synonymous with the word “proper” in English in some cases, which likely led some students to disagree with this item. Merriam-Webster dictionary (www.merriam-webster.com) defines the adjective “appropriate” to mean

“right or suited for some purpose or situation”. However, it lists “proper” as a synonym along with “suitable”, “fitting”, and “applicable”. Merriam-Webster has several senses of the word “proper”, notably “strictly accurate” and “marked by suitability, rightness, or appropriateness”. Thus, “proper” is associated with *correctness* and *following social conventions* while “appropriate” is associated with *suitability to context*. It is likely that many children grow up being told that certain actions are not “appropriate”, i.e., undesired. It is clear from the student interpretations noted above that many students interpreted “appropriate” to mean “correct” or “proper”.

The two words are also related in Spanish. The website www.wordreference.com translates “appropriate” to “conveniente”, “adecuado” and “apropiado”. “Proper” is translated to “correcto” and “apropiado”. Despite this imprecision in terms, Daniela, Sofia, and David, showed a favorable change from *Disagree* to *Agree* responses. Matias showed no change from his Pretest *Don’t Know* response. Ultimately, these interpretations point to the need to clarify potentially ambiguous terms when working with children.

Like their Treatment group peers, five of the six Control group students also interpreted “appropriate” to mean “proper”. In fact, Zack used the word “proper” in his explanation for his disagreement with this item:

Zack: No not really because that’s kind of like, kind of like a slang word and it’s not really okay to use, the proper way to say it is *hello* and *how are you*, like that, and it’s, it’s like not really okay to say *what’s up* to somebody.

Mary: Okay. Would there be, could you think of anybody that it would be okay to say *what’s up*? Or places where it would be okay to say *what’s up*?

Zack: When, when it’s okay between you and the other person, then you could maybe say it to the other person.

Mary: How would you know if it was okay or not?

Zack: If they told you, if they like say, *Can I say what's up to you*, then they would say like, *Yeah that's okay*, and then you could say it, but like it's not really proper to say it to some random—

Mary: To people you don't know?

Zack: Yeah.

Zack makes it clear that the use of the phrase *What's up?* is limited to familiar people with whom there is an explicit understanding that the phrase is acceptable.

In fact, all six Control students stated in their interviews that it is acceptable to use *What's up?* among friends or familiar people, but that one should use *Hello how are you?* with unfamiliar people or strangers. It is clear that the interpretation of the word “appropriate” is what caused many students to express disagreement on the survey, when they may have agreed if the item was worded differently.

Another likely cause for the high levels of disagreement this item attracted in both groups is related to the usage of the phrases *What's up?* and *¿Qué onda?* among this student population. As mentioned above, Daniela, Mariana and Sofía apparently never use either phrase. In fact, three of the Control group students reported they never use the phrase *What's up?*, even to friends. Jean explained that the phrase is “weird”:

Jean: Yeah, I don't think that *what's up* is appropriate.

Mary: Okay, so sometimes, so *what's up* is never going to be appropriate?

Jean: No.

Mary: Okay. Do you ever say *what's up* to your friends or anything?

Jean: No, not really. We just say like *hi*, *how are you doing*, or.

Mary: Okay, so you use *hello how are you*. Do you always say that to your friends?

Jean: I say it like to my family members.

Mary: Uh-huh. What do you, so what do you say to your friends?

Jean: I be like, well I like, I call them like, when the bell rings, and we have to go to class, be like, *hi*, *Annie what are you doing?* I never say *what's up*.

It's weird.

Two of the Control group students, Henry and Liz, reported that they used both *What's up?* and *Hello how are you?*, but the usage depended on their familiarity with the interlocutor, and that they would never use *What's up?* with a stranger.

The interviews with both Treatment and Control group students indicate that most students have noticed the need to style-shift according to audience and context. Although all six Control students expressed disagreement with this item at one or both of their interviews, it is evident that the interpretation of the word “appropriate” caused such a low Response Index reported in Table 6.15 above.

The awareness of style-shifting among both student groups indicates that all students could benefit from explicit instruction in how to style-shift in an academic context. It is also significant that fewer Treatment students agreed with this item by the end of the school year; the influence of formal language and “correctness” apparently regained its lost foothold. This item needs to be reworded on the survey, perhaps replacing the word “appropriate” with “suitable” or more kid-friendly terms. Future lessons may include a discussion of the term “appropriate” in order to expand students’ familiarity with other meanings the word can have. In addition, future lessons must take into account that informal phrases like *What's up?* and *¿Qué onda?* are not universally used among elementary students, and phrases such as these may even be stigmatized by students.

6.5.4.2 *People can change how they speak according to the situation*

Lessons in style-shifting emphasized the situational context in deciding the appropriateness of language features. Lesson W3D2 presented the distinction of *formal* and *informal* language through the children’s book, *Don’t Say Ain’t* by Irene Smalls. The story, read aloud to the class, tells about a young African-American girl in 1950s Harlem who gets

an opportunity to attend an advanced school. The girl, Dana, quickly finds out that the word *ain't* is discouraged at her new school, and she struggles with accommodating to a new way of speaking. Finally, her stiff and formal teacher visits her home, where the teacher relaxes, laughs, and even uses *ain't* with the girl's grandmother. At the end of the story, Dana realizes she does not have to abandon her familiar way of talking; instead, she gains an ability to match her language to the context. After reading the story, students identified where and with whom Dana was able to use *ain't* and *is not*, documenting responses in a graph on the whiteboard (field notes, December 5, 2013).

This next item in the style-shifting set showed an immediate gain on the Treatment group's Posttest1 mean scores, which increased further over time. Figure 6.13 below shows the Response Index, which increased six percentage points from 0.48 (Pretest) to 0.54 (Posttest1), before increasing a further twenty points to 0.76 on Posttest2 and 0.74 on Posttest3, exhibiting a strong maintenance of this knowledge point. Unexpectedly, more Treatment students disagreed with this item on Posttest1 (8 students) than on any other test (Table 6.16 below). Nevertheless, as the school year progressed more Treatment students agreed that people could adapt their speech to a situation. The difference between the Pretest and Posttest2 scores was statistically significant ($p = 0.014$).

The Control group displayed steady levels of agreement with this item, with the proportion of agreeing students hovering just over half of the participants on all four survey administrations. The number of *Don't Know* responses remained low across the three posttests in both groups.

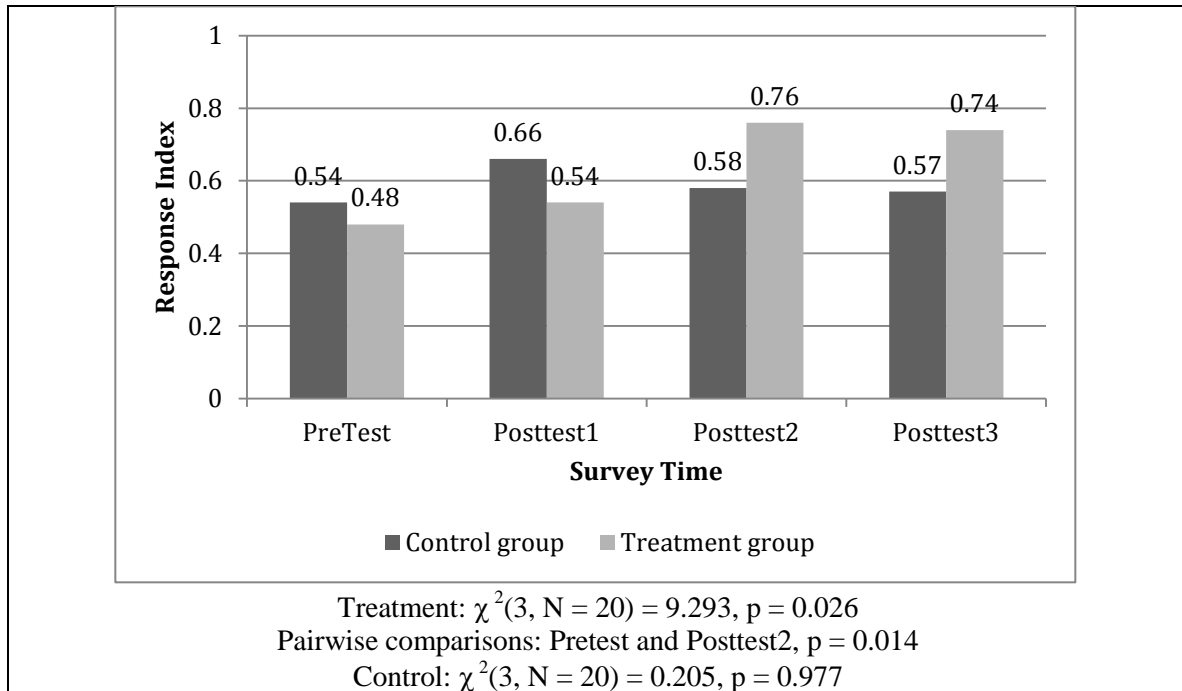


Figure 6.13: Response index for Item 8, "People can change how they speak according to the situation"

Table 6.16: Strength of agreement for Item 8, "People can change how they speak according to the situation"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	23*	3 (13%)	8 (33%)	3 (13%)	2 (8%)	7 (29%)
Control	13	2 (15%)	5 (38%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	4 (31%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	5 (21%)	8 (33%)	8 (33%)	0 (0%)	3 (13%)
Control	15	3 (20%)	7 (47%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)	3 (20%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	6 (29%)	10 (48%)	1 (5%)	1 (5%)	3 (14%)
Control	12	2 (17%)	5 (42%)	2 (17%)	0 (0%)	3 (25%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	5 (22%)	12 (52%)	2 (9%)	0 (0%)	4 (17%)
Control	14	3 (21%)	5 (36%)	4 (29%)	0 (0%)	2 (14%)

*Note: One student did not respond to this item on the Pretest.

Although the item was intended to reflect within-language adaptation of one's speech according to the situation, many Treatment students interviewed interpreted this item to refer to switching between two languages in order to accommodate monolingual interlocutors. On

her pretest, Daniela offered her dad as an example, saying he was learning English in order to speak to people in New Mexico. When I asked her if her dad ever changed the way he spoke Spanish according to where he was, she answered with a determined “no”. Both Emmanuel and Mariana agreed that a speaker should change languages when their interlocutor was not bilingual. Interestingly, David and Sofia disagreed that a speaker should switch languages. David explained that if people don’t understand something in English they should try to figure it out in English instead of switching back to Spanish.

In the Posttest interviews, Emmanuel, Sofia, David, and Mariana still interpreted this item to mean switching between two languages for the benefit of an interlocutor. Attempting to clarify the item for Mariana, I asked her if she would speak Spanish the same way at school, on the playground, and at home. She said that she would not change her way of speaking Spanish. It appears that this survey item did not trigger an awareness of style-shifting within the same language for these students. Perhaps the item was not worded clearly enough to emphasize within-language variation; a re-wording could look like: “I can speak informally with my friends, and formally with my teacher”. A more specific wording of the item could have clarified the intended meaning for many students.

Nevertheless, Daniela was one interviewed student who did grasp the within-language style-shifting intended in the item. In her Posttest interview, she cited the Obama style-shifting lesson, in which we watched a video of President Obama making his 2008 victory speech, and a video of President Obama ordering a hamburger at a restaurant:

[...] because when Obama was um ordering his burger he changed how he talked and when he was like talking to like audience he didn’t, he was like, um, how is that, strict, like he was putting orders on like, it needs to be this and that and he was talking another form, he was talking informal on when he was ordering his burger. (Daniela)

Daniela noticed the connection between speech and context of the two President Obama audio clips, and recognized that President Obama had shifted his style.

In fact, three of the six interviewed Control group students also interpreted this item to mean switching from one language to another to benefit a monolingual interlocutor. Sonya explained her agreement with this item, reflecting her familiarity with Spanish speakers' experiences in the United States:

Because if you speak Spanish and um you need to work and they speak English, you need to learn English so you could know what they're talking, know what they're trying to tell you. (Sonya)

Two of the Control group students, Billy and Jean, gave examples of how emotions could make someone "change the way they speak". Jean mentioned the loudness of a speaker's voice might change depending on emotion:

Because when they're calm, they don't speak that loud and like when they start fighting, they could like yell and stuff. (Jean)

It is evident that the Control group students were aware of how a situation could influence a speaker's voice and even the language he/she decides to speak.

In sum, it appears that some students were familiar with the Spanish—English dichotomy and the frequent need for language-switching. A more specific wording of the item that signaled informal and formal speech within the same language could have triggered more Treatment students to remember the style-shifting lessons. Although more students disagreed with this item on Posttest1, agreement actually increased over time with Posttest2 and Posttest3. It is likely that these bilingual students were aware of the need to match the language with the situation, but the between-languages interpretation of the item prevented an expression of their awareness of style-shifting within a language.

6.5.4.3 *Language is always changing*

The final item grouped with the Style-shifting set was Item 18, LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING. This item was originally written to refer to language change over time; however, it appears few students interpreted this item that way. Because many interviewed students interpreted this item to mean switching from one language to another, this item is grouped in the Style-shifting set.

Two lessons in the curriculum explicitly dealt with language change over time: W2D1: *Language change over time: Lord's Prayer*, and W2D2: *Language change over time: Appendix Probi*. The first lesson had two main activities. First, students were shown a table of common slang words in English that were used in different decades of the 20th and 21st centuries. Phrases such as *the cat's pajamas* and *gotta motor* were given as examples of slang that were no longer current in usage. The purpose of this table was to introduce students to the idea that each generation has its own set of slang. The second part of the lesson used the English text of the *Lord's Prayer* from three different centuries (11th century, 14th century, and 19th century) to illustrate how the English language has changed over time, over many generations. Students were asked to listen to recordings of the three versions and identify words they could recognize.

The second lesson examined language change in Spanish using a selected list of words taken from the *Appendix Probi*, a 3rd century text that lists common “mistakes” in the Latin of the era. Probus’ list of unacceptable mistakes were compared with a recent children’s book, *Woe Is I, Jr.* by Patricia T. O’Connor. O’Connor’s book lists unacceptable grammar “mistakes” which the author calls “grammatical horrors”; the chapter we focused on listed informal contractions in English such as *gonna*, *wanna* and *could’ve*. Both authors,

it was pointed out, wrote lists of words and phrases that they wanted people to avoid. Students were given a table with seven of Probus' corrections that are similar to modern Spanish words (for example, *auctor non autor*, "author"). Students were asked to identify the modern Spanish word from Probus' "mistake". A discussion followed in which the concept of *prescriptivism* (but not the term) was introduced; we discussed how some people want others to speak only in a certain way. Students were asked to consider if words that appear as "mistakes" in modern times may be considered "correct" in future times.

After participating in these two lessons on language change, it was expected that more students would agree with this item on the posttest(s). In fact, this item showed a high level of agreement on the Pretest, with a mild increase on Posttest1 and only a slight loss in subsequent posttests. These positive numbers suggest that the Treatment students were aware of language change and did indeed internalize the lessons on language change. However, the qualitative interviews show this is not the full picture.

Figure 6.14 below shows the Response Index for this item. The Treatment group's Response Index increased seven percentage points from 0.71 on the Pretest to 0.78 on Posttest1, and remained relatively steady on Posttest2 (0.75) and Posttest3 (0.74). Approximately three-fourths of the class agreed with this item across all four surveys, possibly indicating that students maintained their awareness of language change (Table 6.17 below). Reinforcing this interpretation is the fact that only two students disagreed with this item on Posttest1, a decrease from five students on the Pretest. Also worth acknowledging is the small number of *Don't Know* responses on this item, indicating strong confidence in responses.

The agreement levels from the Control group suggest that fewer students had an understanding of language change, although by the end of the school year the proportion of students in the Control group (N = 11, 79%) exceeds the proportion of Treatment group students' agreement (N = 17, 74%) on Posttest3. These results may lead us to suspect that the Control group gained some knowledge or exposure to the concept of language change by the end of school year. However, this is probably not the case, as the interviews show.

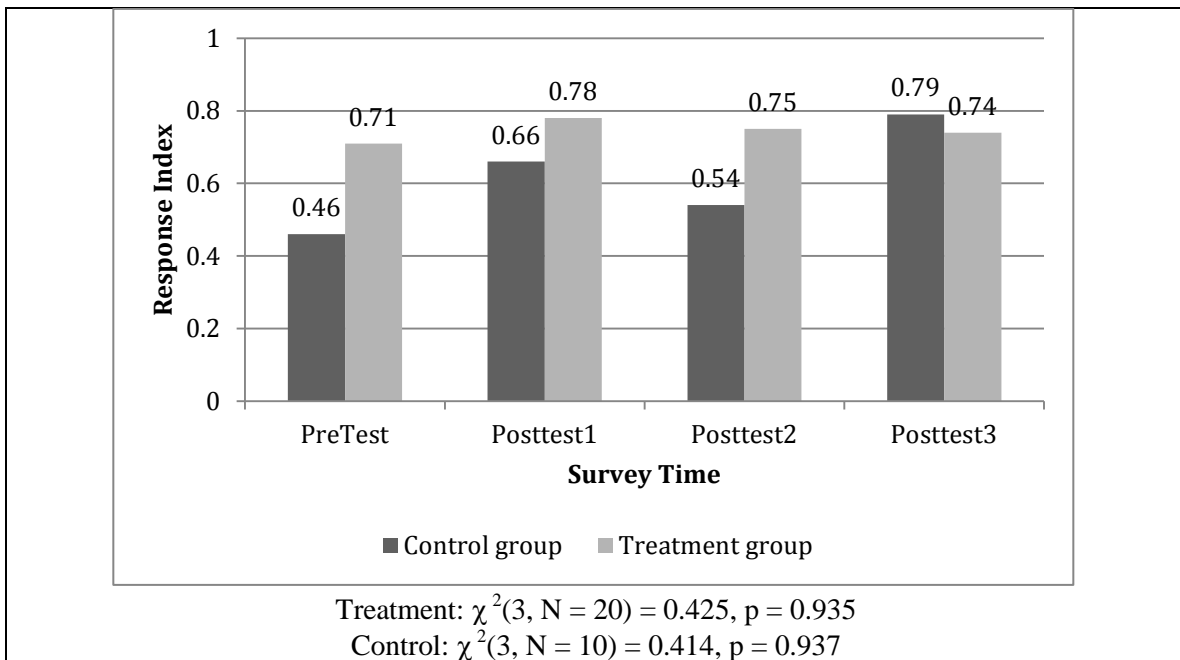


Figure 6.14: Response Index for Item 18, "Language is always changing"

Table 6.17: Strength of agreement for Item 18, "Language is always changing"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	7 (29%)	10 (42%)	4 (17%)	1 (4%)	2 (8%)
Control	13	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	2 (15%)	3 (23%)	2 (15%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	5 (21%)	13 (54%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)	3 (13%)
Control	15	3 (20%)	7 (47%)	2 (13%)	0 (0%)	3 (20%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	20*	5 (24%)	10 (42%)	3 (13%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
Control	13	4 (31%)	3 (23%)	3 (23%)	0 (0%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	6 (26%)	11 (48%)	5 (22%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)
Control	14	3 (21%)	8 (57%)	2 (14%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)

*Note: One student did not respond to this item on Posttest2.

The qualitative interviews reveal a nearly categorical misunderstanding that occurred with this survey item, which could explain both the high level of agreement and the lack of significant change from Pretest to Posttests for the Treatment group. On the Pretest, five of the six interviewed Treatment students understood LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING to refer to the idea that a person can change between Spanish or English based on the language abilities of the interlocutor (Matias, the sixth student, responded *Don't Know*). Thus, it is conceivable that the high level of agreement across all surveys actually reflects the confidence of these bilingual students in switching (or “changing”) between English and Spanish as needed. It is likely that many of these students act as English interpreters for their parents (Malakoff & Hakuta, 1991), and are therefore very familiar with “language change”.

On Posttest1, two of the six interviewed Treatment students still misinterpreted the intended meaning of the item (Emmanuel and David). Sofia and Mariana responded *Don't Know*.

Two students, Daniela and Matias, showed the intended interpretation of this item. Daniela and Matias both cited the two lessons examining language change, discussed above. Thus, it appears that the language change lessons were not ineffectual; instead, the wording of the survey item was problematic since some students did not recognize the allusion to language change over time.

During the interviews, I clarified the meaning of the item with the four Treatment students who misinterpreted it. I asked them if they thought their English or Spanish would be the same when they were older (60-80 years old). David said it would only be different because his voice would change over time, but the Spanish itself would not change. Mariana said her Spanish would not change because she may forget her Spanish, indicating awareness of language loss that happens among many Spanish-speaking students in the United States (cf. Wong Fillmore, 1991, 2000), or that she would be so old that no one would understand her. On his Pretest, Emmanuel said his English and Spanish would probably stay the same all his life. However, in his Posttest1 interview Emmanuel said his language would probably be different because as an older person he would speak more formally (indicating awareness of the “roller-coaster trajectory of vernacularity”, Van Hofwegen & Wolfram, 2010).

Similarly, five of the six interviewed Control students also interpreted this item to mean switching from one language to another (the sixth student, Jean, responded *Don't Know*). For example, Liz made a reference to bilingual people who can switch between two languages:

Liz: Well like it is but at the same time it's not, and the reason why it's not because like people that I know, they keep the language that they know and like some people they kind of like change it sometimes whenever I see them, so.

Mary: What do you mean *change* it?

Liz: Like if they're speaking English one day and the next day they're speaking Spanish.

Mary: Okay so they can change between the languages?

Liz: Yeah.

Many students viewed language as something fixed and immutable. For example, Zack explained his disagreement with the idea of speaking a language "for the rest of your life":

Um no, I put no, because um, it's like not really changing because if you speak English and um Spanish then um, you probably speak English and Spanish for the rest of your life and Japanese and stuff, that you'd probably speak that for the rest of your life, unless you want to like change your language, then yeah. (Zack)

As I did for the Treatment students, I clarified the meaning of the question for these five Control students. For each, I asked them if they believed the English (or Spanish) that they spoke as fifth-graders would be the same as when they were older (50-80 years old). Only Sonya, in her Posttest1 interview, believed her language could change because she would learn more words. Billy and Henry did not believe their language would change throughout their lifetimes. Even with the clarification, Liz and Zack still interpreted "language change" to mean "language switch". For example, Zack brought up his desire to learn Spanish:

Mary: Mm-hmm. So let me ask you a question. Do you think that the English that you speak now, is it going to be the same as when you're fifty years old?

Zack: Um, probably. I don't think I'll ever learn Spanish because um I've never, my grandma, I try, I try it, because my grandma speaks full Spanish, full Spanish--

Mary: mm-hmm.

Zack: --and I try, I try um, I try telling her to teach me but she can't because she's always busy and I try learning from her operas kind of and I can't really understand it and I've always tried to learn Spanish but I can't really read it.

Our conversation then turned into the possibility of Zack studying Spanish in high school or college. Nevertheless, it was evident that both Liz and Zack believed their current way of speaking English was enduring and unalterable.

It is probable that the high levels of agreement from both groups resulted from the misinterpretation of this item to mean switching between languages for the sake of a monolingual interlocutor. This item most likely would benefit from re-wording, perhaps to “All languages change over time” or a more specific “English (or Spanish) was different five hundred years ago than it is today”. Due to the high interest that the language change lessons received, it is clear that Treatment students were excited to learn about how language differs from one generation to the next. However, as the interviews showed, some students did not believe that language would keep changing (as if English and Spanish had reached their final, perfect states). Therefore, it is recommended that language change lessons not only focus on past language change, but possible future language change as well.

In sum, the survey items and interviews suggest that students already notice style-shifting, first language attrition, language acquisition, and code-switching. All three survey items would likely benefit from rewording to make the meaning more clear, especially for LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING. Students needed a clear understanding of the word “appropriate”, and the second style-shifting item must make within-language variation distinct from between—language switching. It was difficult for some students to see beyond the Spanish—English dichotomy in order to examine variability within the two languages. Future lessons may devote more intensive and extensive examinations of variability within the two languages.

6.6 Summary of Sociolinguistic Knowledge Results

This section summarizes the results of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items. First, I offer an overview of the change in mean scores in both the Treatment and the Control groups. Second, I review the efficacy of the unit in improving students' Sociolinguistic Knowledge. Third, I discuss the revisions to the item wording that could improve the assessment validity. I conclude with suggested modifications to the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders* unit itself.

Overall, eight of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items exhibited immediate positive change on the Treatment group's Posttest1 survey, while a ninth item showed an increase on the final posttest. This fact is encouraging for future language awareness curricula that seek to educate public school students on language variation. While there was not a statistically significant change in the overall mean scores of either the Treatment or Control groups over time, there were statistically significant differences in certain items (discussed further below), and there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups. This fact suggests that students enrolled in Dual Language classes are more sociolinguistically aware than their peers enrolled in English-only instruction. This finding supports bilingual education and biliteracy for bilingual students as a positive influence on their Sociolinguistic Knowledge.

Both boys and girls in the Treatment group had improved their mean scores by the end of the school year, and the boys performed slightly better than girls. In the Control group, the opposite pattern was true: both boys and girls had worse mean scores as time went on, and the girls performed slightly better than the boys by the end of the school year. This finding provides evidence for the assertion that all students could benefit from

sociolinguistically-informed curricula, and furthermore, gender appears to play a role in the expression of Sociolinguistic Knowledge.

These overall results from the language survey indicate that the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth-Graders* curriculum did impact the Treatment students' understanding of sociolinguistic concepts. This increase indicates the *LVSS* curriculum was successful in increasing students' Sociolinguistic Knowledge. Therefore, the first research question:

After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in Sociolinguistic Knowledge**?

can be answered in the affirmative, and furthermore, the change was positive for eight of out ten items on the first posttest.

The second part of the research question asked if this change could be maintained over a longer period of time (i.e. 5 months after instruction). The second posttest was administered after 42 days had elapsed, and the third posttest was administered after one hundred forty days had elapsed (five calendar months). As a group, the Treatment students' scores increased over time, from 68% knowledgeable on Posttest1 to 71% on Posttest3. Not only did students maintain the Sociolinguistic Knowledge, but they appeared to gain slightly more as time went on. Considering the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge items overall, the answer is yes, students do maintain knowledge, and in some cases, their knowledge increases over time.

Considering survey items individually, the answer is more mixed. The survey items that showed this maintenance of knowledge over time are based in the Systemic Dialect Patterning set (all three items showed mostly maintained scores), two of the three items from

the Style-Shifting set, and an unexpected gain on Posttest3 for I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE.

Loss of knowledge was detected in the two Dialect Misconceptions items (DIALECTS ARE SLOPPY FORMS OF LANGUAGE and DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING), one Language Variation Awareness item (EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT), and one Style-Shifting item (SOMETIMES SAYING *WHAT'S UP?* CAN BE MORE APPROPRIATE THAN SAYING *HELLO HOW ARE YOU?*). This mixed finding suggests that students need ongoing instruction in Sociolinguistic Awareness in order to maintain gains in learning.

Among the Treatment students' scores, three of the survey items demonstrated a statistically significant difference between Pretest and Posttest(s) scores. Specifically, the items that showed a statistically significant difference were: Item 20 (DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING); Item 7 (I CAN GUESS WHERE A PERSON COMES FROM BY LISTENING TO HOW HE/SHE TALKS); Item 8 (PEOPLE CAN CHANGE THE WAY THEY SPEAK ACCORDING TO THE SITUATION). However, there were no statistically significant differences among the scores of the Control group (see Table 6.18 for a summary of the Friedman statistical tests).

Table 6.18: Sociolinguistic Knowledge Items Friedman Test Results

<i>Item</i>	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>p value</i>
Item 13: Dialects are sloppy forms of language		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 6.023$	0.110
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 2.957$	0.398
Item 20: Dialects and slang are the same thing		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 9.839$	0.02
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 3.278$	0.351
Item 3: Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 0.861$	0.835
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 1.79$	0.617
Item 15: Dialects follow rules or patterns		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 1.310$	0.727
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 4.773$	0.189
Item 7: I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she speaks		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 19) = 9.785$	0.02
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 9) = 5.943$	0.114
Item 11: Everyone speaks a dialect		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 2.478$	0.479
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 0.609$	0.894
Item 1: I have an accent when I speak my native language		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 2.122$	0.547
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 9) = 1.339$	0.720
Item 17: Sometimes saying <i>What's up?</i> can be more appropriate than saying <i>Hello how are you?</i>		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 1.421$	0.701
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 2.831$	0.418
Item 8: People can change the way they speak according to the situation		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 9.293$	0.026
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 0.205$	0.977
Item 18: Language is always changing		
Treatment	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 0.425$	0.935
Control	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 0.414$	0.937

The wording of some survey items need to be revised in further iterations of this study. Some survey items were subject to misinterpretation by students in both groups due to ambiguous wording. For example, item 18, LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING, originally intended to mean language change over time, was interpreted by ten of the twelve

interviewed students as meaning switching from one language to another. Perhaps a more specific reference to language change, such as “The English language was different in the past” or “The Spanish language will not be different in 200 years from now” may trigger ideas of language change or language immutability.

Two more items were subject to misinterpretation because some students did not catch the intended sense of a word. For example, the word “appropriate” in item 17 was intended to mean “suitable”, but many students interpreted it to mean “proper”. In another example, students interpreted the word “rules” to mean “laws” in item 15, and apparently were not familiar with the concept of “grammar rules” or “grammar patterns”. It is possible that the young age of the students influenced the literal interpretation of these words. Therefore, steps must be taken to take into account the ongoing development of vocabulary for young learners of sociolinguistics. For example, item 17 could be reworded as “I can say *What’s up?* to some people, and *Hello how are you?* to other people”.

Other items were ambiguous. For example, in item 8: PEOPLE CAN CHANGE THE WAY THEY SPEAK ACCORDING TO THE SITUATION it is not explicit what the phrase “the way they speak” refers to. Some students interpreted it to mean voice loudness, and others interpreted it to mean a switch in language. Re-wording the item to refer to within-language style-shifting may clear up the ambiguity: “I speak formally with my teacher, and informally with my friends”.

In the case of I CAN GUESS WHERE A PERSON COMES FROM BY LISTENING TO HOW HE/SHE TALKS, a more explicit allusion to speaker pronunciation and accent may avoid the interpretation of guessing origin based on *language*. A re-wording such as “It is possible to

guess what part of the country someone comes from based on his/her accent” may help students to think of how accent can identify a speaker’s regional, within-country origin.

It is important to emphasize the usefulness of mixed methods in a study such as this. For example, the common misinterpretation of the language change survey item would not have been noticed if conversational interviews had not been conducted with survey-takers; based on the numerical results alone, the item appears to indicate success of the language change lessons. Based on the interviews, however, this survey item was not quite a valid measurement of those lessons since so many students did not catch the intended meaning.

Finally, several modifications to the lessons in Sociolinguistic Knowledge are recommended. Recommendations include:

1. Emphasizing that all languages consist of dialects or varieties;
2. Discussions on how all types of human communication adapt to the expectations of the context;
3. Inclusion of a lesson on non-verbal communication such as sign language and body language;
4. The establishment of slang as a dimension of vocabulary;
5. The clarification of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammatical differences as dialectal patterns;
6. Incorporation of more classroom-based linguistic fieldwork lessons where students investigate, document and describe each others’ pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammatical features to debunk the myths of “speaking normal” and “accentlessness”;

7. Emphasizing within-language style-shifting to go beyond the Spanish—English dichotomy;
8. A discussion of what “appropriate” means in terms of matching one’s language to fit a context, versus “correct” and “proper”.

The next chapter discusses the results of the ten Language Attitude items.

Chapter 7: Language Attitudes Results

7.1 Chapter Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the ten Language Attitude items of the language survey for the Treatment and the Control groups. The ten Language Attitude items were designed to answer the second research question:

After participating in a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in language attitudes**? If so, do students demonstrate long-term (5 months) maintenance of change in language attitudes?

There are three major findings from the ten Language Attitudes survey items results. First, the Treatment students demonstrated a gain in positive Language Attitudes on six out of the ten survey items, proving evidence for the effectiveness of the *LVSS* curriculum in improving attitudes, especially towards accents. The second major finding was that the Treatment and Control group students began the study with near-identical Language Attitudes, but over the course of the study these attitudes began to split, and by the end of the school year, 5 calendar months after the lessons, the Treatment students maintained their Language Attitudes, while the Control students, as a group, declined (with a statistically significant difference between the two groups' scores on Posttest2). This finding strongly suggests that Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction is critical to maintaining positive Language Attitudes. Finally, the third major finding concerned the gender of the participants. Treatment girls surpassed their male peers in positive Language Attitudes, demonstrating a gain over time, while the boys mostly maintained scores with a slight drop by the end of the school year. Control boys demonstrated the most negative Language Attitudes, and their female peers followed them closely into declining attitudes until the Control girls suddenly

rallied, matching the Treatment boys in positive Language Attitudes on Posttest3. Together, these three findings support the usefulness of Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula in promoting positive attitudes towards language; furthermore, bilingual girls are the most positive towards other speakers.

In this chapter, I discuss the reliability and validity of the ten Language Attitudes survey items. Second, I compare the results of the Treatment and Control group students as intact groups, and split along gender groups. Third, I present the results of individual items across all four survey administrations (Pretest, Posttest1, Posttest2, and Posttest3). I discuss both numerical results and the conversational interviews to help explain the observed trends. The chapter ends with a discussion of the efficacy of the *LVSS* unit in improving Language Attitudes of bilingual fifth-graders.

7.2 Reliability and Validity of the Language Attitude Survey Items

As with the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items analyzed in Chapter 6, steps were taken to determine the consistency (reliability) and trustworthiness (validity) of the Language Attitude survey items.

To see if the ten Language Attitude survey items gave trustworthy results, a components analysis (PCA) was run on the 10-question subsection of the language survey that measured Language Attitudes on the twenty-four Treatment group students' first posttest scores, with a total of 239 observations and 1 nonresponse (24 observations per item). The purpose of the PCA was to determine if the ten items appeared to be measuring the same variables; if so, an underlying structure would be apparent that should be similar to the intended design of the items. It would be expected that the ten survey items would load onto

three or four variables due to their related themes; this would provide evidence of strong construct validity.

The statistical steps taken to run the PCA are specified in Appendix D, and the final results of the PCA are reported below in Table 7.1 below. The PCA resulted in the identification of three factors (variables) among seven of the ten survey items. The three items that do not appear in the table loaded weakly onto the variables and were removed from the PCA analysis (Item 12: THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE, Item 19: FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE, and Item 9, PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES). The three factors for the remaining seven items were named “Accent Superiority”, “Enforced Normativity” and “Speaker Expertise”. The “Communality” column lists the proportion of that item’s variance that can be explained by the extracted factor. The communalities were relatively strong (0.58 or higher), indicating reliability of the factor.

Table 7.1: Language Attitude factor loadings and communalities

<i>Items</i>	<i>Factors</i>			<i>Communality</i>
	<i>Accent Superiority</i>	<i>Enforced Normativity</i>	<i>Speaker Expertise</i>	
Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of the way they talk	.85			.74
Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico	.83		.39	.86
Item 16: I think some accents are better than others	.64		-.41	.58
Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk		.86		.79
Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time		.84		.72
Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly			.87	.79
Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy		.41	-.68	.68

Note: Loadings less than 0.3 are suppressed.

The PCA results reported above give an idea of the construct validity of the survey items, i.e., if the survey items were measuring what they were supposed to measure (the negative cross-loadings are due to reverse-coding).

In addition to the construct validity of the survey items, the reliability (i.e. the extent to which the items yield stable and consistent results) was also calculated using Cronbach's alpha for each of the three identified factors from the principal components analysis (see Table 7.2). The first two factors showed internal consistency, while the third factor showed low internal consistency. Re-writing the questions could probably strengthen the third factor.

The first factor, “Speaker Superiority”, consisted of three questions. The scale had an acceptable level of internal consistency, as determined by a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.685. The second factor, “Enforced Normativity”, consisted of two questions and also had an acceptable level of internal consistency (0.687). The third factor, “Speaker Expertise”, consisted of two questions and had low internal consistency (0.161).

Table 7.2: Language Attitude descriptive statistics for Cronbach's alpha

<i>Factor</i>	<i>No. of items</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Cronbach's α</i>
Accent Superiority	3	9.66	2.64	0.685
Enforced Normativity	2	6.95	1.48	0.687
Speaker Expertise	2	1.3	0.637	0.161

The results from the reliability correlation coefficient indicate that at least five of the Language Attitude survey items are reliable measures. The remaining five survey items should be examined for possible revision in future versions of this study.

As was explained in Chapter 6 for the Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items, item analysis is a procedure that helps identify test items that may benefit from rewording, identifying items that are too difficult (if too few students score correctly) and items that do not discriminate between high and low scorers (correlating between the test-taker’s performance on an individual item and the test taker’s overall performance). We would expect an adequate difficulty level of around 0.75 and a high correlation close to 1.0 for adequate discriminatory power.

Table 7.3 shows the corrected point biserial correlations (discriminatory power) for each item and the corresponding means (difficulty level). Items that are considered

“acceptable” require a corrected point biserial correlation of at least 0.15 (Varma, n.d.); two items did not meet this threshold of item quality, suggesting these items should be reviewed for content and wording (Item 1, EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME and Item 12, THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE).

Table 7.3: Item Analysis for Language Attitude Scale

<i>Item</i>	<i>Corrected Point Biserial Correlation</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Revisions Recommended?</i>
Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time	.05	.83	Yes
Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk	.50	.71	No
Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico	.42	.75	No
Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly	.17	.88	No
Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy	.16	.46	Yes
Item 9: People from England speak better English than people from the United States	.58	.67	No
Item 12: The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language	-.06	.21	Yes
Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how he/she talks	.19	.67	No
Item 16: I think some accents are better than others	.31	.58	Yes
Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language	.19	.30	Yes

The mean scores column shows the ratio of Treatment students who scored correctly on Posttest1, which gives an indication of the item’s difficulty. Item 12, THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE and Item 19, FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE had the lowest number of correct responses (21% and 30% respectively), indicating these items were the most difficult for students. Item 1, EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME and Item 5, I THINK

EVERYONE SPEAKS HIS/HER NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY had the highest number of correct responses (83% and 88%, respectively), indicating these were not too easy and not too difficult for students to answer. Item 6 (PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY) and Item 16 (I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS) should be examined for re-wording, since these two items received scores close to the chance mark (46% and 58% respectively). Six items had difficulty scores close to the 0.75 point suggesting these were at adequate difficulty level. Taking into consideration the correlations and difficulty levels, five of the survey items may benefit from rewording.

The three variable structure identified above guides the following analyses of the survey items. The two grouped under “Speaker Expertise” are presented together; two of the three items in “Accent Superiority” analyzed together, along with Item 9, PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES, which was removed from the PCA. The third “Accent Superiority” item was grouped with an item from the “Enforced Normativity” set, since they were related in wording: Item 14, IT IS OKAY TO THINK SOMEONE IS DUMB BECAUSE OF THE WAY THEY TALK and Item 2, SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK. These two items are grouped under the heading “Judgments of Speaker Intelligence”. The last two items that were removed from the PCA are grouped with the last “Enforced Normativity” item, Item 1, EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME, under the heading “Prescriptive Attitudes”.

Table 7.4 below shows the items grouped into four thematic sets, partly informed by the principal components analysis results. Two items measured attitudes towards the language expertise of others; three items measured attitudes towards accent superiority; three

items measured prescriptive attitudes; two items measured attitudes of speaker intelligence based on speech.

Table 7.4: Language Attitude grouped items

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Grouped Items</i>
Speaker expertise	Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly. Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.
Accent superiority	Item 9: People from England speak better English than people from the United States. Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico. Item 16: I think some accents are better than others.
Judgments of speaker intelligence	Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk. Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk.
Prescriptive attitudes	Item 19: Formal language is always better than informal language. Item 12: The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language. Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time.

The next section compares the results of the ten Language Attitudes items of the Treatment and Control group participants.

7.3 Comparison of Treatment and Control Groups

The second research question asked if 5th graders receiving lessons in Sociolinguistic Awareness would demonstrate a change in Language Attitudes. In order to determine if any change the Treatment group may exhibit was due to the curriculum as opposed to normal developmental growth and maturation, the responses of the Treatment group are compared to those of Control group students, who did not participate in the curriculum.

To compare the results of the two groups numerically, a Mixed ANOVA was run with the data using SPSS version 22, with the within-subjects variable being TIME (four levels: Pretest, Post1, Post2, and Post3), the between-subjects variable being GROUP (two levels: Treatment or Control), and the dependent variable being the mean scores of the ten Language Attitudes items, based on a binary coding scheme where tolerant responses were coded as 1, and intolerant and *Don't Know* responses were coded as zero. The Mixed ANOVA allows comparison across time points (as in a Repeated Measures ANOVA) and across groups (as in a one-way ANOVA).

Steps were taken to meet the assumptions of the Mixed ANOVA. First, the data were inspected for outliers. Visual inspection of a boxplot determined that there were no outliers for values greater than 1.5 box-lengths from the edge of the box (see Figure 7.1).

The second assumption of the Mixed ANOVA is a normal distribution of scores. The Language Attitudes scores were normally distributed for all interventions at all time points, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk's test ($p > 0.05$), except for the Control group's Post2 scores ($N = 10$, $p = 0.025$). Z scores were calculated for the Control Post2 scores with a skewness of -0.794 (standard error = 0.687, $z = -1.155$) and kurtosis of -1.067 (standard error = 1.334, $z = -0.799$). Because the z scores fell within ± 2.58 , the Control Post2 scores were determined to be normally distributed. This was confirmed by a visual inspection of the Normal Q-Q Plots.

The third assumption of the Mixed ANOVA is homogeneity of variances, that is, that the samples not be skewed. There was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variance ($p > .05$). A fourth assumption is the covariation between the two experimental conditions; this is due to the same participants participating in each time-

point. There was homogeneity of covariances, as assessed by Box's test of equality of covariance matrices ($p = 0.960$).

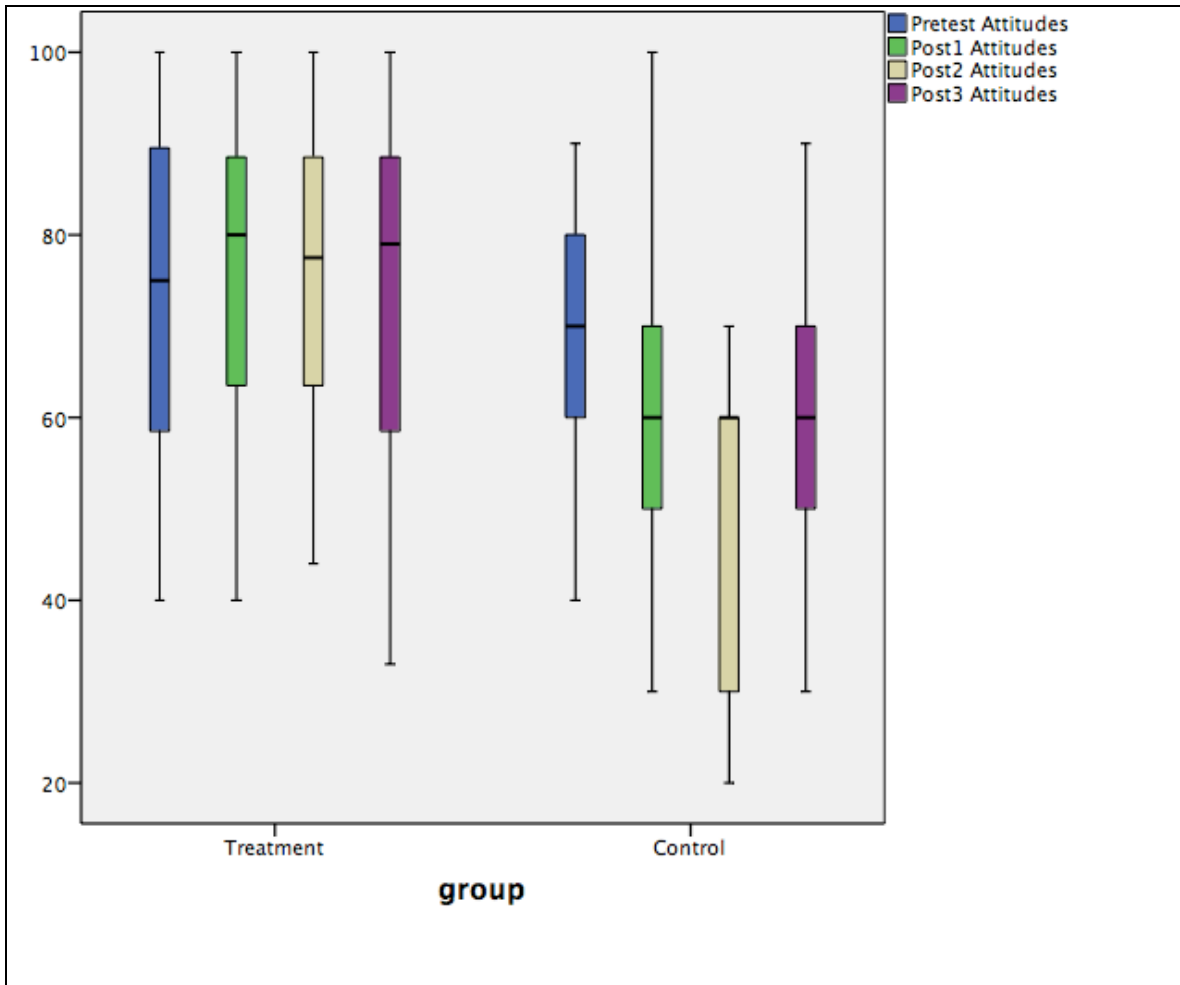


Figure 7.1: Language Attitudes boxplots for Treatment and Control groups

The next assumption of the Mixed ANOVA is sphericity, which tests the equality of variances of the differences between treatment levels (the differences between pairs of scores also require equal variances). The assumption of sphericity was met, as determined by Mauchly's test of sphericity ($p = 0.571$).

The Mixed ANOVA gives the F-ratio and p-value for the within-group variable TIME and the between-group variable GROUP, to determine if there were statistically

significant differences in the two groups' mean scores over time (the four administrations of the survey). There was not a statistically significant interaction between GROUP and TIME on Language Attitudes, $F(3, 84) = 2.132, p = 0.102$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.071$. The main effect of TIME did not show a statistically significant difference in Language Attitudes at the different time points, $F(3, 84) = 1.282, p = 0.286$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.044$. The main effect of GROUP showed that there was a statistically significant difference in Language Attitudes between intervention groups $F(1, 28) = 8.349, p = 0.007$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.23$.

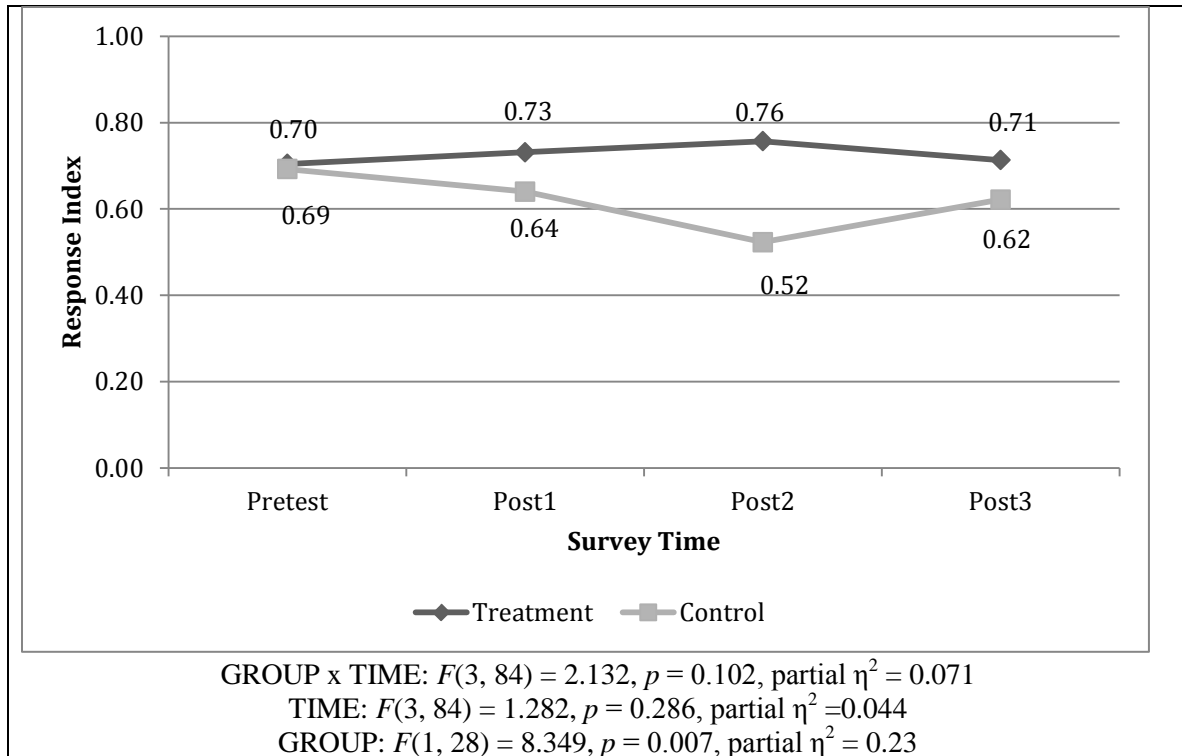


Figure 7.2: Summary mean scores for Language Attitudes items

The Mixed ANOVA test provides two main results. First, there were not statistically significant differences among each group's surveys (i.e., the changes of Language Attitudes scores over time between the Treatment and Control group could be due to chance) (see Figure 7.2). Second, the statistically significant difference between the two groups indicates

that the Treatment students had more tolerant Language Attitudes than their peers in the Control group. This difference was probed via independent samples t-tests.

Independent samples t-test were conducted to determine where differences in the survey scores of the Treatment and Control groups were located. As in the Mixed ANOVA, certain assumptions had to be met in order to rely on the t-test results. There were no outliers in any of the survey scores, as assessed by a visual inspection of boxplots. Mean scores for both groups were normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro Wilk's test, (except for the Posttest2 scores for the Control group), and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances (see Table 7.5).

Table 7.5: Independent Samples t-test assumptions of Language Attitudes mean scores

	<i>Shapiro Wilk's test</i>		<i>Levene's test</i>
	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Control</i>	
Pretest	0.102	0.854	0.226
Posttest1	0.10	0.803	0.979
Posttest2	0.235	0.025	0.231
Posttest3	0.112	0.274	0.262

The independent samples t-tests confirm that the difference between the Treatment students' scores was statistically significant from the Control group students on Posttest2. These results indicate that the Treatment group began with similar Language Attitudes as their Control group peers, and that this similarity was disrupted over the course of the study. Furthermore, it appears that the Treatment and Control students began to converge in their Language Attitudes once again, suggesting that as time elapsed, the two groups were once again becoming similar in Language Attitudes.

Table 7.6: Independent t-test results: Language Attitudes

	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Difference Score</i>	<i>Confidence Interval</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
PRETEST								
Treatment	24	70.45	19.47					
Control	13	69.23	16.05	-1.22	-11.61 14.07	35	0.194	0.847
POSTTEST1								
Treatment	24	73.25	18.78					
Control	15	64.0	19.56	-9.25	-3.47 21.97	37	1.472	0.149
POSTTEST2								
Treatment	21	75.71	17.4					
Control	13	52.3	22.41	-23.4	9.43 37.37	32	3.412	0.002
POSTTEST3								
Treatment	23	71.34,	20.84					
Control	14	62.14	18.05	-9.2	-4.45 22.86	35	1.368	0.18

The Mixed ANOVA results show that there was a statistically significant difference between the Language Attitudes scores of the Treatment students and the Control students by Posttest2 (approximately 30 days after instruction). This leads to the conclusion that the LVSS had a positive effect on Treatment students' Language Attitudes, and furthermore, the lack of the LVSS curriculum in the case of the Control students actually led to a decline in Language Attitudes. To probe this conclusion further, the next section discusses the survey results of boys and girls in each group.

7.4 Treatment and Control Group Language Attitude Results by Gender

As with the results of the ten Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items presented in Chapter 6, I present here the Language Attitude survey mean scores of boys and girls in both groups (Figure 7.3). It is often assumed that girls are more benign and positive in their relationships, while boys are more aggressive and competitive (Eckert, 2003). According to Gurian & Stevens (2004), boys use less brain space for verbal-emotive functioning than girls, and they have less oxytocin than girls, a hormone known for its influence on bonding, affection and cooperation. Despite these differences in brain chemistry and development,

researchers have questioned whether differences in behavior are due to biological determinants or socialization patterns across cultures (Gallagher & Kaufman, 2004). For example, in her study of Belten High School, Eckert (2003) noted that girls' relationships were actually quite volatile in comparison with boys'. More importantly, she found that the burnout girls' linguistic behavior went contrary to expectations—these girls used the most vernacular forms in their speech of all the social groups, more so than the burnout boys. These findings call into question the idea that women are more nurturing than men by nature, and that females always use more standard language variants than males. In fact, gender differences in behavior or motivation could be more strongly linked to beliefs about gender roles as opposed to a student's actual gender (Pajares, 2004). With this in mind, it is important to examine the Language Attitudes of both boys and girls in the current study.

The girls and boys of both groups had very similar scores at the start of the study, reflected on the Pretest, with the Treatment boys scoring 5-7 percentage points higher than the rest. Thus, the bilingual boys were slightly more tolerant in their Language Attitudes at the start of the study.

Over the course of the study, the Treatment boys showed steady scores, and even a slight decline at Posttest3, with a loss of eight percentage points compared to their Pretest scores. The Control boys also demonstrated a decline in scores over time, dropping from 66% on the Pretest to 50% on Posttest3, a loss of sixteen percentage points. The Control girls also began a steady decline in scores over time, with a sudden rebound by Posttest3 to within two percentage points of their Pretest scores (66% compared to 68%).

The Treatment girls were the only subgroup that did not show a decline in Language Attitude scores; in fact, their scores showed a thirteen-point increase on Posttest1 that was

relatively steady until the end of the school year. Thus, of both genders in both groups, the Treatment girls had the most positive Language Attitudes, while the Control group boys had the most negative Language Attitudes (the difference between the Treatment girls and the Control boys was statistically significant, $p = 0.046^{24}$). These findings relate to other research that has found girls to be more positive than boys towards local language varieties (e.g., Anderson, 2005).

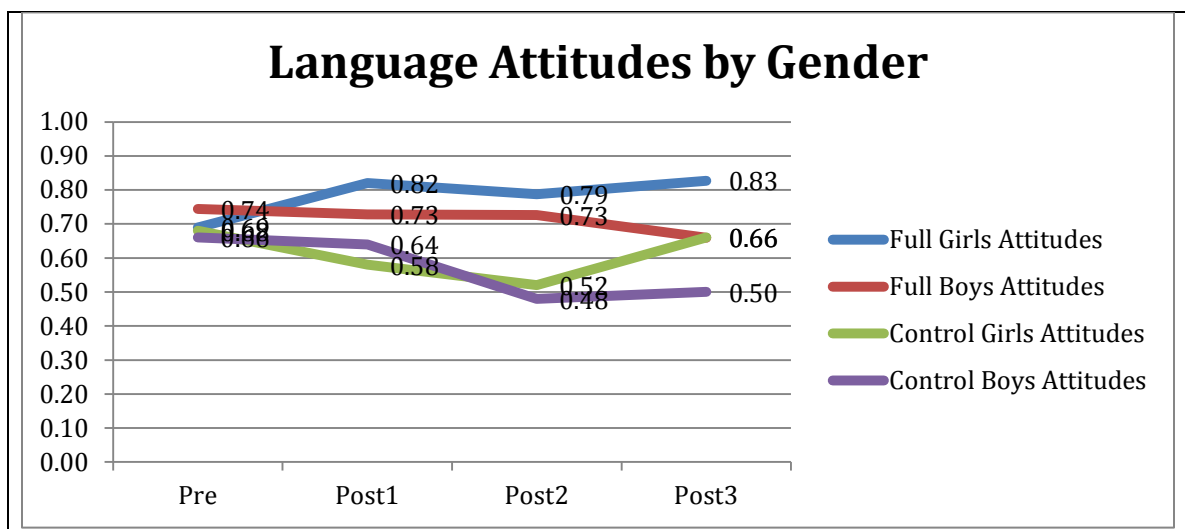


Figure 7.3: Language Attitudes by gender

It is noteworthy that the Control boys, who had the most negative Language Attitudes, also demonstrated the lowest Sociolinguistic Knowledge. There could be a connection between Sociolinguistic Knowledge, Language Attitudes, and gender that is influencing the performance on the language survey. That is, perhaps low Sociolinguistic Knowledge contributes to negative Language Attitudes. However, higher Sociolinguistic

²⁴ Mixed ANOVA results (Between-Subjects, Treatment Girls, Treatment Boys, Control Girls, Control Boys): Test for interaction, $F(9,78)=1.781$, $p = 0.085$, partial eta squared = 0.17. Test of main effect for TIME, $F(3,78)= 1.255$, $p = 0.296$, partial eta squared = 0.046. Test for main effect of GROUPGENDER, $F(3,26) = 3.137$, $p = 0.042$, partial eta squared = 0.266.

Knowledge does not appear to lead to higher Language Attitudes, at least in the case of the Treatment boys. The Treatment boys actually performed the best in terms of Sociolinguistic Knowledge, and even increased their scores over time; but the Treatment girls, who demonstrated *less* Sociolinguistic Knowledge, surpassed the Language Attitudes scores of the boys.

Meanwhile, the Control girls had a sudden increase in Language Attitude scores at the end of the study; prior to Posttest3, they gave every indication of following their male peers into the territory of low Sociolinguistic Knowledge and negative Language Attitudes. It is possible that their social roles as girls had something to do with their sudden increase in tolerant attitudes.

Perhaps gender socialization is related to how children's language attitudes are influenced by their language knowledge. This supposition is bolstered by evidence from the girls' scores. The Treatment girls showed a steady upswing in both Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes scores, although they surpassed the boys only in the Language Attitudes subsection. Perhaps the socialization of girls is connected to both their lower Knowledge scores and their higher Attitude scores. To illustrate, Guerra Lombardi & Foster (2011) note that gender inequities in first-grade classrooms result in disparate behavior expectations and disciplinary consequences; disruptive boys are given more attention than compliant girls, and girls are reprimanded for behaviors that go unnoticed in boys. The boys they observed were expected to be argumentative and noisier; the girls were expected to be quiet and compliant. In my study, it is possible that the Treatment girls' parallel yet lower Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores reflect internalized lower performance expectations, and their higher Language Attitude scores reflect expectations of more pro-social skills.

The interaction of gender with Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes will likely prove a rich area of exploration for future research. As will be discussed below, the girls in both groups that were interviewed for the study did seem to display a heightened sensitivity to bullying than the boys; at least, it was a topic that came up when talking to a female adult in a one-on-one conversation. It may be that the boys discussed bullying less due to the perceived need for them to fulfill a masculine gender role.

It is possible that the flat results of the bilingual boys' Language Attitudes are due to different instructional needs from girls when discussing linguistic discrimination and prejudice. For example, Gurian (2006) has pointed out that boys fidget more due to less serotonin in the prefrontal cortex, and boys' minds go into rest states more often than girls' (also known as zoning out). Instructional strategies that would meet boys' needs for physical movement include using manipulatives while verbalizing, and more kinesthetically oriented lessons (Gurian & Stevens, 2004). Therefore, instructional strategies should not be gender-neutral (Gurian & Stevens, 2006).

On lesson in particular in *LVSS* that concerned linguistic prejudice was W2D3. The activities for this particular lesson may not have met the instructional needs of boys (or girls) who require movement in order to better process language or content. In this lesson, students were gathered on the rug. In small groups, students first listened to several different voices on iPod Shuffles, then watched a YouTube video, and finally listened to several more accents on the iPods as they completed a worksheet. In retrospect, this lesson (a crucial part in developing respect for all language varieties) incorporated very little physical movement and much listening and writing. Perhaps the delivery method of the content itself was what sent

some boys into a rest state; future studies should take care to vary the type of activity and limit the amount of time spent sitting still on a rug.

The next section discusses the numerical and qualitative results of each item in turn, and offers interpretations of student responses that indicate the effectiveness not only of the survey, but also of the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit as a whole.

7.5 Language Attitudes Item Results

This section presents the results of the ten Language Attitudes survey items. First I present overall results of each of the ten items. Next I discuss the Treatment group's and the Control group's performance on each item.

As was explained in Chapter 5, for each item, a Response Index was calculated that reflects the "correct" scores obtained by the group of students. A Response Index was calculated in order to account for forward-coded and reverse-coded survey items, that is, survey items that required an agreement response (*Agree* or *Strongly Agree*) to be considered correct and survey items that required a disagreement response (*Disagree* or *Strongly Disagree*) to be considered correct. *Don't Know* responses are coded as "incorrect" responses in the Response Index calculation, since this response indicates uncertainty regarding Language Attitudes. The Response Indices reported below give an indication of the proportion of students who scored "correctly" on that particular item.

Table 7.7 below shows the rank order of the ten Language Attitudes items by highest difference between the Treatment group's Posttest1 and Pretest scores through the lowest difference in scores, which provides a glance of which items measured the most impact of the LVSS lessons (girls and boys combined). Six of the ten items experienced positive change, while four items experienced negative change. Item 1, I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER

THAN OTHERS showed the most growth from Pretest to Posttest1 with 29% growth. Item 6, PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY measured the greatest loss of tolerant language attitudes (-19% change).

Table 7.7: Summary results of Language Attitude items

<i>Rank Order</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Pretest</i>	<i>Posttest1</i>	<i>Difference Posttest1 -- Pretest</i>
1	Item 16 I think some accents are better than others	0.29	0.58	0.29
2	Item 5 I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly	0.67	0.88	0.21
3	Item 4 People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico	0.63	0.75	0.12
4	Item 9 People from England speak better English than people from the United States	0.63	0.67	0.04
	Item 12 The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language	0.17	0.21	0.04
	Item 1 Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time	0.79	0.83	0.04
5	Item 14 It is okay to think some people are dumb because of how they talk	0.78	0.67	-0.11
6	Item 19 Formal language is always better than informal language	0.42	0.30	-0.12
7	Item 2 Some people sound stupid because of how they talk	0.88	0.71	-0.17
8	Item 6 People who speak dialects are lazy	0.65	0.46	-0.19

The two items in the set *Judgments of Speaker Intelligence* both showed a decline in Treatment students' scores, indicating that future versions of LVSS, and future language awareness curricula, must be careful to not inadvertently encourage negative judgments of other speakers. As will be discussed in section 7.5.3, it is possible that the lessons discussing perceptions of speaker personality may have given students the impression that negative judgments based on speech were acceptable.

Interestingly, the two items in the *Speaker Expertise* set had contrasting outcomes. While item 5 I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS HIS/HER NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY had one of

the best gains (+21 percentage points), item 6 PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY had the worst loss (-19 percentage points). Although item 6 scores rebounded on Posttest2, it is possible that students still viewed *dialects* as inferior to *languages*, at least on Posttest1. Perhaps if item 5 had been worded “I think everyone speaks his/her native **dialect** correctly”, students may have responded differently.

There is also an interesting contrast in Posttest1 outcome for the three items in the *Prescriptive Attitudes* set: Item 12, “The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language” and Item 1 EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME both showed a gain of four percentage points, while Item 19 FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE showed a loss of twelve percentage points. In fact, item 19 had one of the worst outcomes of the language survey: only one-quarter to one-third of Treatment students agreed with this item on the posttests. The poor performance of item 19 is only surpassed by item 12, regarding language in school: only one-fifth of students disagreed that school language is the correct kind of language on Posttest1, and this number continued to drop over time (see section 7.5.4 for details).

Figure 7.4 shows the change in Language Attitudes items from the Pretest to Posttest1, where the change in the Treatment group’s mean scores is mapped onto the Y-axis and the change in standard deviations is mapped onto the X-axis. Three items showed a negative change in mean score and an increase in variability (“Bad Results” quadrant). Item 19, FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE, showed both a negative change in mean score and a negative change in variability (“Worst Results” quadrant).

The remaining six Language Attitudes items showed positive growth in mean scores. Four items showed both positive gains in mean score and reduction in variability (“Best Results” quadrant), suggesting that the lessons were successful in improving Language Attitudes as measured by these particular items. In sum, Figure 7.4 shows that the *LVSS* lessons improved the Treatment participants’ Language Attitudes as measured by six out of ten items. Three items in particular (Item 5, Item 4, and Item 6) showed substantial gain in mean score with either reduction in variability or a small increase in variability.

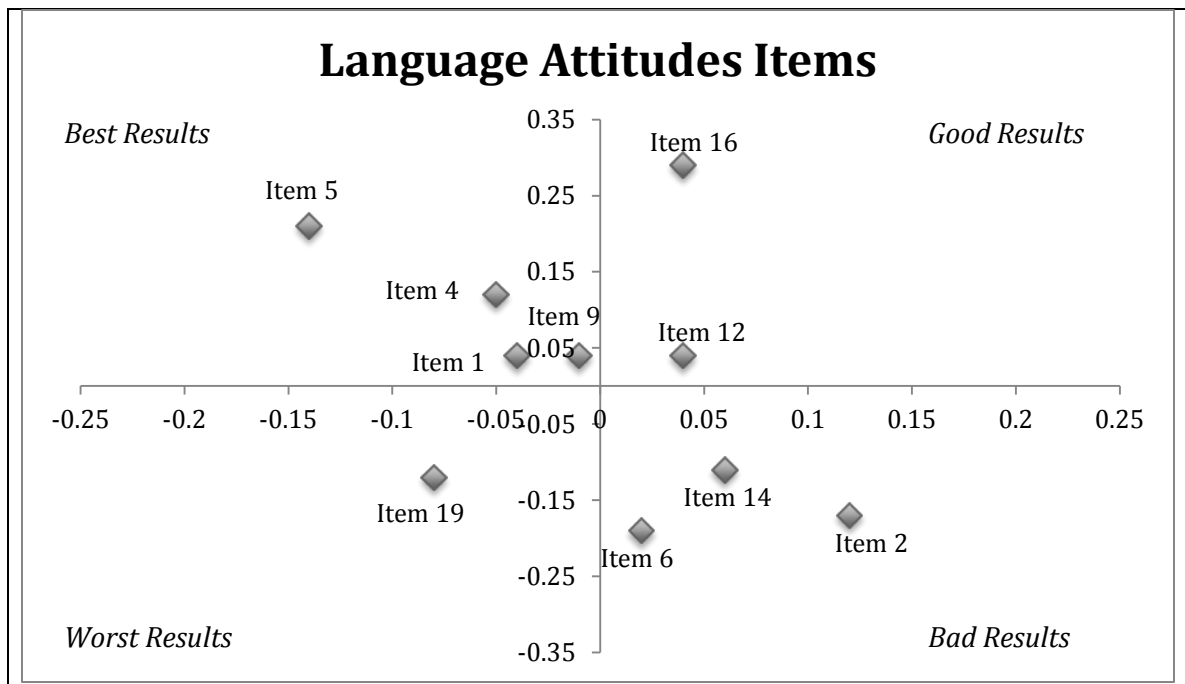


Figure 7.4: Change in Means and Standard Deviations for Language Attitudes items

These are positive results for most of the Language Attitude survey items. The following sections discuss each item in turn, beginning with the two *Speaker Expertise* items (items 5 and 6), followed by the three *Accent Superiority* items (items 4, 9, and 16), the *Judgments of Speaker Intelligence* items (items 2 and 14), and finishing with the three *Prescriptive Attitudes* items (items 19, 12 and 1). The ordinal-level survey responses to each

item were tested for statistically significant differences using a nonparametric Friedman's test; the results are reported in the figures for each item and discussed further in the chapter summary, section 7.6.

7.5.1 *Speaker expertise*

It is important to note that neither of the two items in this set was explicitly taught (Item 5, I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS THEIR NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY; Item 6, PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY). While the *LVSS* curriculum discussed dialectal variation and compared various dialectal features of English and Spanish varieties, we did not discuss speaker laziness per se, instead focusing on perceptions of *correct* or *incorrect* language. For example, in W2D2, we read aloud selections from *Woe Is I: The Grammarphobe's Guide to Better English* by Patricia T. O'Conner, in which the author criticizes the use of informal contractions. We compared her perception of correct language with the Appendix Probi, a list of words that a Latin-speaking author considered incorrect. Our discussions centered on how some of Probus' identified mistakes are now considered "correct" ("museum" instead of "musivum"). In subsequent lessons we discussed how perceptions of "incorrect" language could lead to linguistic prejudice.

The two items measuring attitudes towards the language expertise of other speakers showed conflicting results, which is corroborated by the low Cronbach's alpha reported above for this themed set. Item 5, I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS THEIR NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY showed immediate gain on the Treatment group's Posttest1 which was mostly maintained over time, while Item 6, PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY actually measured a decline in tolerant attitudes on Posttest1 (which rebounded to Pretest levels by the end of the school year). It was expected that once students learned that dialects are

patterned and systematic in nature, they would agree that everyone speaks his/her native language correctly and speakers cannot be linguistically lazy. This expectation was only partly fulfilled.

7.5.1.1 I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly

The item I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS HIS/HER NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY showed a favorable change of opinions among the Treatment group students immediately following the LVSS unit, a change that was minimally eroded over time (Figure 7.5). The Response Index increased twenty-one percentage points from 67% (Pretest, N = 16) to 88% (Posttest1, N = 21), before beginning a gradual decline to 81% (Posttest2, N = 17) and 73% by the end of the school year (Posttest3, N = 16). These results indicate the immediate impact that dialect patterning lessons had on student understanding of native speaker expertise. As time progressed, however, fewer students agreed that everyone was an expert in his/her native language, although close to three-fourths of the class still agreed with this item by the end of the school year.

In contrast, the Control group students demonstrated a lower estimation of native speaker expertise (54% on the Pretest, N = 7), which declined further by the end of the school year (43% on Posttest3, N = 6). These survey results indicate that without instruction, many students persist in the belief that people do not speak their native language(s) correctly.

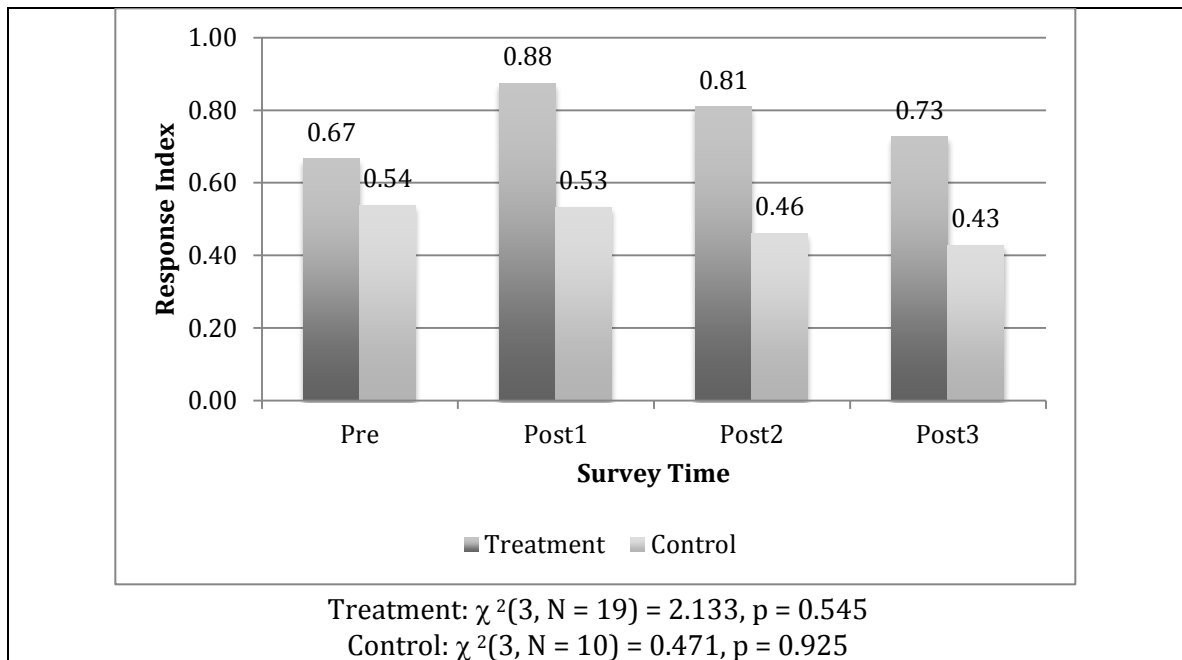


Figure 7.5: Response Index for Item 5, "I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly"

A positive trend appears in the increase of Treatment students who agree with this item along with low numbers of *Don't Know* responses (Table 7.8 below). Five more students agreed with this item on Posttest1, increasing from sixteen to twenty-one students agreeing that people speak their native languages correctly.

More students in the Control group than the Treatment group expressed doubt on this item over all four time-points. Also noteworthy is the relative steadiness of disagreement responses over time (three or four disagreements at each survey administration). It appears that the attitude of the Control group students towards this item hardly changed overall.

Table 7.8: Strength of Agreement for Item 5, "I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	7 (29%)	9 (38%)	6 (25%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
Control	13	1 (8%)	6 (46%)	3 (23%)	1 (8%)	2 (15%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	8 (33%)	13 (54%)	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	0 (0%)
Control	15	1 (7%)	7 (47%)	3 (20%)	0 (0%)	4 (27%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	6 (29%)	11 (52%)	2 (10%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
Control	13	2 (15%)	4 (31%)	4 (31%)	0 (0%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	22	9 (41%)	7 (32%)	4 (18%)	1 (5%)	1 (5%)
Control	14	3 (21%)	3 (21%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)

Treatment students who participated in the conversational interviews provide evidence of this items' positive result in that group. Four of the interviewed students had positive attitudes towards the ability of people to speak their native languages correctly, which were maintained in Posttest1: Daniela, Emmanuel, Mariana, and Matias. Matias explained that people are naturally good with their native language:

Cause everyone knows what, what they were born with and their, their parents teach them how to speak and that's how they speak. (Matias)

Two interviewed students showed a favorable change of opinion: Sofia and David. In his Pretest interview, David said he disagreed that people speak their native language correctly "porque algunos pueden hacer un mistake o algo así"²⁵, and in her Pretest interview, Sofia explained that sometimes people don't pronounce words well. On Posttest1, both students had changed their answers to *Agree*. David explained that everyone uses his or her native language correctly. Sofia explained: "porque ellos ya saben como hablarla y ya, la

²⁵ "because some people could make a mistake or something like that."

hablan bien²⁶”. It appears that the LVSS lessons were successful in convincing students that even with occasional errors, everyone speaks his or her native language correctly. It would be worth including in future versions of LVSS the concept of speech dysfluencies such as false starts, filled pauses (*uh, um*), and repairs, since native speakers engage in these strategies to manage a conversation (Fox Tree, 2010).

Among the interviewed Control group students, only one student, Liz, appeared to have a tolerant, positive attitude towards speakers’ native language expertise (although she changed her answer to *Don’t Know* on Posttest1). In her Pretest interview, Liz made reference to performance errors that native speakers sometimes commit. Interestingly, Liz herself (a native speaker of English) made a performance error in her explanation for her agreement: “Yeah I think like people like do sometimes makes mistakes but they're mostly all the times right.” Many interviewed students viewed performance errors as evidence of inadequate language proficiency. However, “slips of the tongue” are common occurrences and do not indicate inadequate linguistic knowledge (Clark & Clark, 1977). It is clear that lessons on first language acquisition as well as lessons on *competence* versus *performance* may help more students differentiate between low language proficiency and performance errors.

Two students, Zack and Billy, disagreed that everyone speaks his/her native language correctly because some people may not learn their native language in the first place. For Zack and Billy, a person’s heritage language qualified as the native language, and not the language that person actually grew up speaking. This is evident in Zack’s explanation of his own “native language”:

²⁶ “because they already know how to speak it and they speak it well.”

Zack: Um I put no because some people don't know really, like say cause I'm Hispanic and I'm half Spanish and I don't really know how to speak Spanish at all.

Mary: Okay. Did you speak Spanish as a little kid?

Zack: No, I never learned how to do it, I just have Spanish blood in me, that's why I put no.

Mary: What about English? Do you speak English correctly?

Zack: Yeah I speak it all the time, like I speak it fluent.

Zack considers Spanish to be his native language instead of English, and he clearly has a strong identification with his Spanish-language ancestry. It should perhaps be noted here that in his explanation for his answer to LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS CHANGING (reported in Chapter 6), Zack expressed despair at never having learned Spanish at home. In fact, Zack seemed surprised that someone could learn Spanish beyond childhood:

Mary: Do you think you're going to try learning [Spanish] like in high school and college and stuff?

Zack: I'd try but I don't think I'll pass because I don't like know Spanish at all, like I only know *hola* and stuff like that, just like hello.

Mary: You know when I was in fifth grade I didn't know Spanish either and then when I went to college, I learned it in college.

Zack: Really?

Mary: Yeah.

Zack: Oh.

Mary: So actually if you want to go, if you want to learn Spanish when you go to college if you decide to go to [local university] they have a really great classes that they teach to people who want to learn Spanish.

Zack: Oh okay.

Mary: Yeah so you can learn, you can always learn when you go to high school or when you go to college.

Zack: Well that's cool.

From this conversation, it is clear that adult language acquisition is unknown or at least misunderstood among some children. Furthermore, Zack's interest in his family's language shows that outreach and recruitment for heritage programs can begin at the elementary level.

Language acquisition misconceptions existed among bilingual students as well. Sonya, the only bilingual Control group student interviewed for this study, expressed disagreement that everyone speaks his/her native language correctly because it was possible to misspell words. Sonya clearly linked language proficiency with literacy, a misconception that is also common among educators who label low-performing bilingual students as “semilingual”. While there is no empirical evidence for semilingualism (MacSwan, 2000), this myth continues to circulate among educators who believe that Spanish inhibits academic achievement for English Language Learners (Escamilla, 2006). The perception that academic literacy represents the top tier of language proficiency filters down to students.

In sum, the item I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS HIS/HER NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY showed positive growth in the Treatment group from the Pretest to the posttests, although the number of students agreeing with this item declined by the end of the year. This decline suggests students need reinforcement of this tolerant attitude in order to maintain it. In contrast, many Control group students appeared to believe that many people are not proficient in their native language(s). This finding clearly points to the need for Sociolinguistic Awareness for all students.

7.5.1.2 People who speak dialects are lazy

As mentioned above, the idea of “lazy” speakers was never explicitly touched on the lessons. I expected that students who learned about the patterned nature of all language varieties would recognize that speaking a dialect, or language variety, does not mean someone is lazy. However, among the Treatment group students, item 6, PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY exhibited an uneven impact (Figure 7.6). The Treatment students demonstrated a roller-coaster trajectory in which a relatively high level of disagreement on

the Pretest (65%, N = 15) was followed by a drop in disagreements on Posttest1 (46%, N = 11), only to rebound beyond Pretest levels on Posttest2 (76%, N = 16), before returning to Pretest levels of disagreement on Posttest3 (61%, N = 14).

In contrast, the Control group students exhibited steady levels of disagreement with this item for the first three survey time-points (hovering just below 70%), before increasing to a dramatic 86% disagreement on Posttest3 (N = 12). In fact, there was a higher proportion of Control group students disagreeing with this item on three out of four survey time-points.

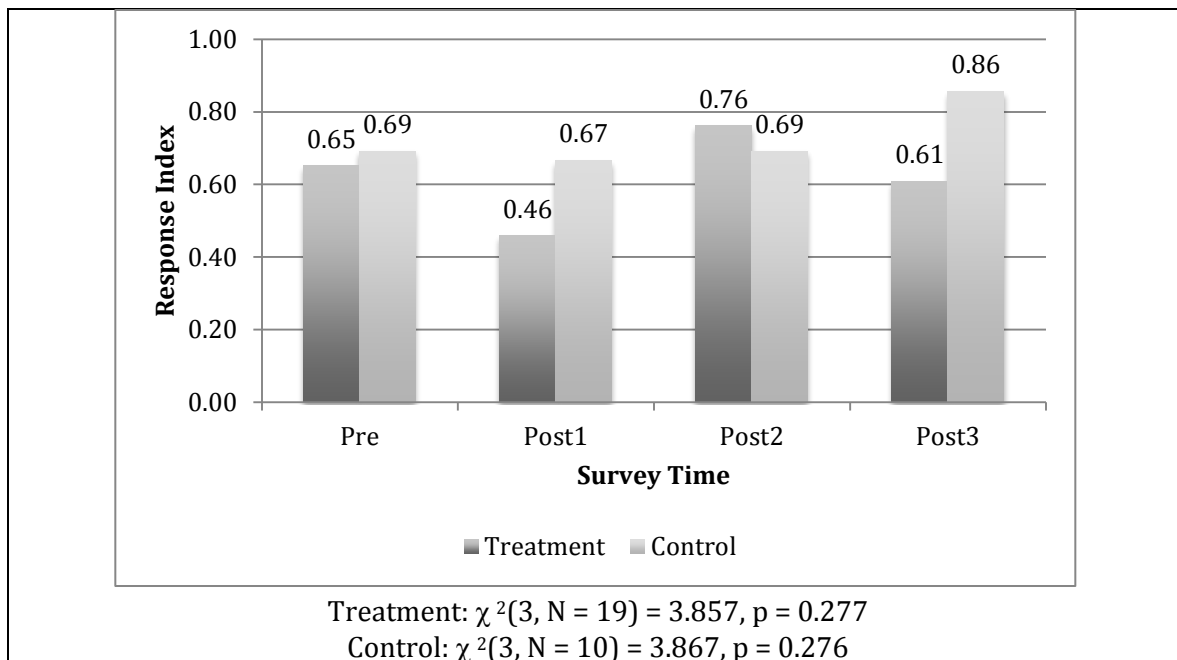


Figure 7.6: Response index for Item 6, "People who speak dialects are lazy"

More than half of the Treatment class rejected this statement on the Pretest, but less than half the class rejected it on Posttest1 (see Table 7.9). About three-fourths of the Treatment class disagreed with the statement on Posttest2, and just over half disagreed on Posttest3. The sudden drop in number of students disagreeing with this item can be explained by the increase in *Don't Know* responses on Posttest1, indicating the LVSS lessons may have

caused more students to be unsure of their answers. Five Treatment students were unsure on the Pretest, increasing to nine students on Posttest1. While agreement levels did not increase significantly, it is likely that the fluctuating levels of certainty indicate that the “laziness” of dialect speakers was not clearly addressed in the lessons. Apparently many Treatment students did not understand that the patterned nature of dialects means that linguistically, speakers cannot be “lazy”.

It is important to note the almost nonexistent agreement with this item among the Control group students. Only one student on Posttest1 and one student on Posttest2 expressed agreement (two different students). There were a relatively steady number of students who expressed disagreement with this item on the first three survey time-points (nine or ten students), and a steady number of students who expressed uncertainty (three or four students). On Posttest3, twelve Control students disagreed and only two students expressed uncertainty, reflected in the high Response Index (86%). These numbers would appear to suggest that the Control group students believed dialects to be patterned, and therefore dialect speakers could not be lazy in their speech. However, as discussed below, several of the interviewed Control group students rejected this item due to discomfort with labeling others as “lazy”.

Table 7.9: Response index for Item 6, "People who speak dialects are lazy"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	23	0 (0%)	3 (13%)	8 (35%)	7 (30%)	5 (22%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	4 (31%)	4 (31%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	1 (4%)	3 (13%)	8 (33%)	3 (13%)	9 (38%)
Control	15	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	4 (27%)	6 (40%)	4 (27%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	1 (5%)	0 (0%)	9 (43%)	7 (33%)	4 (19%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	5 (38%)	4 (31%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	0 (0%)	3 (13%)	5 (22%)	9 (39%)	6 (26%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (29%)	8 (57%)	2 (14%)

Conversational interviews show high levels of doubt for this item among the Treatment students. David and Sofia chose *Don't Know* on the Pretest because they didn't understand the word "perezosa" on the Spanish-language side of the survey. Like the item DIALECTS AND SLANG ARE THE SAME THING, in which confusion arose over the Spanish translation "jerga", confusion with this item could have been avoided if the translations appeared next to each other on the paper.

Three students, Emmanuel, Daniela, and Matias, disagreed with this item on the Pretest, but for different reasons. Emmanuel explained, "I disagree because um, it's just the way of how they talk, the dialects." He displayed the misconception that certain people speak dialects, but not him. Daniela assumed that this item was referring to people who make mistakes when learning a second language:

Because um, they're not lazy, because people are trying to speak dialects and sometimes they really don't know how and they're really trying, so they're not just being lazy, they're watching TV. (Daniela)

Matias, on the other hand, disagreed that dialect speakers are lazy, explaining that “they don’t want to write it out”:

Matias: No, it doesn’t mean they’re lazy, it’s just that they don’t want to write it out [laugh].

Mary: What do you mean they don’t want to write it out?

Matias: You know like they, they’re speaking but they don’t want to write it out, like instead of speaking they little write it, but, like in, like the how is it called uh, the cavemen they used to write on the walls to speak to each other.

Mary: So are you talking about like spelling? Like they don’t know how to spell correctly, or?

Matias: They just don’t want to spell, or write.

Mary: So are they, so they’re, but they’re not lazy? Okay.

Apparently, for Matias, dialect speakers are not lazy, but they do not want to write or spell. This connection with literacy and language performance is common (cf. the discussion above on “semilingualism”).

Emmanuel was the only interviewed student who did not change his answer to *Don’t Know* on Posttest1. He maintained his disagreement, but continued to display the misconception that “we” speak languages and “they” speak dialects: “because um, cause maybe they don’t know how to speak like the way we speak and maybe they speak like a dialect”. For Emmanuel, it is lack of knowledge that makes dialect speakers speak the way they do. Future versions of *LVSS* must make it clear to students that everyone speaks a dialect, and furthermore, since everyone is an expert in his/her native language, no one speaks “lazy”.

Several Control group students also displayed uncertainty on this item. Two students, Henry and Jean, responded *Don’t Know* on both their Pretest and Posttest1 surveys. Henry explained that he did not know what dialects were, and Jean explained that she did not know anyone who spoke a dialect. Billy and Sonya both expressed disagreement on the Pretest but

later changed their answers to *Don't Know* on Posttest1. In their Pretest interviews, both students expressed the idea that “some people are different” and that does not make them lazy speakers. In fact, Zack also concurred with this tolerance perspective:

That's not true because I, because it's the way people talk, and like French people, it's kind of like an accent, and it's, it's not lazy because they can't change the way they talk. (Zack)

Like Emmanuel above, Billy, Sonya, and Zack felt that “we” should tolerate “their” way of speaking. None of these students seemed to believe that they themselves should be tolerated for their speech. Indeed, this belief is likely connected to the results for Item 1, I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE (reported in Chapter 6); an overwhelming majority in both groups believed themselves to speak “normally”, i.e., without an accent (except for Treatment students' Posttest3). It is clear that these tolerant attitudes stem in part from a misunderstanding of who speaks “differently” and who speaks “normally”.

Many students were not sure how to interpret this item. The increase in Treatment students' disagreements on Posttest2 can be attributed to an increase in uncertainty surrounding the laziness of speakers. Although fewer Treatment students disagreed with this item by the end of the school year, it is encouraging that over half the class still disagreed on Posttest3 (fourteen students, 61%). It is pertinent to note that the Sociolinguistic Knowledge item EVERYONE SPEAKS A DIALECT, reported in Chapter 6, had about half the Treatment class agreeing on the posttests. It is unclear if students realized that if they themselves are included in “everyone”, then they could be referring to themselves as “lazy”. Fortunately only one student fell into that contradiction. It is recommended that future versions of the lessons

include 1) emphasis that everyone speaks a dialect, and 2) explicit rebuttal of the “laziness” of dialect speakers.

In sum, the two language expertise items garnered mixed results. The item I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS HIS/HER NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY showed an immediate favorable response on the Treatment students’ Posttest1 surveys, which by the end of the school year the effect had gradually eroded. Meanwhile, the item PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY showed no clear trend among Treatment students, with a sharp drop on Posttest1 followed by a sharp increase on Posttest2, only to return to Pretest-like levels by the end of the school year. While neither item demonstrated a long-term effect of the LVSS unit, it is reassuring that at a minimum, a majority of Treatment students believed that people are expert speakers of their native language(s).

7.5.2 *Accent superiority*

The next three items that make up the *Accent Superiority* set were also taught indirectly through the LVSS curriculum. The three items measuring student attitudes towards specific and non-specific regional language variation showed some gain in tolerant language attitudes, and the gain of one item was sustained over time. Item 9, PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES showed a mild gain in tolerant attitudes which was lost over time; Item 4, PEOPLE FROM SPAIN SPEAK BETTER SPANISH THAN PEOPLE FROM MEXICO showed a sharper immediate gain on Posttest1 but the gain was also lost over time; and Item 16, I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS showed a significant increase in tolerant attitudes that was maintained over time. It was expected that after experiencing lessons in linguistic equality and accent prejudice that students would disagree that any accent or variety was “better” than another. This

expectation was somewhat fulfilled, although many students continued to express preference for one regional language variety over another.

7.5.2.1 People from England speak better English than people from the United States

The next item measured students' attitudes towards the English of England and the English of the United States. The English of England is often perceived as superior, more correct, or more formal than the English of the United States. For example, Hiraga (2005) found that British listeners rated their own standard variety (Received Pronunciation) higher than a standard variety of the United States (Network American). In a classic study by Stewart, Ryan, and Giles (1985), American undergraduates rated British English speakers as higher status than American English speakers. Furthermore, the belief that RP English is superior to American English exists outside these two countries; Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006) found that Danish EFL learners preferred to British accents over American accents.

Milroy (2000) argued that the standard varieties in Britain and the United States are situated in their own particular sociolinguistic landscapes that affect the language ideologies surrounding both varieties. British Standard English (or RP) is an upper-class variety associated with a particular pronunciation pattern, while the identification of Mainstream U.S. English (Network English) relies less on phonological variation than by the absence of stigmatized grammatical features such as double negatives ("They didn't do nothing") and verb agreement patterns ("She done it") (p. 57-59; see also Wolfram & Schilling-Estes, 2006). Therefore, RP English is a class-marked variety while Network U.S. English is based on a Midwestern, regional variety.

The survey item PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES was designed to test if these bilingual 5th graders also subscribed to the

common attitude that the English of England is superior to the English of the United States. It should be pointed out that British English was never explicitly discussed in comparison with U.S. English, and according to the classroom teachers, the students had not been exposed to British English at the school (they had never had a British-English speaking teacher at the school).

The item PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES shows very little change in attitudes towards the English of England and the U.S., although one more student disagreed with this stereotype immediately following the LVSS lessons. The Treatment group's Response Index increased slightly from 63% (Pretest, N = 15) to 67% (Posttest1, N = 16), before falling to Pretest levels on Posttest2 (62%, N = 13) and falling further on Posttest3 (52%, N = 12) (Figure 7.7 below). The increase in one student who disagreed with this item on Posttest1 indicates that the lessons on linguistic equality did not jar the rest of the students out of their accent preferences.

In contrast, the Control group had a high proportion of students who disagreed with this statement on the Pretest (85%, N = 11), but this was not sustained over time. Just over half of the class disagreed with this statement on Posttest1 and Posttest2, with the proportion rising slightly to 64% on Posttest3 (N = 9).

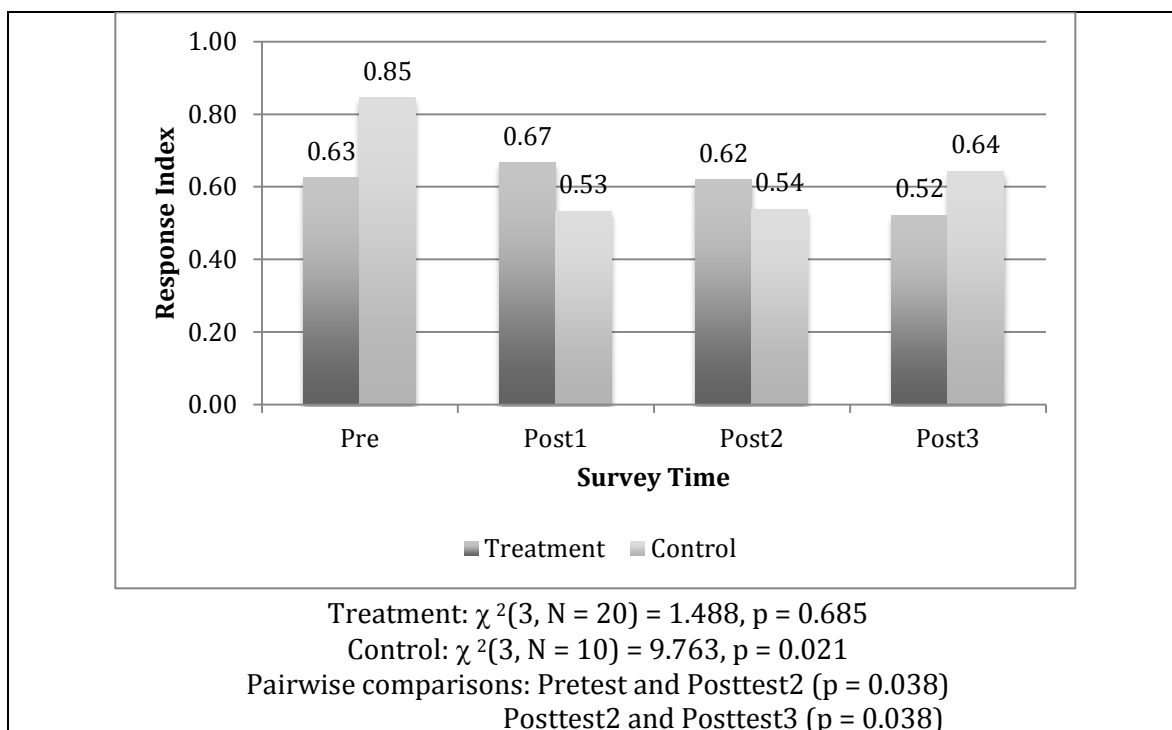


Figure 7.7: Response index for Item 9, "People from England speak better English than people from the United States"

Table 7.10 below shows the strength of agreement for PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES, showing the minimal changes in agreement levels for this item in the Treatment group. Although it was not explicitly discussed in the lessons whether English people speak superior to American people, it was expected that the lessons in accent prejudice would stimulate some reflection on accent preference. It is clear that the lessons on accent bias did not inspire many students to change their attitudes towards these varieties of English in a significant manner. Nevertheless, a positive sign is that over half of Treatment students disagreed with this statement at all four time-points.

It should be noted that this item attracted many *Don't Know* responses in both groups of students. Over one-third of Control group students expressed uncertainty on the three posttests. The Treatment group also had a high proportion of *Don't Know* responses on

Posttest3 (N = 7, 30%). Neither the Treatment students nor the Control group students had exposure to a British English teacher in the school prior to the study.

Table 7.10: Strength of agreement for Item 9, "People from England speak better English than people from the United States"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	9 (38%)	6 (25%)	6 (25%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	6 (46%)	2 (15%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	3 (13%)	0 (0%)	11 (46%)	5 (21%)	5 (21%)
Control	15	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	5 (33%)	6 (40%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	1 (5%)	2 (10%)	9 (43%)	4 (19%)	5 (24%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	2 (15%)	6 (46%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	3 (13%)	1 (4%)	7 (30%)	5 (22%)	7 (30%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	8 (57%)	5 (36%)

The qualitative interviews confirm that there was little immediate change in opinion concerning the Englishes of England and the U.S. among the Treatment group students. On the Pretest, five students disagreed that people in England spoke better than people in the United States: Daniela, David, Emmanuel, Matias, and Sofia (the sixth student, Mariana, put *Don't Know*). However, only one student disagreed due to an opinion based on linguistic equality. For Daniela, the two English varieties do not compete with each other: “maybe it’s the same but it doesn’t matter to speak better because we might still understand them but it doesn’t, it’s not a competition between us, or anything, and them”. Daniela later lost her resolve on this point; she chose *Don't Know* on Posttest1.

The other four students disagreed because they thought that people in the United States spoke better than people in England. On Posttest1, Emmanuel and Sofia still believed U.S. English to be superior to England’s English.

Matias was the one interviewed student who seemed to internalize the lessons in linguistic equality. He explained his disagreement on Posttest1: “porque en Inglaterra el acento es muy um diferente que el inglés, so no es mejor el uno que otro, no más es como tu idioma y en su forma²⁷”. Although there was no visible change in his survey answers, he did demonstrate growth in understanding of linguistic equality.

In fact, two Control group students disagreed with this item not because they felt the two English varieties were equal, but because they thought American English was superior to England’s English. Henry explained that English in England was slower:

Um, because we speak, cause we speak English fluent and they kind of like slow down when they're speaking so they kind of have like an accent. (Henry)

On a positive note, three interviewed Control students expressed the idea that one variety was not superior to another. However, it appeared to stem from unfamiliarity with English variation and the belief that these two varieties were “the same”:

Mary: Why do you disagree?

Sonya: Because they talk the same in England and in the United States they do too.

Mary: So do people in the United States speak the same way as people in England?

Sonya: Mm-hmm.

Mary: They speak the same kind of English?

Sonya: Yeah.

Thus, at least some disagreement responses for this item were due to either a preference for American English or the belief that the two language varieties were identical.

This item, and its pair discussed below, was worded to draw out opinions among students that a European language variety is superior to its New World counterpart, an opinion common among many people (e.g., Gayles & Denerville, 2007). The slight change in

²⁷ “Because in England, the accent is very um different than the English, so one is not better than the other, it’s just your language and has its own way.”

the Treatment group's Posttest1, coupled with the high proportions of uncertainty in both groups, provide evidence that students need more instruction on the linguistic equality of language varieties.

7.5.2.2 *People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico*

Along with the stereotypes regarding British English and American English, the survey tested the students' perceptions of Iberian Spanish and Mexican Spanish. Like the England/U.S. distinction discussed above, there are common perceptions that the European variety is superior to the New World variety. However, with Spanish, the distinction does not necessarily rest upon which variety is more formal or educated. Instead, stereotypes surrounding Spanish language varieties tend to rest on the perception of the "purity" of that variety (e.g., Gordon, 1988; Paffey, 2007). This idea of "purity" of competing Spanish language varieties may stem from the long history and influence of the Real Academia Española, an organization dedicated to sanitizing the Spanish language since 1715 ("limpia, fija y da esplendor" is the official logo of the RAE). As a result, Spanish language variation is often regarded in terms of impurity.

The survey item PEOPLE FROM SPAIN SPEAK BETTER SPANISH THAN PEOPLE FROM MEXICO was designed to test the students' attitudes towards Castilian and Mexican Spanish varieties. It should be noted that prior to the implementation of this study, a teacher from Spain taught in the Dual Language strand, and some of the participants were his former students. Therefore, many of the Treatment students were likely aware of Castilian Spanish features. This classroom teacher taught in the school for four years, leaving the school shortly before the study was conducted. The Control group students, receiving instruction in English-

medium classes, were not taught by this teacher although they probably would have known of him.

The item PEOPLE FROM SPAIN SPEAK BETTER SPANISH THAN PEOPLE FROM MEXICO provoked a stronger reaction from Treatment students than the English language item discussed above. The Response Index increased twelve points from 63% (Pretest, N = 15) to 75% (Posttest1, N = 18), before falling to Pretest levels on Posttest2 (62%, N = 13) and Posttest3 (65%, N = 15) (Figure 7.8 below). It is likely that many Treatment students rejected this statement because the majority were of Mexican descent and speak Spanish as a native language. However, the immediate impact reflected on Posttest1 was eroded over time, with students returning to Pretest-like levels of attitudes towards the Spanish language varieties of Spain and Mexico. Nevertheless, the fact that three-fourths of the participants did not believe that people from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico on Posttest1 indicates that the unit did convince more students of linguistic equality, at least among Spanish language varieties.

In contrast, the Control group began with a high proportion of students disagreeing with this statement on the Pretest (77%, N = 10), but was followed by a sharp drop of thirty points to only half the class disagreeing at subsequent time-points (Posttest1, 47%, N = 7). More Control students began to express doubt that Iberian Spanish was superior to Mexican Spanish over time.

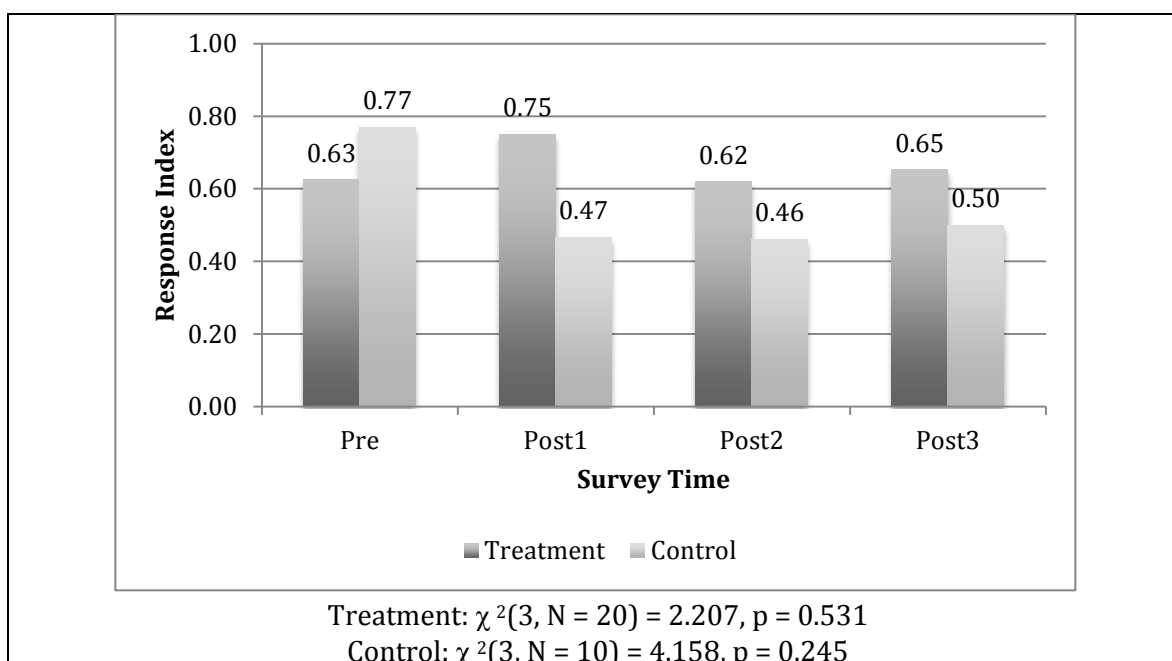


Figure 7.8: Response index for Item 4, "People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico"

Table 7.11: Strength of agreement for Item 4, "People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	1 (4%)	3 (13%)	7 (29%)	8 (33%)	5 (21%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (31%)	6 (46%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	3 (13%)	1 (4%)	13 (54%)	5 (21%)	2 (8%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	3 (20%)	4 (27%)	5 (33%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	1 (5%)	1 (5%)	6 (29%)	7 (33%)	6 (29%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)	6 (46%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	3 (13%)	1 (4%)	11 (48%)	4 (17%)	4 (17%)
Control	14	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	6 (43%)	6 (43%)

A closer look at Table 7.11 shows that there were at least four Treatment students who believed that Iberian Spanish was superior on every test, excluding Posttest2. An examination of the raw data for this item reveals a pattern in which three particular students

consistently preferred the Spanish of Spain. In every survey, Gabriela, Sebastian, and Felipe expressed agreement that people from Spain speak better Spanish (although Gabriela and Felipe did not complete Posttest2). For these three students, the concept of linguistic equality evidently did not take root. However, it is encouraging that the majority of the students in the class did not agree with this survey item.

The qualitative interviews show that some Treatment students understood the concept of linguistic equality after participating in the lessons, but others persisted in their beliefs that one variety was superior to another. For example, on the Pretest, Sofia agreed that people from Spain spoke better than people from Mexico. On her Posttest1, she changed her answer to *Disagree*, which would support the conclusion that the unit impacted her perception of superiority. However, in her Posttest1 interview, Sofia explained her disagreement by stating that “la gente en México habla el español más correctamente”. This quote shows that Sofia did not internalize the concept that one variety is not superior to another, but merely changed her mind about *which* variety is superior. Thus, in Sofia’s case, it cannot be argued that the lessons on linguistic equality were entirely successful. Likewise, David and Emmanuel also believed Mexican Spanish to be superior to Iberian Spanish on Posttest1.

Another student, Daniela, disagreed that Iberian Spanish was superior to Mexican Spanish, but for different reasons than Sofia. During her Pretest interview, Daniela did not agree because she believed that “in Spain they speak another language than Mexico”, and one language was not better than another. When I told her that in both countries Spanish is spoken, she replied, “yeah but they have like different accents,” reflecting some confusion on the meanings of *language* and *accent*. However, in her Posttest1 interview, Daniela knew that Spanish was spoken in both countries: “I know that we got our Spanish from Spain but

that doesn't make us, them be better than other people. And it doesn't, it doesn't matter that their language is better than ours." This quote shows that she appeared to believe that Iberian Spanish was actually superior. When I asked, "so their language *is* better?" she clarified by saying that that is just an opinion: "[...] it's them that's feeling it" and when on to say that Spaniards and Mexicans "speak the same, it's still Spanish but they [Spaniards] have like an accent, like they speak with the tongue kind of". Citing a distinctive pronunciation feature of Iberian Spanish, Daniela acknowledged that some people may believe Iberian Spanish to be superior, but "it's still Spanish" in the end. Thus, Daniela demonstrated growth in her knowledge of the terms *language* and *accent*, and was more precise in expressing her opinion that one variety is not better than another. It appears that the lessons helped Daniela grow in her understanding of linguistic terminology and articulate her opinion more precisely.

Like Daniela, Matias also showed growth in his understanding of linguistic equality. He disagreed that Iberian Spanish was superior to Mexican Spanish on both the Pretest and Posttest1. In his Pretest interview, he explained that the accent differences did not make Iberian Spanish better, referring to *distinción* common in Spain:

No I disagree, I disagree because I don't, the Spain people always "zzz" at the end of whatever they say that has an "S" at the end, they put a "Z" instead of an "S" so I didn't really think that could happen. (Matias)

He finished by saying that people from Mexico speak "a little bit" better than people from Spain. In contrast, in his Posttest1 interview he explained that neither variety was better than another.

Like some Treatment students, three interviewed Control group students were unaware of what the dominant language was in Spain. Of the three students who were aware that Spanish is spoken in Spain, two students (Liz and Zack) expressed the idea that the two

language varieties were “the same”. Similar to the discussions for the related item PEOPLE FROM ENGLAND SPEAK BETTER ENGLISH THAN PEOPLE FROM THE UNITED STATES (discussed above), Liz and Zack appeared to be unaware of dialectal differences.

It is interesting to note that the one Control student who knew that Spanish was spoken in Spain *and* that the Iberian variety has marked differences from Latin American Spanish was Sonya, the bilingual student. In fact, Sonya was the only interviewed Control student who expressed an attitude aligning with the principle of linguistic equality; she did not believe either variety to be superior to the other. However, Sonya was one of the students who believed the English varieties of the United States and England to be “the same”. It is likely that Sonya had more exposure to Iberian and Mexican varieties of Spanish, and had an informed opinion about Spanish.

In sum, the high numbers of disagreement levels suggest that many students did not believe Iberian Spanish to be superior to Mexican Spanish. However, the lack of knowledge regarding the extent of Spanish or the preference for a different variety of Spanish indicates that student language attitudes did not entirely indicate a vision of linguistic equality. Nevertheless, contrasting two Spanish varieties did draw out more of a response from the native Spanish-speaking students than contrasting two English varieties.

7.5.2.3 *I think some accents are better than others*

The final survey item of the Accent Superiority set was item 16, I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS. Much research has documented accent attitudes of native and non-native speakers of a language (e.g., Alford & Strother, 1990; Galindo, 1995; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010; Pantos & Perkins, 2012); many accent preferences tend to reflect

social group preferences or stereotypes (Lippi-Green, 1997). The purpose of this survey item was to test students' awareness of their own accent preferences.

Lesson W2D3 was particularly relevant to this survey item. In this lesson, we discussed how personal information about a speaker can be guessed by listening to him/her speak. After guessing the gender, age, and country origin of a few voices, the students watched the *Fair Housing Public Service Announcement* (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=84k2iM30vbY>), in which a white male speaker, impersonating various ethnic accents and names, attempts to rent an apartment. In the video, the man on the telephone is repeatedly told the apartment is not available until at last, when using a stereotypically White accent and name, he is told the same apartment is available. Students' reactions to the video were fervent—one student blurted out the word “racist”, and we discussed why it was racist for the man to not be offered the apartment until he used a White accent. I introduced the term “discrimination” to them, and explained that the woman at the other end of the telephone was using the speaker's accent as a basis for discrimination (field notes, Nov. 21, 2013).

The item I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS showed a strong surge in Treatment students' Posttest1 scores, reflecting the increase in disagreement that one accent could be better than another; this surge gradually declined as the school year progressed. Most of the Treatment students seemed to believe that one *accent* was not superior to another, although the results of the English and Spanish regional variety preferences items reported above suggest that students did in fact think one language variety is superior to another. The Treatment group's Response Index increased almost thirty points from 29% (Pretest, N = 7) to 58% (Posttest1, N = 14), before declining on Posttest2 (52%, N = 11) and

Posttest3 (50%, N = 11), where half the class still disagreed with this item at the end of the school year. While only seven Treatment students disagreed on the Pretest, that number doubled to fourteen students on Posttest1, indicating more tolerant attitudes towards different accents (Table 7.12 below).

In contrast, the Control group students did not show a change of attitude between the Pretest and Posttest1 (54% [N = 7] and 53% [N = 8] respectively). The disagreement levels plunged to 23% on Posttest2 (N = 3) before rising again to 43% on Posttest3 (N = 6). The Control group responded relatively steadily over the survey time-points except for Posttest2, where more students agreed (N = 9, 70%) than at any other time-point.

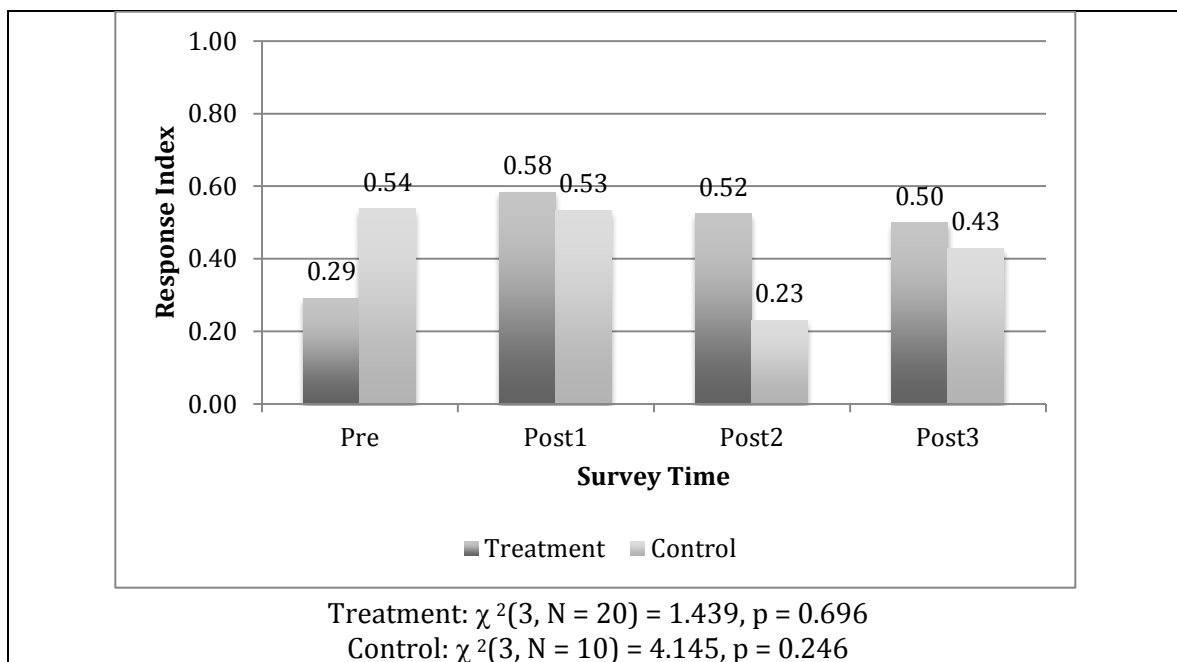


Figure 7.9: Response index for Item 16, "I think some accents are better than others"

Table 7.12: Strength of agreement for Item 16, "I think some accents are better than others"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	1 (4%)	9 (38%)	5 (21%)	2 (8%)	7 (29%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	5 (38%)	4 (31%)	3 (23%)	1 (8%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	2 (8%)	3 (13%)	11 (46%)	3 (13%)	5 (21%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	7 (47%)	1 (7%)	4 (27%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	2 (10%)	2 (10%)	9 (43%)	2 (10%)	6 (29%)
Control	13	1 (8%)	8 (62%)	2 (15%)	1 (8%)	1 (8%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	22	4 (18%)	3 (14%)	7 (32%)	4 (18%)	4 (18%)
Control	14	1 (7%)	5 (36%)	4 (29%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)

The conversational interviews showed some Treatment students had changed their attitudes towards the supposed superiority of certain accents. Two students expressed tolerant attitudes towards accents in their Posttest1 interview. In her Posttest1 interview Daniela explained her disagreement that one accent could be better than another:

Because it doesn't matter if accents are better or not better, it's just leave them how they are and don't bother them, saying my Spanish is better than your Spanish and my English is better than your English and my accent is better and it, it doesn't really matter, it's the way you were raised and how you speak. (Daniela)

Sofia changed her opinion towards a more tolerant attitude. She agreed with this item on the Pretest, but disagreed on Posttest1, explaining: "porque pienso que no hay acentos mejores que otros"²⁸.

Two interviewed Treatment students did not exhibit a change in their answers, showing little impact from the linguistic equality lessons. While Mariana maintained her

²⁸ "Because I think there are not accents that are better than others."

Don't Know answer on both the Pretest and Posttest1, Emmanuel agreed with this item on both surveys. Emmanuel explained that the accents he can understand are better:

Emmanuel: Yes I agree because um, sometimes uh, accents you could understand them and others you couldn't understand them that much.

Mary: So the ones that you can't understand, so the ones that you can understand are better than the ones you can't understand?

Emmanuel: Yes.

The last two interviewed students, Matias and David, seemed to already hold tolerant views toward accents before participating in the *LVSS* unit. In his Pretest interview, Matias disagreed:

Because I don't really think something like in England is better than something like here, cause there's, I have a friend that has an accent and it's not from England, I haven't heard it but he said he has an accent. (Matias)

Similarly, David disagreed because “*todos los acentos son iguales*”²⁹. However, both students changed their answers to *Don't Know* on Posttest1, showing that they felt more uncertain regarding accent superiority.

Two Control group students, Jean and Zack, believed some accents to be better than others. While Zack expressed preference for a French accent, Jean simply stated: “Cause I like the way that other people talk sometimes.” In her Pretest interview, Sonya also agreed, explaining “some people like, talk better than some people.” However, in her Posttest1 interview, Sonya disagreed that some accents were better than others. At one point, she said she believed a California accent to be better than a Texan accent, but changed her mind a few moments later:

Mary: So--okay. Do you think that the way people talk in California is better than the way people talk in Texas?

Sonya: Mm, no.

Mary: Why not?

²⁹ “All accents are equal.”

Sonya: Because both languages are different but they could still say, say it right.

Mary: Okay, so people in Texas, in California, one's not better than the other but they're, they're different?

Sonya: Yeah.

The other three Control group students disagreed with this item on the Pretest (although both Henry and Liz later changed their answers to *Don't Know* on Posttest1). For Billy, "it doesn't really matter" if other people have accents:

Uh no because um, because, some people like have accents and like it doesn't really matter if they have one, they just, that's just the way they talk, it doesn't matter.
(Billy)

In sum, the number of Treatment students disagreeing with the item I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS doubled on Posttest1, a change that was mostly maintained by the end of the school year. This change in attitudes represents one of the victories for the LVSS curriculum. In contrast, the Control group students mostly maintained their attitudes towards accents.

It appears that the lessons in linguistic equality made more of an impact in terms of comparing Spanish varieties. The item exploring attitudes towards two English varieties attracted a more muted response from the Treatment group. However, the high disagreement with the third item I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS shows that in theory, students realize one pronunciation pattern is not superior to another, although they maintain their regional preferences for one language variety over another. The qualitative interviews show that some Treatment students believed American English or Mexican Spanish to be superior. It is evident that believing linguistic prejudice is wrong does not preclude one from holding linguistic preferences.

7.5.3 *Judgments of speaker intelligence*

With the high levels of disagreement with the previous item I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS, it would be expected that students would show more tolerant views towards others' speech. However, the next two items show that this is not the case. Two items measured judgments of others' intelligence based on speech: Item 2, SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK and Item 14, IT IS OKAY TO THINK SOMEONE IS DUMB BECAUSE OF HOW HE/SHE TALKS. It was expected that after lessons in linguistic equality and accent prejudice, students would disagree that negative judgments of others' intelligence based on speech are acceptable. However, it is unclear that the LVSS lessons accomplished this goal.

7.5.3.1 *Some people sound stupid because of how they talk*

The item SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK showed an unexpected drop in disagreement responses on Posttest1, suggesting that the lessons may have actually convinced more Treatment students that indeed some people do sound stupid because of how they talk, a decidedly unintended change in attitudes (Figure 7.10 below). The Pretest measured high levels of disagreement with this item (88%, N = 21), which were not maintained after the LVSS lessons were taught. In fact, the disagreement levels plateaued for the rest of the school year (71%, N = 17 on Posttest1, 71%, N = 15 on Posttest2, and 70%, N = 16 on Posttest3), although it is encouraging that almost three-fourths of the Treatment class continued to reject this statement over time.

Table 7.13 below shows the change in disagreement responses for this item. Twenty-one Treatment students disagreed with this item on the Pretest, a favorable starting point for lessons in accent prejudice. However, more Treatment students began to agree with this item

over time (three students on Posttest1, four students on Posttest2, and five students on Posttest3), a further indication that the lessons did not make the desired impact for those particular students.

In contrast, the Control group maintained a steady proportion of disagreeing students on the Pretest (92%, N = 12) and Posttest1 (93%, N = 14). However, by Posttest3 the Control group's proportion of disagreeing students had merged with the Treatment group (71%, N = 10).

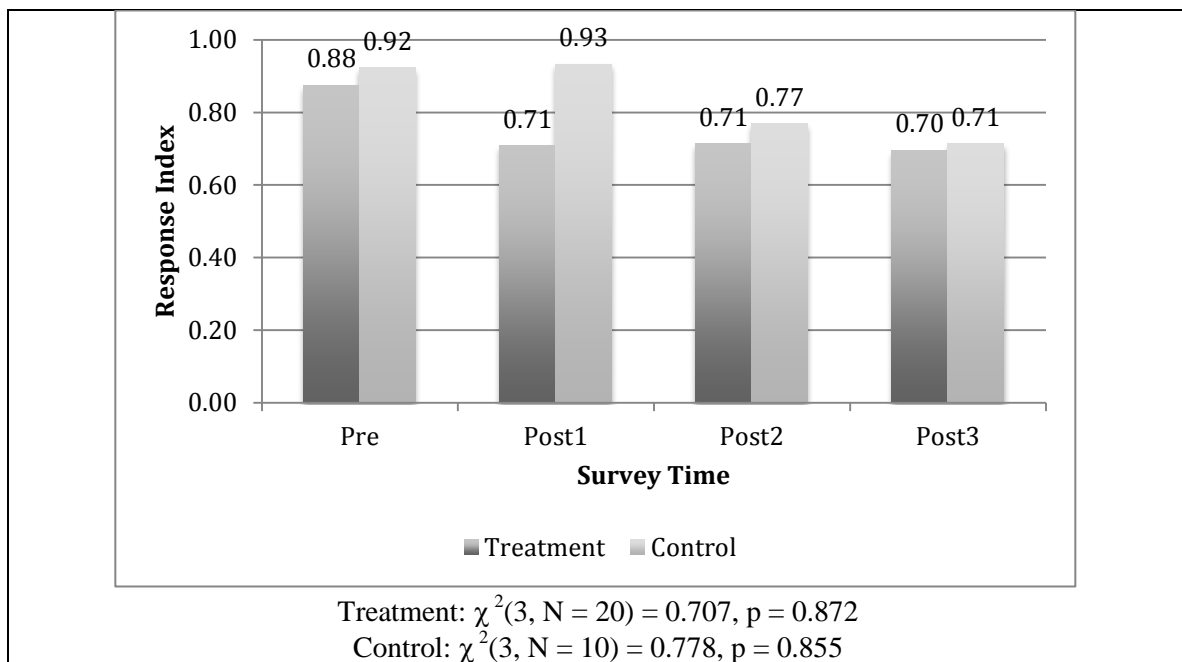


Figure 7.10: Response index for Item 2, "Some people sound stupid because of how they talk"

Table 7.13: Strength of agreement for Item 2, "Some people sound stupid because of how they talk"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	14 (58%)	7 (29%)	1 (4%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	3 (23%)	9 (69%)	0 (0%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	0 (0%)	3 (13%)	8 (33%)	9 (38%)	4 (17%)
Control	15	1 (7%)	0 (0%)	5 (33%)	9 (60%)	0 (0%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	1 (5%)	3 (14%)	9 (43%)	6 (29%)	2 (10%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (23%)	5 (38%)	5 (38%)	0 (0%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	22	1 (4%)	4 (17%)	4 (17%)	12 (52%)	2 (9%)
Control	14	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	3 (21%)	7 (50%)	2 (14%)

The conversational interviews confirm that the *LVSS* lessons did not convince many students that negative judgments of speaker intelligence are a part of linguistic discrimination. Five of six interviewed Treatment students claimed that a person could appear to be stupid based on how he/she talks. None of the six interviewed Treatment students changed their answers from the Pretest to Posttest1.

However, the phrase “sound stupid” was not universally interpreted to refer to intelligence. Two students, Daniela and Matias, interpreted this question to refer to people with speaking disabilities. Matias explained “they were just born like that”:

Matias: I put strongly disagree because they were, they, I don't even really think that they sound stupid because they were just born like that.

Mary: Oh okay, so um, so maybe it's not their fault?

Matias: Yeah.

Mary: Can you give me an example of people who might sound, or who are born that way?

Matias: My cousin Edmundo, when he was younger they used to think that he was stupid, but I don't, I didn't really think that, I just said well that's how he was born.

In her Posttest1 interview, Daniela emphasized “you can’t um, judge people from how they look or how they sound”, reflecting a tolerant perspective that was echoed by Sofia when she explained that “yo pienso que no suenan estúpidas por la manera que hablan porque ellos hablan así, es su forma de hablar³⁰”. It appears that Daniela, Matias and Sofia had noticed that some children speak in such a way as to attract the label “stupid” by others, although they themselves resist labeling these children.

Meanwhile, Emmanuel claimed that behavior, and not language, was a factor in attracting the label “stupid”. Like Daniela, Matias, and Sofia, Emmanuel also noted that someone’s speech could make him or her appear stupid: “Cause um, it doesn’t matter if they speak um, like stupid, maybe they’re really smart.” This explanation shows that appearances may be misleading. However, for Emmanuel it is still possible to sound stupid based on the way one speaks, even though one should refrain from judgment.

In contrast to his peers, on his Pretest David said he had never heard anyone speak stupid, and people who speak stupid do not exist:

David: Porque ninguna persona, yo nunca he escuchado a ninguna persona que hable estúpido. Like one, yo nunca he escuchado a ninguna persona.

Mary: ¿Pero existen estas personas? ¿O puede haber--

David: Yo creo que no.

Mary: Okay, así que no hay nadie que hable, o que suene--

David: Yo nunca lo he visto, no he escuchado nada.³¹

However, in his Posttest1 interview, David believed that people who sound stupid may actually turn out to be smarter than him, reflecting the same idea as Emmanuel that one

³⁰ “I think that they don’t sound stupid because of how they talk because they speak that way, it’s the way they speak.”

³¹ David: “Because no one, I have never heard anyone that speaks stupid. Like one, I have never heard anyone.

Mary: But do these people exist? Or could there be—

David: I don’t think so.

Mary: Okay, so there is no one who speaks, or sounds—

David: I have never seen it, I have not heard anything.

should refrain from judging people who may appear to talk stupid to save face. Thus for the five students interviewed on this item, a person may appear to sound stupid because of how he or she talks, but that does not mean that speaker is stupid in reality.

All six interviewed Control students disagreed with this statement on Posttest1. Like the Treatment students quoted above, three of the Control group students made a reference to disabilities that may cause someone to sound “stupid”. Billy explained:

No like cause, like I said, like that’s how they were born, that’s how they were going to talk, like they can’t help it, they didn’t create their own body. (Billy)

The other three students mentioned people have “different voices” or “squeaky voices”. Liz and Zack both explained that it is “rude” to think someone is stupid because of how he/she talks. Henry acknowledged that a person could sound stupid, but that judgment should never be verbalized:

Because um sometimes they sound like it, a little bit like it but you don’t tell them that. (Henry)

It is interesting to note that both Henry and Jean had marked *Agree* to this item, but changed their responses to *Disagree* in the interview sessions when I asked them to explain their answers. After Jean changed her answer, she was unable to offer an explanation for her disagreement. It is possible that a social desirability bias was in operation here; Henry and Jean probably did not want to appear judgmental in front of an adult who had access to their teachers.

It is clear from the explanations in the interviews that many Treatment students believed that some people do indeed sound stupid when they talk, although familiarity with verbal disabilities made some students refrain from explicit judgment. It is unclear whether dialectal differences are a source of this impression, since the wording of the item was

potentially ambiguous. References to people with verbal disabilities could be ruled out by rewording the item to refer to specific phonological or grammatical differences. However, Bucholtz et al. (2008, p. 82) note that a research instrument itself may play a role in respondents' understanding and reporting of their attitudes. Including a specific reference to a phonological or grammatical feature may inadvertently impose an attitude where it did not exist before. This possibility should be taken into account when interpreting the results of the two survey items in the Speaker Intelligence set; it is possible that some students had not explicitly thought of a person's intelligence as expressed through speech.

7.5.3.2 *It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk*

The crucial difference between item 14 and item 2 (reported above) lies in the phrase, "It is okay"; this phrase is intended to trigger the social unacceptability of prejudging a speaker, while item 2 focused more on the individual respondent's attitude. It was expected that respondents would recognize the unacceptability of assuming someone else were dumb based merely on talk.

However, among the Treatment students, the item IT IS OKAY TO THINK SOMEONE IS DUMB BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK also showed the same decline and plateau pattern as item 14 above, SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK. Disagreement dropped eleven points from the Pretest (78%, N = 18) to Posttest1 (67%, N = 16), and plateaued on Posttest2 (71%, N = 15) and Posttest3 (70%, N = 16) (Figure 7.11 below).

Table 7.14 below shows the change in disagreement responses over time. Eighteen Treatment students, approximately three-fourths of the class, disagreed with this item on the Pretest, and only three students agreed. Surprisingly, on Posttest1, two fewer students disagreed, and three more students agreed, showing an unfavorable trend that changed only

minimally on the next two posttests. The number of *Don't Know* responses remained steady over all survey administrations. Despite the drop, nearly three-fourths of the Treatment class still disagreed with this item by the end of the school year.

In contrast, the Control group students had a high proportion of disagreeing students, exceeding the proportion of Treatment group disagreements at each survey time-point (Pretest, 92%, N = 12). Only one Control student (Dan, not interviewed) agreed with this item on the Pretest and Posttest1.

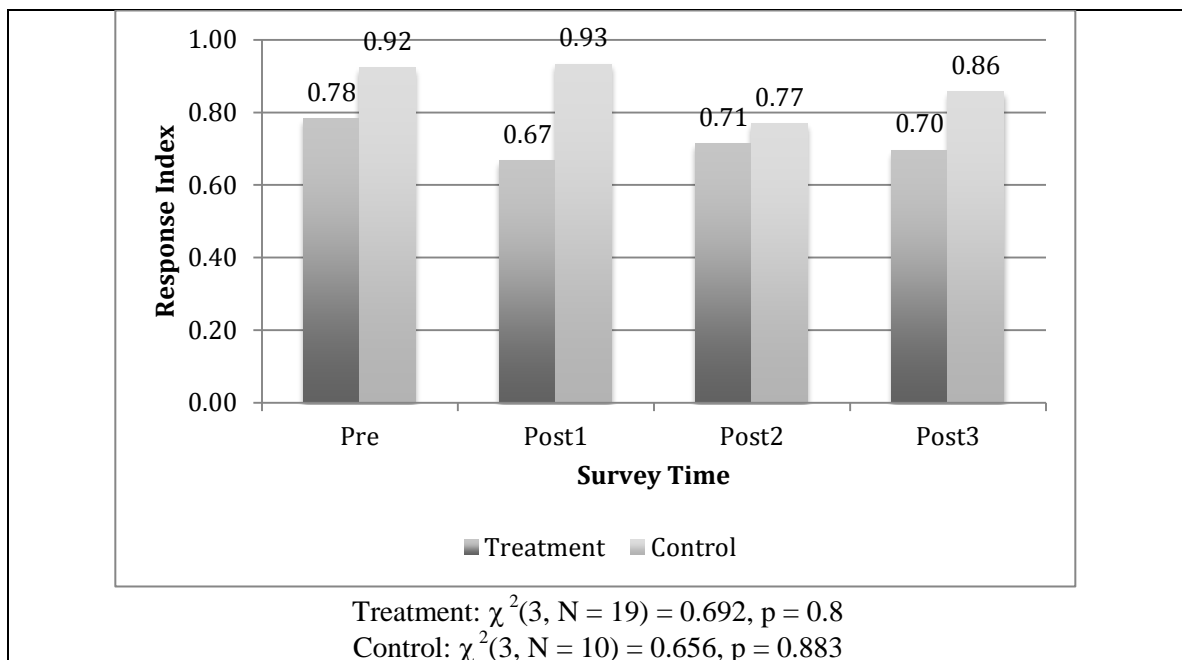


Figure 7.11: Response index for Item 14, "It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk"

Table 7.14: Strength of agreement for Item 14, "It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	23	0 (0%)	3 (13%)	7 (30%)	11 (48%)	2 (9%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	3 (23%)	9 (69%)	0 (0%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	2 (8%)	4 (17%)	4 (17%)	12 (50%)	2 (8%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	7 (47%)	7 (47%)	0 (0%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	1 (5%)	3 (14%)	6 (29%)	9 (43%)	2 (10%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	3 (23%)	4 (31%)	6 (46%)	0 (0%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	3 (13%)	2 (9%)	6 (26%)	10 (43%)	2 (9%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	2 (14%)	2 (14%)	10 (71%)	0 (0%)

The six interviewed Treatment students gave similar explanations for this item's responses as their explanations for the previous item, SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK. In her Pretest interview, Daniela once again made reference to people who are born with disabilities, and in both interviews Sofia repeated her assertion "que así ellos hablan y no lo pueden cambiar³²". The boys, David, Emmanuel and Matias, explained that appearances could be misleading: "maybe they like talk, they talk weird but maybe they could be really smart" (Emmanuel).

In addition to the explanations already mentioned, Daniela (in her Posttest1 interview) and Mariana (in her Pretest interview) brought up the issue of second language learning. Daniela explained:

Because some people are barely learning how to talk, well, they're learning how to, um like some of my friends from the class they're barely learning how to speak English and some people think they sound dumb but I say that's how they're learning, because when I was barely learning how to read English it was hard for me and I know that I sounded a little dumb [laugh] but I disagree

³² "They just speak like that and they can't change it."

because it's not fair knowing how it feels like and you doing the same thing the way they did to you and you need to just leave them alone. (Daniela)

Daniela demonstrates the ability to identify with another person's experiences, i.e. empathy, clearly an important trait for building respect for linguistic variation. She remembers the difficult time she had learning English and the disparagement she could have provoked from other children, and she discontinues the cycle of abuse towards others. While some students only refrain from judgment because their initial impression could be proved wrong, empathetic students may refrain from judgment because they feel what another person is feeling. Thus, part of building respect for other speakers is building empathy in students. While successive bilinguals have an advantage over monolinguals in that they have a direct experience in the long, hard work of language learning, all students should be encouraged to foster empathy towards classmates learning English. Future language awareness units may benefit from explicit instruction in empathy when it comes to linguistic profiling and accent prejudice.

All six Control group students rejected this statement on the Pretest and Posttest1. Like their peers in the Treatment group, these students also made references to people who cannot change the way they speak (Billy: "that's just how they talk, they can't control it") and people who may actually be smart (Sonya: "some people speak weird and um they're not that dumb, they're smart").

Like Daniela and Mariana, Liz also brought up the stigma that English Language Learners face:

Liz: I didn't really agree with that because I have a friend that speaks like um, like, um, like weird but I don't think that they're dumb like that.

Mary: How do they speak weird?

Liz: Cause like um sometimes they like mess up their words like if they say “has”, they’ll say like “wah”, like a different one.

Mary: Mm-hmm. Okay, so is your friend learning English still, or?

Liz: Mm-hmm.

The examples brought up by Daniela, Mariana and Liz point to the prejudice that English Language Learners experience from peers who are either native English speakers or simply more fluent in English. Clearly, for many elementary students, there is a connection between sounding dumb and not speaking English fluently. It is clear that Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction has a place in reducing bullying towards English Language Learners; once students understand the nature and process of learning a second language, they may be less likely to judge or make fun of a peer who “messes up their words”. In turn, English Language Learners who become proficient may be less likely to repeat the cycle of abuse they themselves suffered.

In sum, it is encouraging that more than half the Treatment class demonstrated favorable attitudes towards these two attitude items, despite the fact that the amount of students disagreeing actually decreased on the posttests. It is evident that the lessons did not adequately reinforce students’ preexisting tolerant attitudes. One possible example of this breakdown in communication was the lesson in style-shifting, in which students compared the speech of President Obama in two different contexts, one formal (accepting the presidency in 2008) and one informal (ordering a hamburger in 2010). The students listened to the two tracks and were asked to discuss how their impressions of him changed based on how he was talking. During the discussion, several students voiced their irritation with President Obama’s hesitancy when deciding on ice tea flavors and pickles for his burger. It is relevant to note that this lesson was taught in December 2013, when the president’s approval

ratings were at one of the lowest points of his presidency³³. It is possible that after voicing their annoyance at the president, students may have believed that it was indeed acceptable to judge a speaker negatively based on speech, although that was not the intent of the lesson. The drop in tolerant attitudes was unexpected given the positive trend in attitude items such as I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS (where over half the class disagreed) and I THINK EVERYONE SPEAKS THEIR NATIVE LANGUAGE CORRECTLY reported above (where almost 90% of students agreed).

The two attitude items discussed in this section may show a case of conflicting language attitudes. While many of the students believed that one accent is not better than another, apparently it is still possible to believe a person to be stupid, dumb or lazy based on how they speak (PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY, reported in section 7.4.1.2). Therefore, being aware of linguistic equality does not preclude a negative judgment of someone based on his or her speech. However, it is important to note that these two survey items do not specifically mention accent or dialect. In fact, it is possible that “how someone talks” could refer to a number of extra-linguistic cues (such as pragmatic information, body language, or loudness of voice) or non-linguistic related cues (such as verbal disability, as mentioned by several students in their interviews). In such case, awareness of linguistic equality does not mean students will be free of linguistic prejudice. As discussed above, it appears that empathetic students are more successful at avoiding linguistic prejudice. Therefore, future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula must teach sociolinguistics with the express intent of developing empathy.

³³ Gallup poll, <http://www.gallup.com/poll/113980/Gallup-Daily-Obama-Job-Approval.aspx>, accessed December 20, 2014.

7.5.4 *Prescriptive attitudes*

The next three survey items were designed to measure the participants' prescriptive language attitudes, that is, how the children thought language should be used. These survey items measured student attitudes of prescriptive norms: Item 19, FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE; Item 12, THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE; and Item 1, EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME. It was expected that after lessons in linguistic equality and dialect patterning, that students would disagree with the prescriptivist positions these statements take. However, the majority of Treatment students continued to hold prescriptive attitudes after participating in the lessons, and by the end of the school year prescriptive ideologies appeared to be firmly entrenched.

7.5.4.1 *Formal language is always better than informal language*

Studies have found that young children tend to think of language errors in terms of comprehensibility/intelligibility, or in terms of what the children are used to hearing (Millar, 2003). That is, young children may not necessarily have a standard language variety in mind when they judge grammaticality, but instead consider the local language variety that they are exposed to as the standard against which to judge other varieties. Therefore, a pressing question is at what age or development stage do children begin to believe the standard language variety as the “correct” variety? As the discussion below shows, these ten-year-old bilingual students already had notions of decent, proper language.

Students participating in the LVSS lessons were introduced the idea of “formal” vs. “informal” language by the fifth lesson, in which students compared generational uses of slang terms in English. The third week of lessons constituted the bulk of the instruction on

formal and informal language distinctions, in the context of style-shifting. In W3D1, the lesson that offered the clothing analogy, students came to the conclusion that in many academic contexts, formal language is preferred over informal language.

In the next lesson, W3D2, I asked the students to define what *formal* and *informal* meant. For *formal*, students volunteered the words *elegant*, *fancy*, and *decent* to explain this term. For *informal*, students volunteered the words *casual*, *normal*, and *not proper*. Taking into consideration the students' association of *formal* with "decent" and *informal* with "not proper", I reminded them of our previous discussion of the phrase "Wassup", which is considered informal but appropriate to certain situations. I attempted to dispel the notion that formal meant "correct" and informal meant "incorrect" (field notes, December 5, 2013). This concept was reinforced with a read-aloud of a children's book, *Don't Say Ain't*, by Irene Smalls (discussed in §6.5.4.2). The lesson ended with a second discussion on the difference between "incorrect" and "inappropriate", and how *ain't* is very commonly assumed to be incorrect.

Another lesson that dealt with the formal/informal language distinction was W3D3, the subsequent lesson. This lesson began with a discussion on how the use of formal or informal language can influence a person's perception of a character. To illustrate this phenomenon, short selections were read aloud from two popular children's series, *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* (book one) by Jeff Kinney, and *A Series of Unfortunate Events* (book one) by Lemony Snicket. Jeff Kinney's books are written in an informal style supposed to mimic an adolescent male's diary, while Lemony Snicket's books are written in a very formal style characterized by large words, complex syntax, and intellectual topics. Furthermore, Jeff Kinney's protagonist, Greg, is an American middle-schooler who discusses his daily

struggles with annoying siblings, bullies, and awkward social situations. Lemony Snicket's protagonists are quite the reverse of Greg—the Baudelaire orphans, Violet, Klaus and Sunny, are children of rich parents, they used to live in a mansion, and they are academically gifted. Greg's story is set in present-day United States, while the Baudelaire's story is set in an anachronistic place similar to 19th century Britain. As a result of these and other differences, the narration and dialogue of the two book series stand in stark contrast in terms of lexical content and grammatical style.

After listening to the “Cheese Touch” section of Kinney's book (p. 8-10), and “the death of the parents” section in Snicket's book (p. 6-10), we discussed the formality/informality of the writing style and how it affected our perceptions of Greg and the Baudelaire orphans. The students agreed that Greg appeared casual, and the Baudelaire orphans appeared fancy. We discussed how the writing style was *appropriate* for the characters—Greg tried very hard to appear normal, while the Baudelaire orphans seemed to stand out (field notes, December 5, 2013).

Considering the extent to which the lessons went in discussing how formality was contrasted with informality in terms of appropriateness, the results for item 19, FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE, were surprising. More Treatment students agreed with this statement in Posttest1 (30%, N = 7) and Posttest2 (24%, N = 5), although agreement levels returned to Pretest-levels (42%, N = 10) by Posttest3 (33%, N = 7). Meanwhile the opposite trend occurred in the Control group, with less Control students agreeing on Posttest1 (Figure 7.12 below).

The Control group students actually showed more disagreement with this item from the Pretest (23%, N = 3) to Posttest1 (47%, N = 7). However, this surge in disagreement was

not sustained on Posttest2 (8%, N = 1) or Posttest3 (17%, N = 2). The Control group also showed a high proportion of students expressing uncertainty at all four survey time-points, ranging from between 62% on the Pretest to 33% on Posttest1.

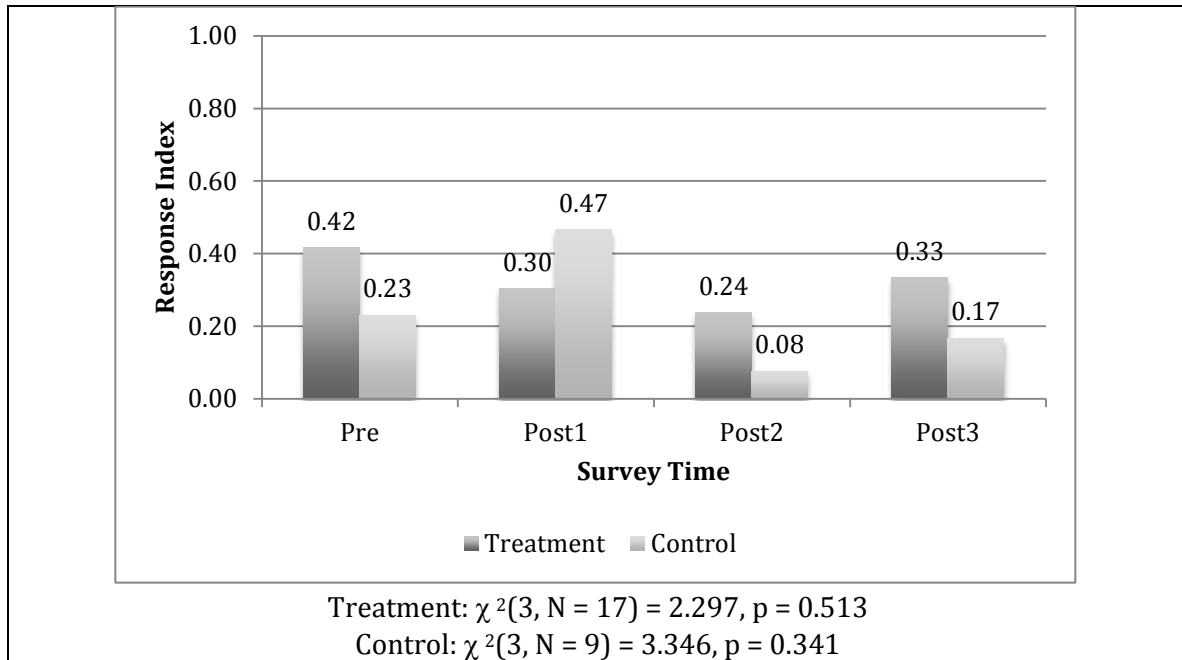


Figure 7.12: Response index for Item 19, "Formal language is always better than informal language"

Table 7.15 below shows the strength of disagreement this item garnered. While ten Treatment students expressed disagreement with this statement before the lessons, only seven students disagreed on Posttest1 and Posttest3, with a mere five students disagreeing on Posttest2. Although more students agreed with this item on Posttest1, fewer students agreed on Posttest2 and Posttest3, and uncertainty in responses grew over time. An unexpected trend is the rise in number of Treatment students who agreed with this item on Posttest1 (fifteen students, versus ten students on the Pretest). It is clear that many students continued to believe that formal language was more “correct” than informal language.

Table 7.15: Strength of agreement for Item 19, "Formal language is always better than informal language"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	3 (13%)	7 (29%)	5 (21%)	5 (21%)	4 (17%)
Control	13	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	2 (15%)	1 (8%)	8 (62%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	23	6 (26%)	9 (39%)	6 (26%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	3 (20%)	6 (40%)	1 (7%)	5 (33%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	4 (19%)	7 (33%)	5 (24%)	0 (0%)	5 (24%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	6 (46%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	6 (46%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	21	2 (10%)	5 (24%)	4 (19%)	3 (14%)	7 (33%)
Control	12	0 (0%)	5 (42%)	2 (17%)	0 (0%)	5 (42%)

The interviews confirm that Treatment students resisted the view that formal language was just as valid as informal language. Only two interviewed students, David and Matias, believed that formal language was not better than informal language. In his explanation, Matias showed understanding that style-shifting requires a speaker to switch between formal and informal types of language. He gives the example of “una fiesta de teenagers³⁴,” where speaking formally “no sería como normal³⁵”; speaking informally would be expected.

On Posttest1, four students (Daniela, Emmanuel, Mariana and Sofia) believed formal language to be better than informal language. Although Emmanuel and Sofia acknowledged the need for style-shifting, they still insisted that formal language was better. Emmanuel conceded that “like when you’re with your friends you could talk informal”, but aligned more with Sofia’s view: “el lenguaje formal es más decente que el informal³⁶”. On her part,

³⁴ “a teenagers’ party”

³⁵ “would not be, like, normal”

³⁶ “formal language is more decent than informal language”

Mariana insisted that people do not like being spoken to in a casual manner. For these students, formal language was more proper, decent, and respectable than informal language.

It is evident that many Treatment students did not internalize that one language variety is not superior to another. It is possible that students interpreted this question to mean “formal language is more *appropriate/proper* than informal language” (although that should also attract disagreement responses); the term “better” is potentially ambiguous in this context. A more specific wording of this item such as “Formal language is always more correct/suitable than informal language” could have avoided possible misinterpretation.

Two interviewed Control students believed formal language to be superior to informal language. Zack explained: “formal language is better, always better” and Billy explained “it’s probably more appropriate” to use formal language. In contrast, Liz took a more laissez-faire approach: “like you can speak formal language if you want to or you can speak informal language if you want to.” It was unclear if Liz was aware of context-constrained uses of language.

Interestingly, Sonya, the bilingual student, believed Spanish to be “formal” and English to be “informal”. She explained that this was related to the language dominance at home: “because I don’t, I don’t speak too much English at the house, talk a lot of Spanish because my parents don’t talk English.” It appears that her use of English with friends and Spanish with family is the main distinction between formal and informal language.

Of the six interviewed Control students, four did not know what the phrase *formal language* meant. In his Posttest1 interview, Billy said that it “doesn’t really matter if one’s better”. I pressed him further, asking “What about like on a writing test?”, Billy was unable to explain why students were expected to use formal language on academic tests:

Billy: Um, like what do you mean?
Mary: Like say you're taking um like a very special test, like I think in the spring you guys take um tests for the school?
Billy: Oh yeah the [district academic test].
Mary: Mm-hmm right, so does it matter then?
Billy: Yeah.
Mary: So why does it, why do you think it matters then?
Billy: Um, I'm not sure.

This excerpt illustrates that some students were unaware of what *formal language* was, and they were also unaware of why it was expected in school. Educators must explain to students the relevance of the content they learn in school because relevance is connected to student motivation and interest in academics (Fox, 2011). The relevance of formal academic language must also be made clear for students to maintain motivation in acquiring school-based language varieties. A Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum makes this relevance explicit for students, at the same time it develops respect for all language varieties.

In sum, it appears that the overt prestige of formal speech swayed many Treatment and Control students into believing it was always better. Although some students admitted that informal speech was necessary for informal situations, it seems that the low social status of informal speech keeps it from being “better” or even “equal” to formal language. The high level of agreement with this item shows the strength that prescriptivist attitudes hold even among pre-adolescent children.

7.5.4.2 *The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language*

The next survey item confirmed that socially prestigious language influences student views of language correctness. Item 12, THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE, showed very humble growth on the Treatment group's Posttest1 scores, before descending to negligible disagreement levels (Figure 7.13 below).

While the Treatment group's Response Index increased four points from 17% (Pretest, N = 4) to 21% (Posttest1, N = 5), the disagreement levels tumbled to 10% (Posttest2, N = 2) and 4% (Posttest3, N = 1), resulting in the weakest results of the entire survey. There is no clear pattern that emerges from the Treatment students who disagreed with this item. The only student who disagreed with this item on Posttest3, Diego, had agreed with this item on all three earlier surveys. One student, Jeronimo, changed his answers on each survey: he disagreed on the Pretest and Posttest2, but agreed on Posttest1 and Posttest3. Another student, Valentina, disagreed on the Pretest and Posttest1, but changed her mind by Posttest2 and Posttest3.

The Control group maintained scores from Pretest (31%, N = 4) to Posttest1 (33%, N = 5), before also experiencing a fall in disagreement levels on Posttest2 (8%, N = 1). Three students (21%) disagreed on Posttest3.

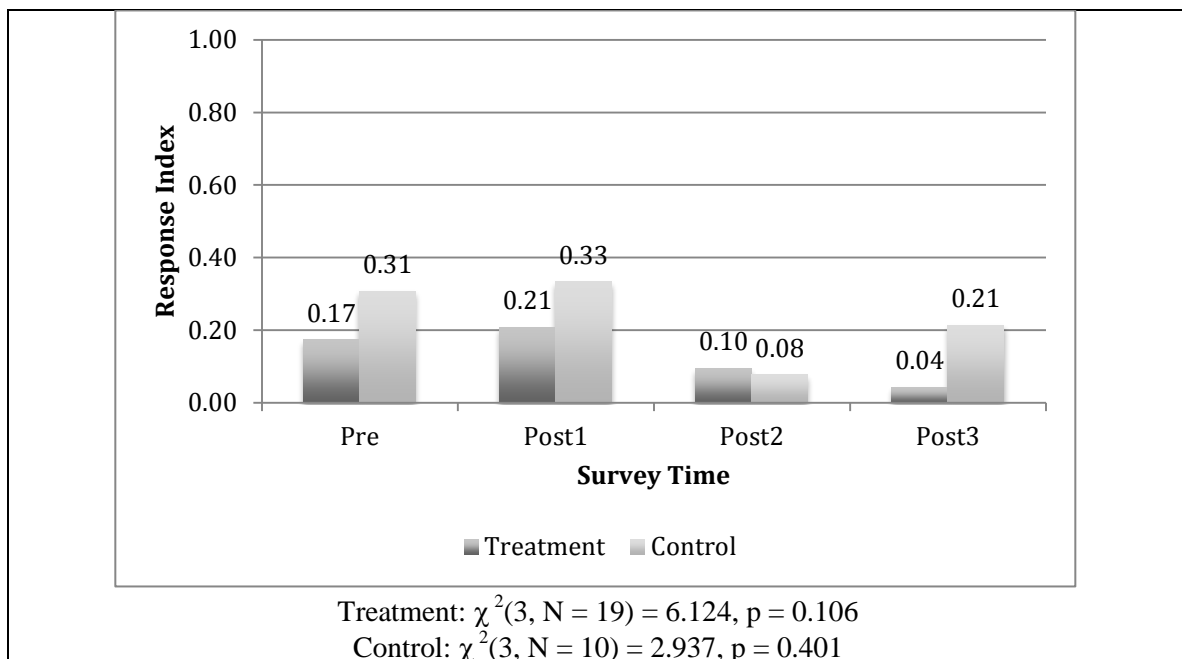


Figure 7.13: Response index for Item 12, "The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language"

Table 7.16: Strength of agreement for Item 12, "The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	23	7 (30%)	10 (43%)	4 (17%)	0 (0%)	2 (9%)
Control	13	3 (23%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)	2 (15%)	2 (15%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	6 (25%)	12 (50%)	4 (17%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)
Control	15	3 (20%)	4 (27%)	0 (0%)	5 (33%)	3 (20%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	2 (10%)	15 (71%)	2 (10%)	0 (0%)	2 (10%)
Control	13	3 (23%)	6 (46%)	1 (8%)	0 (0%)	3 (23%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	23	7 (30%)	9 (39%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	6 (26%)
Control	14	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)

Table 7.16 above shows the change in disagreement responses for this item. Most Treatment students agreed or strongly agreed with this item, with agreement remaining somewhat steady over time. By the end of the school year, more Treatment students expressed doubt (six students) on this item, which is perhaps an encouraging trend. Perhaps the increased doubt indicates that more students are questioning whether school-based language is the only correct kind of language.

The interviews showed that many students in both groups interpreted the phrase “the language we learn in school” to mean learning English in school, as opposed to the *type* of English or the *type* of Spanish one learns in school. Future versions of this survey should make this distinction explicit: “The *type* of Spanish we learn in school is more grammatically correct than the *type* of Spanish we hear outside of school”. Thus, it is possible that this survey item is a more accurate indicator of how students view the status of English or Spanish in the schools. In her Pretest interview, Sofia explained that English is the correct language to use in school, but Spanish is also acceptable:

Sofia: Yo puse sí estoy de acuerdo porque el lenguaje que aquí hablamos en la escuela es el lenguaje de aquí.

Mary: ¿Quieres decir de los Estados Unidos, o?

Sofia: Sí, mm-hmm.

Mary: ¿Estás hablando del inglés o del..? ¿qué exactamente?

Sofia: Pues más inglés pero también español.

M: ¿Así que el español y el inglés que aprendemos aquí es el lenguaje correcto?

Sofia: Mm-hmm.³⁷

In her Posttest1 interview, Sofia reiterated that English was the correct language because it was taught in schools and it is the main language of the U.S. She then went on to explain that the language taught in school was superior to the language heard in the streets, because it was more “decent”:

Sofía: Puse que sí estoy de acuerdo porque pienso que es el lenguaje que tenemos que aprender aquí.

Mary: ¿Y es correcto?

Sofía: Sí.

Mary: ¿Es mejor que otro tipo de lenguaje? Por ejemplo ¿el tipo de lenguaje que se oye en la calle, o el campo de recreo?

Sofía: Es mejor que el lenguaje de la calle o de otro lugar.

Mary: ¿Por qué?

Sofía: Porque aquí es más decente y en otros lugares no tanto.³⁸

³⁷ Sofia: I put yes I agree because the language that we speak here in the school is the language of here.

Mary: Do you mean the United States, or?

Sofia: Yes, mm-hmm.

Mary: Are you talking about English, or? What exactly?

Sofia: Well more English but also Spanish.

Mary: So the Spanish and English that we learn here are more correct?

Sofia: mm-hmm.

³⁸ Sofia: I put yes I agree because I think it is the language we have to learn here.

Mary: And it is correct?

Sofia: Yes.

Mary: It is better than another type of language? For example, the type of language that is heard in the street, or in the playground?

Sofia: It's better than the language of the street or of other places.

Mary: Why?

Sofia: Because here it is more decent and in other places not so much.

Thus, even in Sofía's understanding of the dominance of English in the U.S., she still believed school-based language was superior to language found in other less formal locations.

Despite this English/Spanish dichotomous interpretation of some students, Emmanuel and Matias caught the intended meaning of formal versus informal language. Explaining his agreement, Emmanuel said that speaking formal is a valuable skill for a child to learn, and went on to explain how his father corrects his use of Spanglish:

Mary: Why do you agree with that?

Emmanuel: Because like um, when you talk to um, a teacher they speak kind of speak formal and that help you later when you're older you can speak formal.

Mary: So do you think that the school language is um, uh is the only correct kind of language, or there's others?

Emmanuel: There's others.

Mary: Like what?

Emmanuel: Like um the one, like at the house.

Mary: So why is that correct also?

Emmanuel: Because um my dad he's um, like say something wrong, he always, he always like corrects me.

Mary: Oh yeah? Can you give me an example?

Emmanuel: Like um when I say *parqueando*, he tells me that it's *estacionar*, like that.

Emmanuel's example shows that children are exposed to prescriptivist ideologies at home as well as school. In his case, Emmanuel speaks "correct" Spanish at home due to his father's vigilance.

Matias was the only interviewed Treatment student who disagreed with this item on Posttest1. He explained that the language spoken in school was not monolithic: "*porque en la escuela también decimos otras cosas, que no más cómo estás, decimos, como si fuera en inglés, no decimos how are you, we say what's up*". Matias' example points to the fact that

bilingual children can be explicitly taught to be aware of language variation in both languages.

Five out of six interviewed Control group students also interpreted this item to mean English is the correct language to be taught in schools (it was unclear if Liz, the sixth student, interpreted it this way as well). Three of those students (Billy, Zack, and Henry) agreed with the statement, explaining that English was the proper language for the United States. Billy qualified his English-only ideology with a tolerance of diversity: “but you can, they, they’ll accept like any kind of person from somewhere else.” This unintended interpretation of this survey item points to how elementary students are indoctrinated in English-only policies in schools; English is seen to be the “correct” language and learning any other language is marked. Previous research has pointed out the discriminatory practices of conducting multicultural education in English and in standard language varieties (e.g., Macedo, 1991; Macedo & Bartolomé, 2014). It is clear that students as young as ten years old are convinced of the predominance of English over all other languages in the United States.

Sonya, the bilingual student, was the only interviewed Control group student to disagree with this item. She also interpreted it to mean English is the correct language to be taught in schools. In her Pretest interview, she directly confronted the monolingual English ideology circulating among her peers:

Some kids could talk Spanish in school also, they just don’t have to talk English too. (Sonya)

Although she was in an English-medium classroom, Sonya defended the right to use Spanish at school. Sonya’s resolve on this issue wavered as the school year went on; she marked *Don’t Know* on Posttest1 and Posttest2, but marked *Strongly Disagree* on Posttest3.

In sum, this item could benefit from a clarification of the phrase “the language we learn in school” to emphasize varieties of a language, as opposed to the actual language spoken in school (English or Spanish). The misinterpretation of the item points to the English-only ideology, or at least English-preferred ideology, that is prevalent even in schools with Dual Language programs. That is, it is apparent that educators must critically examine their stance towards and use of the English language, which exerts a hegemonic presence even in programs committed to bilingualism. Despite the ambiguity, it is clear that the majority of students believed school-based language varieties to be superior and even necessary for their academic futures. The next item probed how prescriptivist ideologies influenced a participant’s view of style-shifting.

7.5.4.3 *Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time*

The last survey item related to prescriptivist attitudes showed high levels of tolerant attitudes in both groups. This is unexpected given the strong prescriptivist tendencies illustrated in the previous two survey items. The Treatment group’s Response Index increased four points from 79% (Pretest, N = 19) to 83% (Posttest1, N = 20), before decreasing to 71% (Posttest2, N = 15) and increasing again to 82% (Posttest3, N = 18) (see Figure 7.14 below). This mild roller-coaster trajectory shows that in general Treatment students disagreed that everyone must speak a language the same way.

Although scores stayed relatively steady from Pretest to Posttest1, there is an increasing strength in disagreement by Posttest3, with 12 students strongly disagreeing (Table 7.17 below). Along with low levels of *Don’t Know* responses, the increase in *Strongly Disagree* responses indicates that students felt more certain about their responses. The Control group students scored similarly to their Treatment group peers (77% on the Pretest,

N = 10), except on Posttest3 when 14 out of 14 responding students disagreed with this item, a rare show of unanimity.

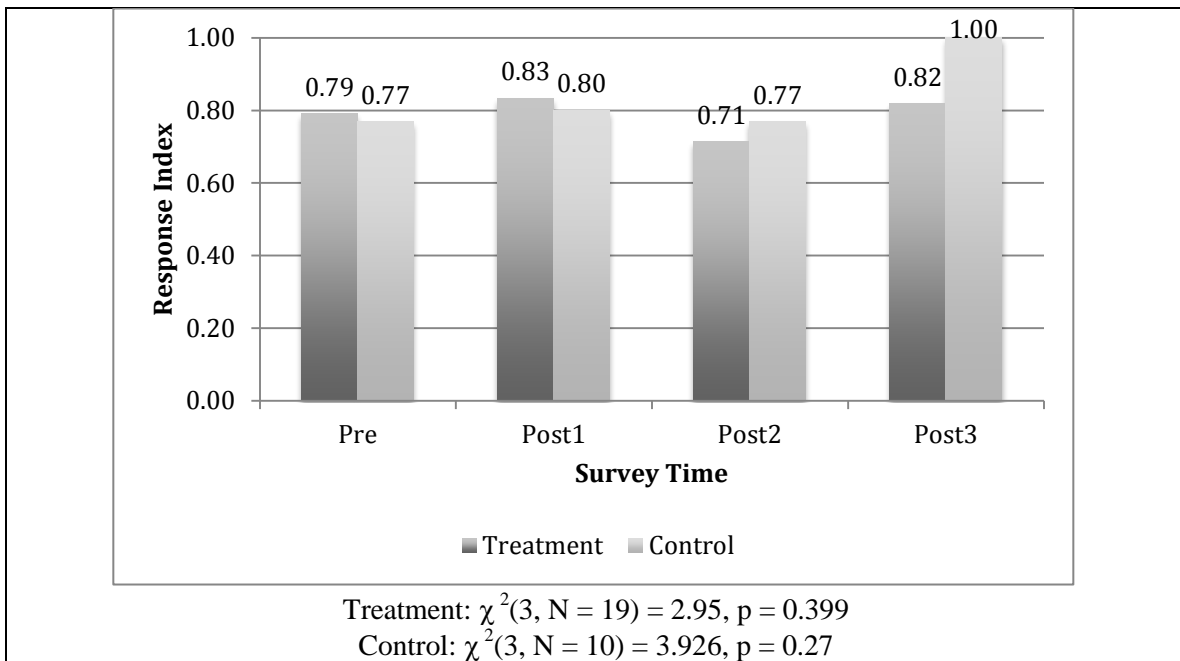


Figure 7.14: Response index for Item 1, "Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time"

Table 7.17: Strength of agreement for Item 1, "Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time"

	<i>N</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
PRETEST						
Treatment	24	2 (8%)	2 (8%)	13 (54%)	6 (25%)	1 (4%)
Control	13	0 (0%)	1 (8%)	6 (46%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)
POSTTEST1						
Treatment	24	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	13 (54%)	7 (29%)	2 (8%)
Control	15	0 (0%)	1 (7%)	8 (53%)	4 (27%)	2 (13%)
POSTTEST2						
Treatment	21	2 (10%)	2 (10%)	7 (33%)	8 (38%)	2 (10%)
Control	13	1 (8%)	1 (8%)	5 (38%)	5 (38%)	1 (8%)
POSTTEST3						
Treatment	22	2 (9%)	1 (5%)	6 (27%)	12 (55%)	1 (5%)
Control	14	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (50%)	7 (50%)	0 (0%)

In the pretest interviews, all six Treatment students disagreed with this item because it conflicted with their notions of fairness and social justice. Several Treatment students interpreted this to mean that people should speak one language over another, instead of the intended meaning of speaking one language variety over another. For example, Emmanuel explained: “cause um, everyone should talk their own language that they speak, um, all the time, if they want”. David initially understood the phrase *speaking the same way at the same time* to mean two people talking simultaneously who cannot hear each other. I clarified the meaning for him by asking if someone should change their way of talking if everyone at school spoke differently. David responded no, “porque así es como habla³⁹” but when on to suggest that the person should try to be understood.

In the Posttest interviews, Mariana, Sofia and David still thought about this item in terms of language fairness. David explained, “si quieres aprender el inglés, puedes hablar el inglés en vez del español, o español, puedes cambiar de lenguaje⁴⁰”. For David, being bilingual affords someone the ability to change languages if they want.

Matias agreed with this item on Posttest1, explaining that if two people spoke different languages, they would not understand each other. When I clarified the meaning for him, he agreed that a person can talk a different type of English as long as comprehending the other person wasn’t a problem. In his Posttest1 interview, Emmanuel mentioned conforming to conventions of an academic topic:

Emmanuel: Like sometimes [people should speak a language the same way] when you're like doing like math and um, you say um, you like say like “equation” and those words, and they say it the same sometimes.

³⁹ “Because that’s just the way they talk.”

⁴⁰ “If you want to learn English, you can speak English instead of Spanish, or Spanish, you can switch the language.”

Mary: So no matter what you're doing in math you have to use the same like math words?

Emmanuel: Yeah.

Emmanuel points out that students are required to use the same academic language for certain topics at school, and therefore they *do* have to “speak the same way all the time”.

In her Posttest1 interview, Daniela showed a strong understanding of situational style-shifting, indicating the impact the Sociolinguistic Awareness lesson had on her understanding of language in context. She explained her disagreement by citing job-appropriate language:

No because some people like if they're going to go to um what's that called, if they're going to go to someplace, they're gonna have to talk different because what about if you're going talk to your boss and you talk to your boss like you talk to your friends like, “what's up how you doing” and stuff and your boss might say “we can't hire you because you're talking how you talk to your friends, and I'm your boss”, and people could um, they don't need to do the same language all the time, they could change it. (Daniela)

For Daniela, there is a need for contextual style-shifting that must allow for some variation in the way people talk.

In their interviews, all six Control group students also expressed the idea that people can speak a language other than English if they want, reflecting both the social fairness ideals like their Treatment group peers, and the interpretation of this item to mean between-languages variation, instead of the intended within-languages variation. The attitudes expressed for this item contrast starkly with the attitudes expressed for the two previous prescriptivist attitudes survey items, in which many students expressed the opinion that English was the “correct” language and that formal language was superior to informal language. It is clear that this item, unlike the other two, stimulated the students' sense of social justice and fairness. It is interesting that many students did not see the dominance of English in school and society as a social justice issue; apparently the use of English over

other languages in academics is not perceived as an equal rights issue. It is evident that while many students believed “you should be able to speak your language if you want” (Billy), in practice English was the preferred language, at least among the monolingual students.

Once again, Sonya, the bilingual student, offered a perspective on this issue that was not evident among the monolingual Control group students. She explained her disagreement with this item, stating defensively: “because I could talk English here and they can’t do anything if I speak Spanish here too.” Sonya’s choice of words is telling. Even in a school with a Dual Language strand, bilingual students must be protective of their right to use Spanish, a language that is obviously disfavored among monolingual peers and in mainstream society in general. Thus, despite the outward projection of tolerance, Spanish is still under threat.

In sum, many Treatment and Control students disagreed with this item because it triggered their notions of fairness and social justice. Although the Treatment group’s scores appears to show little change across the four survey time-points, the *strength* of disagreement increased over time, with 12 out of 23 students choosing *Strongly Disagree* on Posttest3, compared with only 6 students on the Pretest. Nevertheless, the wording of the item must be clarified so that students understand a within-language comparison instead of a between-languages comparison.

To summarize the three prescriptive language attitudes items, the Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons did not appear to impact significantly the Treatment students’ attitudes towards what was perceived as the “correct” language or the dominance of English. On Posttest1, more Treatment students believed formal language to always be better than informal language, and the majority agreed that school-based language was “the correct kind

of language”. However, approximately three-fourths of the Treatment class rejected the statement that “everyone should speak a language the same way all the time”, indicating that despite the overwhelming preference for formal, school-based language, students are aware that language variation does and should exist. Once again it is evident that beliefs in fairness and justice do not preclude preferring one language variety over another. Furthermore, the hegemonic position of English, and Standard English, remained intact for many students. Future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula may consider further steps in problematizing the overarching preference for English that hides behind a veil of tolerance for multilingualism.

7.6 Summary of Language Attitude Results

This section summarizes the results of the ten Language Attitudes survey items. First, I discuss the significance of the change in mean scores in both the Treatment and the Control groups. Second, I review the efficacy of the unit in improving students’ Language Attitudes. Third, I discuss the revisions to the item wording that could improve the assessment validity. I conclude with suggested modifications to the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders* unit itself that could impact Language Attitudes.

Overall, six out of ten Language Attitudes survey items showed a gain among Treatment students on Posttest1, with three items showing a particularly large gain of 12% or more when all respondents are included. This fact is encouraging for future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula that seek to educate public school students on language variation. However, it is clear that the *LVSS* lessons were less effective in improving student Language Attitudes than increasing Sociolinguistic Knowledge (where five survey items showed a gain of 10% or more, and only one item showed a small negative change on Posttest1). Three Language Attitudes survey items showed a percent change of 12% or more (Item 4, Item 5,

and Item 16), and three more items showed a gain of 4%. On four survey items, students showed more negative attitudes on the posttests, showing that the Sociolinguistic Awareness unit did not capitalize efficiently on pre-existing attitudes in these areas (specifically, judging the intelligence and laziness of a speaker, along with continuing to believe formal language was superior to informal language). These results suggest that attitudes are much harder to influence than content knowledge.

Three items measured positive Language Attitudes among less than half of the Treatment class by Posttest1: Item 6, PEOPLE WHO SPEAK DIALECTS ARE LAZY (46%); Item 12, THE LANGUAGE WE LEARN IN SCHOOL IS THE CORRECT KIND OF LANGUAGE (21%); and Item 19, FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE (30%). It is evident that prescriptive ideologies were still in force among the majority of Treatment students even after participating in Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons. Furthermore, before participating in the lessons, many students already had firm opinions of what constituted decent and proper language. Evaluative notions of “good” versus “bad” language are already in place by age ten.

Encouragingly, a majority of Control group showed positive Language Attitudes on seven out of ten items, with three of those items measuring over three-fourths of the class concurring (Item 1, EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME, Item 2, SOME PEOPLE SOUND STUPID BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK, and Item 14, IT IS OKAY TO THINK SOMEONE IS DUMB BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK). However, like their bilingual peers, Control group students also displayed prescriptive ideologies regarding language in school and formal language, where less than half the group showed positive Language Attitudes. As a group, students in the Control group performed worse on the Language Attitudes items

over time than their peers in the Treatment group, especially on Posttest2, the only statistically significant difference between the two groups.

In terms of gender, the Treatment girls had the most positive Language Attitudes and even maintained high scores by Posttest3 (83% positive). Treatment boys, although starting slightly higher than the girls, maintained scores through Posttest2 (73%) before dipping slightly at the end of the school year (66%). The Control boys and girls began the study at near-identical levels of Language Attitudes as their Treatment peers, but both genders began a steady decline over the course of the study. Only the Control girls rallied their scores by Posttest3 (gaining 12 percentage points to 66%), while the Control boys continued their decline (50% positive by Posttest3, a loss of fourteen percentage points in comparison with the Pretest). Thus, the Treatment girls had the most positive Language Attitudes, and the Control boys had the most negative.

These overall results indicate that the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth-Graders* curriculum did improve the Treatment students' Language Attitudes on at least six items, and furthermore, girls gained more positive attitudes by the end of the school year than boys. The gains indicate the *LVSS* curriculum succeeded, in part, in improving students' Language Attitudes, especially towards regional accents, although more work remains to be done in order to improve Language Attitudes in other areas, such as prescriptivism. Therefore, the second research question:

After participating in a dialect awareness curriculum, do 5th grade students demonstrate a **change in language attitudes**?

can be answered in the affirmative, and furthermore, the change was strongly positive for three items, with an additional three items showing at least some positive gain.

The second part of the research question asked if this change could be maintained over a longer period of time (i.e. 5 months after instruction). The second posttest was administered after 42 days had elapsed, and the third posttest was administered after one hundred forty days had elapsed (five calendar months). Overall, none of the ten Language Attitudes items had maintained the positive gains by Posttest3, which would suggest a *no* answer to this research question. However, when split along gender groups, the *LVSS* lessons were successful in increasing positive Language Attitudes with the girls and maintaining positive attitudes among the boys, which would indicate a *yes* answer. This finding suggests that students, especially boys, need ongoing instruction in Sociolinguistic Awareness in order to maintain positive Language Attitudes. The intensifying decline of the Control group's Language Attitudes over time points to the need for all students to receive Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction.

Considering individual survey items, the items that dealt specifically with accents performed the best. That is, Treatment students displayed more positive attitudes towards accents in general after participating in *LVSS*. This finding suggests that the lessons were successful in reducing prejudice towards accents. However, the students displayed more negative attitudes regarding speaker intelligence, laziness and informal language. There were no statistically significant differences among the scores of the Treatment group, and there was one statistically significant difference among the scores of the Control group (item 9, regarding English varieties; fewer Control students accepted this statement on the posttests) (see Table 7.18 for a summary of the Friedman statistical tests).

Table 7.18: Language Attitudes Items Friedman Test Results

<i>Item</i>	<i>Statistic</i>	<i>p value</i>
Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 29) = 2.950$	0.399
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 3.926$	0.270
Item 2: Some people should stupid because of how they talk		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 0.707$	0.872
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 0.778$	0.855
Item 4: People from Spain speak Spanish better than people from Mexico		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 2.207$	0.531
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 4.158$	0.245
Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 19) = 2.133$	0.545
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 0.471$	0.925
Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 19) = 3.857$	0.277
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 3.867$	0.276
Item 9: People from England speak English better than people from the United States		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 1.488$	0.685
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 9.763$	0.021
Item 12: The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 19) = 6.124$	0.106
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 2.937$	0.401
Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how he/she talks		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 19) = 0.692$	0.875
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 0.656$	0.883
Item 16: I think some accents are better than others		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 20) = 1.439$	0.696
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 10) = 4.145$	0.246
Item 19: Formal language is better than informal language		
TREATMENT	$\chi^2(3, N = 17) = 2.297$	0.513
CONTROL	$\chi^2(3, N = 9) = 3.346$	0.341

In sum, the Treatment and Control students had similar Language Attitudes before the Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons began, and the lessons did have an impact on the Language Attitudes of the Treatment students. Furthermore, the Language Attitudes of the Treatment boys and the Control girls began to converge once more by the end of the year, suggesting that Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction must be maintained long-term in order

to sustain tolerant Language Attitudes. This finding suggests that despite participating in bilingual education programs, bilingual students have similar language attitudes to monolingual peers, and that Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction can be effective in improving attitudes towards language, although this instruction must be maintained in order to sustain attitudes over time. In addition, bilingual girls appear to be more attitudinally positive than bilingual boys after receiving instruction. Future language awareness curricula should incorporate more movement into the lessons to facilitate boys' instructional needs, and specifically use movement simultaneous with verbalization to help boys process content and develop empathy (cf. Gurian & Stevens, 2004).

Despite these positive gains among the majority of the Language Attitudes survey items, some items were subject to misinterpretation by students in both groups due to ambiguous wording. Some survey items could avoid ambiguity or misinterpretation if they were reworded. The word “better” in Item 19, FORMAL LANGUAGE IS ALWAYS BETTER THAN INFORMAL LANGUAGE should be replaced with a direct reference to suitability or correctness in order to avoid interpretations of propriety. Item 1, EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME should be reworded to rule out interpretations of monolinguality: “Everyone should speak Spanish [or English] the same way all the time” would clarify the probe for prescriptive ideologies within a specific language.

Based on the misinterpretations of some survey items, and the low gain or negative change on other items, several lesson modifications to the *LVSS* curriculum are recommended. First, future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula must develop a sense of empathy in students towards people who may be victims of linguistic prejudice and linguistic profiling. Despite notions of fairness and social justice, many Treatment students continued

to express negative judgments of other people based on speech. A lesson in Mock Spanish (cf. Hill, 2008) could help these bilingual students understand how being a victim of undeserved prejudice and ridicule is a decidedly unpalatable experience. It is possible that the LVSS curriculum was not completely successful in communicating respect towards all language varieties, *respect* being one of the three components of language awareness programs. Nevertheless, it may be possible to respect another speaker (outwardly) and continue to judge that speaker (inwardly). Therefore, developing lessons that deal with speaker identity, bullying, and profiling may help students learn to control and reject automatic assumptions regarding other speakers.

Secondly, future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula should incorporate more direct references to prescriptive language ideologies that are prevalent in the classrooms and homes of children. Many Treatment students continued to believe that formal language was superior to informal language, and that language in school settings was superior to language in other settings. It is clear that a few lessons cannot dislodge a lifetime of acquired attitudes; however, lessons that directly take into account common assumptions about language purity and correctness may persuade students to question why one language variety is consistently preferred over another, even when they both accomplish the same communicative task.

One of the major findings of the Language Attitude survey items was the existence of contradictory language attitudes, and the existence of attitudes that should be dispelled by Sociolinguistic Knowledge. For example, 58% of the Treatment group rejected the Language Attitudes item I THINK SOME ACCENTS ARE BETTER THAN OTHERS, yet many students believed one variety of English or one variety of Spanish to be superior to another (although accent was not specifically targeted). Additionally, three-fourths of the class rejected the statement

that EVERYONE SHOULD SPEAK A LANGUAGE THE SAME WAY ALL THE TIME, but an overwhelming majority believed formal language to be better than informal language and that school language was the correct kind of language. It is clear that prescriptive language ideologies do not feel contradictory to these students' perceptions of social justice and fairness. This phenomenon may be due in part to the perceived normality and correctness of standard language varieties.

It is surprising that students who believed that everyone speaks his/her native language correctly (approximately three-fourths of the class) would think that dialects are sloppy (about half the class reported this result on Posttest1 and Posttest2, discussed in Chapter 6). In order for these two contradictory ideas to co-exist in the mind of students, the students would have to believe that not everyone speaks a dialect (i.e., only dialect speakers are sloppy). Indeed, five students (Matias, Sebastian, Diego, Emiliano, and Agustin) agreed that everyone speaks a dialect; they agreed that everyone speaks his/her native language correctly, yet they still believed dialects to be sloppy. It is possible that these students did not believe that everyone speaks a dialect *as their native language* (i.e., everyone speaks a sloppy dialect in addition to a correct language)—only then could these contradictory opinions make sense. Future research may investigate why students persist in having negative Language Attitudes despite having Sociolinguistic Knowledge that should negate these opinions. The next chapter offers conclusions and an assessment of the effectiveness of the LVSS curriculum.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Research

This research project is an effort to raise Sociolinguistic Awareness among bilingual students to dismiss erroneous notions that nonstandardized dialects are linguistically inferior. For this project, I have developed, implemented, and evaluated a Sociolinguistic Awareness curriculum for bilingual elementary students, which incorporates research on sociolinguistic variation, dialect awareness instruction, and best practices for elementary education. This study has brought the findings and suggestions of previous language awareness studies' findings into the realm of bilingual education, specifically teaching sociolinguistic concepts to bilingual students to 1) improve their awareness of sociolinguistic diversity in English and Spanish and 2) improve their attitudes towards different language varieties of both languages.

The philosophy embodied in the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders* curriculum is that learning about language variation will help students be more meta-linguistically aware of their own language use and have more positive attitudes towards language variation encountered in other speakers. The Sociolinguistic Awareness approach of the *LVSS* promotes a deeper understanding of sociolinguistic concepts while advocating for increased tolerance and acceptance of linguistic diversity. This curriculum put into practice many of the findings and suggestions advocated for by other researchers (such as Baugh, 1999; Charity, 2008; Godley & Minnici, 2008; Labov, [1969] 1972; Lippi-Green, 1997; Mahboob & Barratt, 2014; Reaser & Adger, 2007; Siegel, 2006; West Brown, 2006, 2009; Wolfram, 1998c, 2014) that argue that “positively framed presentations of language variation hold a greater likelihood of being received than those that directly confront language ideologies considered to be unassailable” (Wolfram, Reaser, & Vaughn, 2000, p. 17). The *LVSS* curriculum accomplishes this goal through presenting dialect and language

differences as a fascinating feature of human language, and by encouraging students to investigate linguistic diversity themselves.

This study focuses on bilingual students because as native speakers of a language other than English, they are under intense scrutiny and pressure to acquire a language that is not their own (Talmy, 2009). Learning a second language is not politically, economically, or socially neutral. Language is one of many factors, such as race and socioeconomic status, that are used to reproduce power imbalances in society. Prejudice towards the language variety that a person speaks can influence access to housing, job placement, educational opportunity, and social mobility (cf. Baugh, 1995; Lippi-Green, 1997; Labov, 1982; Massey & Lundy, 2001; Robinson & Stockman, 2009). The curriculum designed for this investigation is intended to put sociolinguistics to work for social justice by promoting positive perceptions of linguistic diversity within public education. Hence, this project meets Charity's (2008) call for socially oriented linguistics.

This chapter summarizes the major findings of the project and discusses the efficacy of the *Language Variation and Style-Shifting for Fifth Graders* curriculum.

Recommendations for improvement of the unit are made along with recommendations for future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula for bilingual students in the United States.

8.1 Major Findings of This Project

The results presented in this study provide empirical evidence of the effectiveness of using Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula to improve Sociolinguistic Knowledge and improve Language Attitudes of bilingual children. This study adds to a body of research that brings sociolinguistics into educational realms (e.g., Alim, 2005; Baugh, 1999; Godley & Minnici, 2008; Harris-Wright, 1987; Masahito, 2011; Reaser, 2006; Rickford, 1999;

Sweetland, 2006; West Brown, 2006; Yiakoumetti, 2006), and this study extends the research base into English as a Second Language contexts, where issues of language dominance intersect with language learning. Overall, the *LVSS* curriculum was more effective at improving the Sociolinguistic Knowledge of bilingual boys, and it was more effective at improving the Language Attitudes of bilingual girls.

In terms of measuring a change in **Sociolinguistic Knowledge**, there were several major outcomes:

- a) There was a statistically significant difference in the Sociolinguistic Knowledge mean scores of the Treatment and Control groups on all four survey administrations (see §6.3). This difference suggests that the Treatment group participants were more sociolinguistically aware than their Control group peers even before the *LVSS* was taught, which may be due to the pre-existing difference between the two groups regarding language of instruction and superior metalinguistic awareness of bilingual students. If so, this finding has important implications for the maintenance of Dual Language instruction for bilingual students. That is, bilingual students in Dual Language classrooms may have heightened sociolinguistic awareness *because* of the language of instruction in the classroom, or alternatively, they may have heightened sociolinguistic awareness because they are bilingual. In either case, maintaining the native language for speakers of languages other than English appears to have beneficial effects on sociolinguistic knowledge (although further research in this area is needed). Considering that students in the English-only classroom had lower Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores, these students are in particularly dire need of sociolinguistic instruction. Bidialectal students and bilingual students have both been

found to have superior metalinguistic awareness over monolingual (and monodialectal) peers (Papapavlou & Phili, 2009), suggesting that instruction in language variation for all children, even monolingual and monodialectal children, is critical to sustaining and improving cognitive abilities related to language.

- b) There was not a statistically significant difference between the overall mean scores in Sociolinguistic Knowledge of the Treatment group's surveys, or between the Control group's surveys, suggesting that any change in students' answers between the pre- and posttests over time could be due to chance (see §6.3). However, the Treatment group students did show a gain in mean scores on 8 out of 10 Sociolinguistic Knowledge survey items, and three of those individual changes were significant at the 95% level (see §6.5). Arguably, the *LVSS* unit was successful in causing a gain in Sociolinguistic Knowledge for the most part, despite the lack of statistical significance. This lack of statistical significance is likely due to the low sample size; a sample population of 200-300 participants may help address the issue of statistical power in future research.
- c) Only two survey items maintained the Treatment group's gains by the end of the school year, suggesting that Sociolinguistic Knowledge is subject to attrition over time. This finding provides evidence for the need for ongoing Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction, throughout the academic year. These items that did maintain the gains reflect two of the most salient topics of the *LVSS* curriculum: DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS and I CAN GUESS WHERE A PERSON COMES FROM BY LISTENING TO HOW SHE/HE TALKS. In addition, a third item, PEOPLE CAN CHANGE HOW

THEY SPEAK ACCORDING TO THE SITUATION showed an increased gain in Posttest2 and Posttest3 that surpassed the Posttest1 scores (see §6.5.2 and §6.5.4).

- d) Participants in both groups were aware of language issues such as language loss, the vernacularity trajectory, and voice quality change with age. For example, Emmanuel stated in his posttest1 interview that he believed he would speak more formally when he was older, and Mariana thought she might forget her Spanish when she grew up (§6.5.4.3). This previous knowledge base suggests that future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula need not shy away from topics that may appear as too advanced; by the age of 10 or 11, children have already noticed many of the phenomena that linguists dedicate their careers to explaining. It makes sense to share the knowledge base with children as they mature and become aware of the issues.
- e) Overall, the bilingual boys performed better than the bilingual girls in terms of Sociolinguistic Knowledge (§6.4). This could be due to various factors such as teacher gender favoritism or self-efficacy beliefs, or simply superior sociolinguistic awareness among the boys. The steady incline in Sociolinguistic Knowledge was reflected in both sexes of the Treatment group, although the boys performed better than the girls on three out of four surveys. The Control group boys, meanwhile, exhibited a steady decline throughout the school year in the Sociolinguistic Knowledge. While the Control group girls' pattern was less predictable, they also declined in Sociolinguistic Knowledge compared to their pretest scores. Future studies must consider the effect of gender socialization on acquisition of scientific knowledge; in this case, it is possible that the girls displayed lower Sociolinguistic

Knowledge scores because of internalized beliefs regarding girls' abilities in science (e.g., Brotman & Moore, 2008; Schmidt & Nixon, 1996).

In the measurement of **Language Attitudes**, there were several major outcomes:

- a) There was not a statistically significant difference in the survey mean scores of either group over time, suggesting that the change in students' Language Attitudes scores could be due to chance (§7.3). However, the Treatment group did show a gain in the mean scores of 6 out of 10 Language Attitudes items, although these gains were not maintained and none was significant at the 95% level. It can be argued that the *LVSS* curriculum was successful in improving Language Attitudes for the most part (with the notable exceptions of prescriptive attitudes [§7.5.4] and judging the intelligence of other speakers [§7.5.3]). However, the return to Pretest-like levels for these six items indicates that positive language attitudes, when not enforced over time, revert to previous levels. This subsequent loss is a powerful indication of the need for ongoing Sociolinguistic Awareness instruction for elementary school students.
- b) Despite the apparent lack of positive attitudinal maintenance in the Treatment group, a different picture emerges when the girls and boys are disaggregated (§7.4). The girls and boys in both groups started the study at almost identical levels of Language Attitudes, regardless of language of instruction in the classroom; however, the girls in the Treatment group continued to improve their Language Attitudes over the course of the school year, whereas the Treatment boys plateaued. Boys' more intolerant Language Attitudes scores could be due to an underuse of kinesthetic activities, an instructional strategy recommended for boys (Gurian & Stevens, 2004), especially in lessons that dealt with linguistic discrimination. In contrast, the Control boys and girls

appeared to have a similar pattern of declining Language Attitudes over time, until Posttest3 when the Control girls had an unexpected surge in positive attitudes, ending on a comparable level with Treatment boys. This gender distinction begs further research to explain why girls, despite their slightly lower levels of Sociolinguistic Knowledge, have much more tolerant Language Attitudes. For example, for item 14, IT IS OKAY TO THINK SOMEONE IS DUMB BECAUSE OF HOW THEY TALK, two interviewed girls in the Treatment group discussed the unfairness of teasing second language learners for their mistakes, while the interviewed boys believed they should refrain from judgment only because they could be proved wrong (that is, someone could appear dumb but actually be smart) (§7.4.3.2). Further research must explore the connection between bullying behaviors, development of empathy, and how gender socialization intersects with the development of positive language attitudes among boys and girls.

- c) There was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the Treatment and Control groups only on Posttest2 ($p = 0.002$), likely driven by the Treatment girls' continuing upward trend (§7.3).
- d) Some individuals indicated they had experience with linguistically-based discrimination, especially in terms of pre-judging the intelligence of peers who have verbal disabilities and peers who have not yet mastered English. For example, Daniela emphatically stated that students learning English should not be teased (§7.4.3.1). In light of this previous awareness of linguicism and sociolinguistic issues, elementary students prove themselves ready and capable for sociolinguistic instruction.

- e) The two major disappointments in the Language Attitudes subsection of the language survey were the students' persistent prescriptive ideologies (§7.5.4) and continued belief that speaking style is linked to intelligence (§7.5.3). Perhaps these outcomes should not be unexpected, however. The *LVSS* curriculum was attempting to dislodge ideologies and change outlooks with only 18 lessons, whereas the students had been exposed to prescriptive ideologies and judgments of outsiders' speech for the previous ten years of their lives. It is important to acknowledge that believing linguistic prejudice is wrong does not preclude a person from holding language preferences, or from being prejudiced towards others' speech. Indeed, even linguists are not free from "preferences" or ingrained linguistic prejudices. To illustrate, although linguists agree that Standard English is not inherently superior to any other variety of English, Standard English is still required for academic publications.

Collectively considered, the *LVSS* curriculum's outcomes strongly indicate that bilingual students in Dual Language classrooms are interested in learning about language variation and style-shifting, and they are sensitive to language issues that affect their notions of fairness and social justice. The *LVSS* curriculum was successful in improving the Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes of the participants, at least on a short-term basis. These two areas lay the groundwork for motivating native Spanish-speaking students to learn the standard language varieties of both Spanish and English, while also encouraging students to value not only their own community's speech style but the speech styles of other social groups.

It is striking that despite the differing levels of Sociolinguistic Knowledge in the bilingual and the (mostly) monolingual student groups, the students had almost identical

Language Attitudes at the start of the study. This fact suggests that enrollment in a Bilingual Education program does not necessarily lead to more positive language attitudes. Bilingual students may be internalizing negative attitudes and misconceptions regarding language. This trend is an alarming prospect when it comes to language maintenance, given that negative language attitudes have been connected to language shift (Ghuman, 1993; Grosjean, 1982; Portes & Hao, 1998).

A final outcome of the current study concerns a few contradictory results in the Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes survey items. That is, some students gained Sociolinguistic Knowledge that (in theory) should negate intolerant Language Attitudes. For example, Treatment students demonstrated gained knowledge in style-shifting, as measured by the items SOMETIMES SAYING *WHAT'S UP?* CAN BE MORE APPROPRIATE THAN SAYING *HELLO, HOW ARE YOU?* and PEOPLE CAN CHANGE HOW THEY SPEAK ACCORDING TO THE SITUATION. However, the vast majority of Treatment students continued to believe formal and school-based language to be superior to informal language, despite this gained knowledge in style-shifting. In another example, more than half the Treatment class believed dialect speakers to be lazy on Posttest1, but 88% of those same students believed everyone speaks his/her native language correctly. These contradictory opinions may be a case of acquiescence bias, where survey respondents tend to agree with statements presented to them. Future research must uncover whether simple response bias is at work, or something deeper, such as entrenched stigma towards “dialect” speakers, especially in situations where the respondents believe themselves to speak “normally”, as is the case with the current study’s participants.

8.2 Improvement of the LVSS Curriculum

The following improvements for the *LVSS* curriculum are suggested based on the outcomes listed above, including revisions to the lessons, the teacher's guide, and the summative language survey.

Several key revisions to the lessons themselves are recommended. First, the lessons must be re-worked to emphasize empathy and consider linguistic discrimination as a facet of bullying (specifically lessons W2D3: ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT SPEAKERS and W2D4: LINGUISTIC VARIATION IN THE CLASSROOM). Students who responded more positively to the Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons appeared to have a higher level of empathy, that is, understanding others' language learning situations, especially the girls. Research has found that girls are less involved in bullying than boys (discussed below in §8.3). Lessons encouraging empathy may perform better in convincing students to withhold linguistic prejudice towards others who speak differently. Hammond (2006) notes that a child's interactions with a group depend in part on where the child finds herself in the hierarchy of the peers' subculture. Therefore, in order to develop empathy, tolerance, and compassion, children must experience these concepts in concrete ways (pp. 2-3). Hammond considers this the development of "citizenship" in children. To provide opportunities for children to build sensitivity to other people's views, Hammond recommends a cycle of role-plays followed by written and oral persuasion in order for a team of children to reach a consensus regarding a topic or problem. In addition, more activities involving verbalizing while moving could help boys avoid a mental rest state and actively develop empathy. More consideration should be given to how boys acquire and perform their gender identity, cultural aspects of which may be at odds with expressing empathy openly.

For example, lesson W2D3: ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT SPEAKERS could be modified to increase sensitivity to linguistic discrimination by incorporating role-plays and discussions on bullying. A whole-group discussion would begin by discussing what constitutes bullying, and how teasing someone because of his/her speech could fall into that category. Students could be handed scenarios in which linguistically-based bullying has occurred, and students must role-play an effective solution. Students justify the viewpoint of their characters in oral debates and writing. Involving all students in combatting linguistic bullying is important, given that successful anti-bullying programs have found that focusing on the bystanders of bullying is a more successful prevention strategy (cf. Salmivalli, Kaukiainen, & Voeten, 2005).

A second key revision to the LVSS curriculum includes an emphasis on the patterned nature of dialectal differences. Although the Sociolinguistic Knowledge item DIALECTS FOLLOW RULES OR PATTERNS performed well on the Treatment group's posttests (with a 16% gain on Posttest1, with only minimal attrition over time), the interviews showed that some students were confused by the concept of dialects following patterns or "rules". It is clear that some students did not recognize the phonological, lexical, and grammatical differences discussed in specific lessons as *patterns* within the individual dialects. It would be prudent to review the concept of "patterns" with fifth-graders, connecting mathematical patterns often studied in class to language patterns that can easily be observed. It is significant that the Control group performed very poorly on this survey item (with only one student agreeing on Posttest2 and Posttest3). Clearly, Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons should be extended to all students to diminish the misconception that dialects are not rule-governed, with age-appropriate lessons.

Related to the emphasis of the patterning of dialects, lessons that specifically examine the language variation of the students themselves should be added to the curriculum.

Although lesson *W2D4: Linguistic variation in the classroom* included an activity where students interviewed each other for lexical variation, students should be given the opportunity to examine their own speech in more detail. The declining number of Treatment students who believed they had an accent supports this revision (although more Treatment students believed they had accents on Posttest3). Furthermore, the Control group's low performance on the item I HAVE AN ACCENT WHEN I SPEAK MY NATIVE LANGUAGE (only 15% agreed on Posttest2) shows that many students are under the impression that they speak "normal", accent-free speech. It is likely that once students come to recognize themselves as dialect speakers who speak with a distinctive pronunciation, they will be less likely to judge or bully others who have different speech patterns.

Thirdly, the *LVSS* curriculum as a whole must revisit and recycle linguistic terminology introduced to students, such as "formal", "informal", "pronunciation", "vocabulary", and "grammar". Quick, on-the-spot quizzes can be useful warm-ups to review the previous day's terminology. In addition, a cumulative terminology assessment at the end of the unit may give further indication of how well students internalized the linguistic terminology introduced in the lessons. Unfortunately, due to the nature of a Likert survey, it is possible that students who did not remember what "dialects" were could still agree with a survey item such as DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT FROM EACH OTHER BECAUSE OF PRONUNCIATION, VOCABULARY, AND GRAMMAR due to the acquiescence response bias. Therefore, a summative assessment measuring the depth and breadth of terminology

knowledge would do well to supplement data on the gains in Sociolinguistic Knowledge and Language Attitudes.

Finally, the *LVSS* lessons should be revised to encourage students to think critically about prescriptive language ideologies. The students in the current study had a clear sense of social justice and fairness; more must be done to link this pre-existing sensitivity to issues such as the English-only ideology of many educators and parents who believe non-English languages (such as Spanish) are detrimental to academic success. All students, including monolingual students, should be taught to appreciate the amazing linguistic diversity of human beings by recognizing the amazing diversity in their own schools and in their own languages. Recognition may lead to appreciation, which in turn may lead to support and activism. Indeed, more researchers and educators have called for less “celebration” of diversity, but active *support* of diversity. Nieto (2004) argues that all education should be multicultural, and that diversity and difference should not merely be “tolerated” or “accepted”. She argues that true multicultural education is reflective, critical, and affirming. Sociolinguistic Awareness clearly has a role in deconstructing monocultural, color-blind education since the basic premise is to accept all language variation as valid and equally effective at communication.

In addition to these specific lesson revisions, the teacher’s guide should be made more accessible to teachers who do not have linguistic training. In its current form, the teacher’s guide assumes that the instructor is sympathetic to teaching about language variation. The teacher’s guide also follows my own idiosyncratic customs in teaching elementary school students; future versions of the *LVSS* curriculum teacher’s guide must make the step-by-step sequences more comprehensible by reducing wordiness and increasing

visual organization and graphics. For example, procedure explanations need to be visually separated from suggested teacher talk to make the teacher's guide approachable for busy, time-strapped teachers. In addition, the teacher's manual should offer clear, comprehensible wording that teachers can use to discuss sensitive issues such as linguistic discrimination, which can help teachers take on the role of guiding expert (Charity, 2008).

Future versions of the teacher's guide, and the *LVSS* curriculum as a whole, should extend the justification of the teaching of language variation to teachers who may lack linguistic training or who may be resistant to the philosophical position of a curriculum that supports all language forms. This could be achieved in the form of an explicit curriculum framework that explains the purposes of teaching sociolinguistics to elementary school students. A short, readable teacher's introduction to the unit should present the overarching goals of the unit and why these specific goals are important for students' academic progress.

To build teacher's background knowledge on socially-based linguistic diversity, a conversational-style overview could discuss the major areas of where and how sociolinguistic variation occurs. A comparable overview may be written at the appropriate reading level for students to spark interest in the topic. The teacher's guide should also be structured to list the key ideas and terminology for the week, to give advance notice to teachers on the week's objectives. Furthermore, a glossary should be added to both the student workbook and the teacher's guide to support the learning of target terms. An index would help teachers and students quickly locate information.

At the level of individual lessons, the procedures should add pedagogical teaching strategies to help teachers improve their ability to teach about linguistic variation. Teachers need a clear idea of what to expect from students and how to avoid predictable problems.

Possible remedies, along with abundant examples, will increase the likelihood of a lesson's success. For example, lesson *W2D1: Language change: The Lord's Prayer* links the slang of different generations with language change over time. An important discussion to have with students before commencing this lesson would be to distinguish slang from "bad words" or obscenities, since both slang and bad words tend to be ostracized in monitored school settings.

The materials list at the start of each lesson should add specific details, such as the length of video clips and the exact page of children's books, to avoid forcing the teachers to dig through the step-by-step procedures to find this information. A brief description of the material would be useful to teachers who are unfamiliar with the clips or literature used in the lessons. Excerpts from the target children's book should be included in the teacher's guide so the teacher can get an idea of what the text is like and what it is about.

Ultimately, a curriculum teaching about language variation needs to be flexible enough so teachers familiar with the linguistic landscape of their communities can supplement or replace materials to fit their students' realities. In fact, student-produced data should be the cornerstone for the entire curriculum, provided the teachers are given the necessary guidance to lead their students to the analysis of this data.

The teacher's guide should include these revisions in order to meet the content and pedagogical needs of future teachers who may use the *LVSS* curriculum, and to make the curriculum user-friendly for teachers new to teaching language from a linguistics standpoint. Grossman and Thompson (2004) found a correlation between novice teachers and a heavy reliance on a curriculum's materials. More experienced teachers tended to adapt and adjust lessons to fit their students' readiness, and took more liberties with the materials (p. 18). The

heavy reliance on curricula by novice teachers points to the teachers' own ongoing development of content knowledge provided by a curriculum. Therefore, the authors note, curricula can play a crucial role in developing teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge (p. 20-21). *LVSS* and other Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula can play an instrumental role in improving sociolinguistic knowledge and language attitudes not just of children, but their teachers as well.

Finally, the *LVSS* curriculum as a whole should offer increased opportunities for formative assessment so teachers can keep track of students' progress in learning. Students, as experts in language, already have a broad base of knowledge regarding speech, grammar, slang, and linguistic prejudice. Teachers must be able to tap into what students already know in order to modify or supplement specific lessons. For example, many students in the current study indicated awareness of slang. Teachers can pre-teach lesson *W2D1: Language Change* by asking students to think of words and phrases that are primarily used by young people in their communities. The abundance of youth slang can certainly be mined to emphasize how social groups use language as a mechanism for social cohesion and identity formation. Indeed, lexical knowledge is often an indicator of group membership (e.g., Cutler's [2014] study of White Hip-Hoppers who use African-American-styled speech to identify with the Hip Hop Nation).

As discussed in chapters 6 and 7, certain items on the language survey must be revised and retested for internal validity. As the summative assessment for the *LVSS* curriculum, this assessment must reliably measure the intended outcomes of the unit. Ambiguous words must be replaced with specific words, and in some cases, the items must

be completely rewritten to rule out unintended interpretations. The next section discusses recommendations for future sociolinguistics outreach research.

8.3 Recommendations for Future Research

The *LVSS* curriculum is a fruitful start for further research in sociolinguistics instruction for native Spanish-speaking students. Revised and improved versions of *LVSS* should be retested with larger groups of participants, three hundred or more, to confirm the reliability and validity of the lessons and assessments. A broader range of participants should be targeted, such as bilingual students who are not enrolled in Dual Language programs. English Language Learners in Transitional Bilingual Education or English Immersion, along with heritage language learners, also need access to high-quality Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons as well.

The results of this study have confirmed the need for long-term Sociolinguistics Awareness instruction. The Treatment and Control boys' Language Attitudes scores sank by the end of the school year, and the Control group students (both boys and girls) demonstrated lower Sociolinguistic Knowledge scores as the school year progressed. Ongoing instruction may prevent students from forgetting valuable sociolinguistic concepts, and from reverting back to previous language attitudes. Future studies should recruit participants from other grade levels, and in conjunction with a longitudinal study, research should document changing Sociolinguistic Knowledge and changing Language Attitudes as more students are exposed to sociolinguistics over longer periods of time. With a depth and breadth of knowledge of language variation, students will recognize the language patterns of different discourses, academic and non-academic, and style-shift as needed. A longitudinal research study (tracking a cohort of students over several years) would be particularly effective in

measuring how students' appreciation for and creative use of multiple language varieties increases with respectful study of language. Future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula should specifically focus on how language variation represents an expression of the intelligence and creativity of human beings, and how this approach can be effective in increasing academic achievement for all students.

Future researchers may investigate if a stand-alone curriculum is preferable to Sociolinguistic Awareness lessons incorporated into other subject areas such as language arts, spelling, social studies, or mathematics (e.g., Reaser [2006] incorporated a dialect awareness unit into a social studies class, and Sweetland [2006] incorporated linguistically-informed instruction into academic writing). Ultimately, efforts need to be made to link Sociolinguistic Awareness with specific academic achievement outcomes that will prove convincing to parents and district administrators. Ultimately, Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula need to be developed for and taught by classroom teachers who have a deep knowledge and connection to their students, but not just in the lower grades or in the language arts classroom. Teachers of all subject areas and all grade levels should develop respect and understanding for the language variation exhibited not only in their respective subject areas, but also for the beautifully diverse speech of their students. Once students are respected for what they know as opposed to what they lack, real learning can occur for both teachers and students.

In the current study, the differences between girls and boys proved especially striking. Future research should investigate the gender differences in developing respect towards language variation, and focus particularly in developing empathy in boys. The development of positive language attitudes and prosocial behavior is likely connected with children's

personalities and perhaps propensity to bully others. In general, boys are more likely than girls to be bullies (Veenstra et al., 2005), boys are more likely to remain bullies over time (Salmivalli, Lappalainen, & Lagerspetz, 1998), and boys and girls have been found to display different aggression responses related to bullying (Salmivalli & Helteenvuori, 2007; Salmivalli, Lappalainen, & Lagerspetz, 1998). Investigators interested in using linguistics for multicultural and peace education must take into account how improving language attitudes fits into anti-bullying campaigns.

Future Sociolinguistic Awareness curricula should specifically target prescriptive language ideologies in order to promote positive language attitudes towards all language varieties. If certain language varieties are persistently viewed as superior, then prescriptive language ideologies remain unchallenged. The predominance of English over Spanish is especially problematic in the United States; Spanish-speaking students, even in Dual Language programs, are in constant defense mode. The apparent “normalcy” of English in the United States should be deconstructed and challenged, and the linguistically diverse nature of the country recognized.

Linguists should be especially concerned about the ideologies and misconceptions regarding the language varieties they study. As experts who would conceivably command attention and respect, linguists can do much to incorporate respect for linguistic variation in educational policies, content standards, and standardized assessments. Linguists should lobby more for language awareness instruction to be incorporated in educational standards, assessments, and teacher training programs in colleges of Education (Lord & Klein, 2010). Since many policy makers do not have linguistic training and may hold misconceptions regarding “correct” language, it is imperative for linguists to “step up to the plate” and spread

the field's knowledge beyond esoteric journals that require university affiliation or an expensive subscription to access. In order to make the field of linguistics more applicable, linguists must learn to make research findings more accessible to everyone.

It is clear that the field of linguistics has a lot to offer multicultural and anti-racist education. Respect for language variation and linguistic diversity can be an important step in peace-building efforts and improving cultural competence. In an era of ongoing national and international conflicts that stem from ideological differences and cultural stereotypes, the lack of linguistic training can be particularly hindering. Future generations must be taught to be comfortable with diversity, and even affirm it (Nieto, 2004). In a future that includes global warming, it is all the more important for human beings to understand and respect each other as the world's resources become more stressed and more scarce. The persistence of wealth inequality, racism, and xenophobia all point to the dire need for people of all ages to stop pre-judging each other because we belong to different linguistic, cultural, and social groups. Clearly, respecting one another's speech is an important first step in building long-lasting world peace.

8.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the major findings of the study, important revisions that are suggested for the *LVSS* curriculum, and recommendations for future research. Sociolinguistic outreach projects like this one are important to fight against language ideologies that work against ELLs. The current study is an important contribution to the fields of multicultural education, bilingual education, and sociolinguistics. Building sociolinguistic awareness and improving language attitudes should be a major goal for linguists and educators, no matter what their specialization.

Curricula such as *LVSS* are important to develop for several reasons. First, educators should be committed to communicating scientific facts to their students, not harmful social prejudices. Students deserve the truth regarding language differences, and they deserve for their languages, and language varieties, to be respected by all authority figures, not just teachers. Second, teaching linguistics improves educational equity and academic achievement. Students with access to facts regarding language variation should feel no pressure to abandon their home language features in favor of socially prestigious ones. Teachers should feel no need to downgrade a nonstandard and/or non-English speaking student in intelligence. Students' academic achievement is likely to improve when they understand the similarities and differences between school-based language forms and other language forms. Third, teaching linguistics encourages higher-order thinking skills, including hypothesizing, analyzing, and synthesizing. Students uncovering language patterns are engaged in rigorous, scientific inquiry ideally using data from their own communities. Finally, linguistics is important to include in K-12 curricula because the next generation deserves to live in a world free of linguistically-based discrimination (cf. Wolfram, 1998c, pp. 170-172).

Important advances have been made for native English-speaking children, such as Sweetland's (2006) and Reaser's (2006) studies, and practitioner-oriented books such as Wheeler and Swords (2006), West Brown (2009), and Charity Hudley and Mallinson (2011), but more work needs to be done to bring sociolinguistic outreach work into second-language-learning settings, where ELLs are still viewed as deficient in comparison to native English-speaking peers. This project has been an attempt to create materials that teach about language variation in English and Spanish to bilingual students, many of who are in the process of

learning English as a second language. The field of sociolinguistics has much to offer multicultural education to achieve a more equitable, peaceful world that needs (linguistic) diversity to thrive.

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Appendix A: Language Survey

Name _____ Date _____

Answer each question as honestly as possible. Circle one answer for each statement.

1. Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time.	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
2. Some people sound stupid because of how they talk.	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
3. Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
4. People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
5. I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly.	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
6. People who speak dialects are lazy.	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
7. I can guess where a person comes from by	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know

<i>listening to how he/she talks.</i>					
<i>8. People can change how they speak according to the situation.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>9. People from England speak better English than people from the United States.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>10. I have an accent when I speak my native language.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>11. Everyone speaks a dialect.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>12. The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>13. Dialects are sloppy forms of language.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>14. It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Yes, I Agree</i>	<i>No, I Disagree</i>	<i>No, I Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>15. Dialects follow rules or patterns.</i>	<i>Yes, I Strongly</i>	<i>Yes, I</i>	<i>No, I</i>	<i>No, I Strongly</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>

	Agree	Agree	Disagree	Disagree	
16. <i>I think some accents are better than others.</i>	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
17. <i>Sometimes saying "What's up?" can be more appropriate than saying "Hello, how are you?"</i>	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
18. <i>Language is always changing.</i>	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
19. <i>Formal language is always better than informal language.</i>	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know
20. <i>Dialects and slang are the same thing.</i>	Yes, I Strongly Agree	Yes, I Agree	No, I Disagree	No, I Strongly Disagree	Don't Know

Nombre _____ Fecha _____

Contesta cada pregunta lo más honestamente posible. Dibuja un círculo alrededor de una respuesta para cada oración.

1. <i>Todo el mundo debe hablar una lengua en la misma manera todo el tiempo.</i>	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
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2. Algunas personas suenan estúpidas por la manera que hablan.	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
3. Los dialectos son diferentes el uno del otro por la pronunciación, el vocabulario y la gramática.	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
4. La gente de España habla el español mejor que la gente de México.	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
5. Creo que cada persona habla su lengua nativa correctamente.	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
6. La gente que habla dialectos es perezosa.	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
7. Puedo adivinar de dónde es una persona a escuchar cómo habla.	Sí, estoy Completame nte de Acuerdo	Sí, estoy de Acuerdo	No, estoy en Desacuer do	No, estoy Completame nte en Desacuerdo	No Sé
8. La gente puede	Sí, estoy Completame	Sí, estoy	No, estoy en	No, estoy Completame	No Sé

<i>cambiar cómo habla según la situación.</i>	<i>nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Desacuerdo</i>	<i>nte en Desacuerdo</i>	
9. <i>La gente de Inglaterra habla el inglés mejor que la gente de los Estados Unidos.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
10. <i>Tengo acento cuando hablo mi lengua nativa.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
11. <i>Todo el mundo habla un dialecto.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
12. <i>El lenguaje que aprendemos en la escuela es el lenguaje correcto.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
13. <i>Los dialectos son formas de lengua descuidadas.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
14. <i>Está bien creer que una persona es tonta por la manera en que habla.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
15. <i>Los dialectos</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completamente</i>	<i>Sí, estoy</i>	<i>No, estoy en</i>	<i>No, estoy Completamente</i>	<i>No Sé</i>

<i>siguen reglas o patrones.</i>	<i>nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Desacuer do</i>	<i>nte en Desacuerdo</i>	
<i>16. Creo que algunos acentos son mejores que otros.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completa nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuer do</i>	<i>No, estoy Completa nte en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
<i>17. A veces decir “¿Qué onda?” puede ser más apropiado que decir “Hola, ¿cómo está?”.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completa nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuer do</i>	<i>No, estoy Completa nte en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
<i>18. Las lenguas siempre cambian.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completa nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuer do</i>	<i>No, estoy Completa nte en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
<i>19. El lenguaje formal siempre es mejor que el lenguaje informal.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completa nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuer do</i>	<i>No, estoy Completa nte en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>
<i>20. Los dialectos y la jerga son la misma cosa.</i>	<i>Sí, estoy Completa nte de Acuerdo</i>	<i>Sí, estoy de Acuerdo</i>	<i>No, estoy en Desacuer do</i>	<i>No, estoy Completa nte en Desacuerdo</i>	<i>No Sé</i>

Appendix B: Teacher Manual

**TEACHER GUIDE LANGUAGE
VARIATION AND STYLE-SHIFTING FOR
FIFTH GRADERS**

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Week 1 Day 1: What is a language? What is a dialect?

RATIONALE

In this lesson students will understand the terms we will use in this unit: Language and Dialect. Dialect is the term most often confused with 'improper' or 'incorrect' language, while 'language' is understood to be the 'correct' way of talking. Students are taught that a 'language' consists of many dialects, and that everyone speaks a dialect.

OBJECTIVE

Students will identify and give examples of important terms: Language, Dialect.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects, registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

Materials for Instructor

1. Short audio clips of 3 speakers
2. Transparency or overhead copy of 2 column chart

Materials in Student Workbook

1. 2 column graphic organizer
2. chart of 5 different languages
3. chart of 4 different English dialects

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review unit goals: learn about how people speak differently, and what kind of language we need to use at school

Task 1: What 'languages' have we heard of? (5-10 minutes)

Discussion:

We're going to be talking about languages and dialects for the next few weeks. First we want to be able to identify one language from another. Can anyone give me examples of languages? (list on board or chart paper) (e.g., Japanese, English, Russian, etc.)

1. How can we tell one language from another? Usually by listening we can tell if someone is speaking our language or not, because we can understand them. Usually when we don't understand what a person is saying that means they are speaking a different language.

Activity: What language is it?

1. Whole group: Listen to short clips of 3 voices, decide if speaking English or Spanish (Speaker 1: male, English-speaker, from US; Speaker 2: female, Spanish-speaker, not from US; Speaker 3: male, English-speaker, from US)
2. Compare answers with elbow partner, whole group

Task 2: What is a 'Language'? (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Review 3 speakers. The two men were both speaking 'English', but it was clearly two different kinds of English. The lady was clearly speaking Spanish.
2. How do we know the two men were speaking English, and not some other language? Because we understood what they said.

Activity: Identify languages

1. (Pairs in Workbooks): Classify excerpts as English, Spanish, Vietnamese, Arabic, or Portuguese.
2. Compare our answers with whole group
3. Discussion: How did you know which was which? How can we tell they are different 'languages'?
4. Decide on a definition for 'Language' and give example in 2 column chart.

Big Idea

It's pretty easy to categorize languages, like English and Spanish. But what about speakers like the two men, who spoke the same language but spoke it very differently?

Task 3: What is a 'Dialect'? (10-15 minutes)

Discussion

1. Let's listen to the two men again. Do we understand what they're saying? (Ask students to listen for words they understand). How do we know they are not speaking two different languages? (Because we understand what they're saying).

2. Usually, the difference between one language and another is 'intelligibility', or if one speaker can understand another. But that line can be very fuzzy, and can depend on if you've been exposed to that dialect or not. Someone who's never been to Hawaii may not understand the second man as well as someone who grew up in Hawaii.

Activity

The waves at the beach were heaps good. (the waves were really good)
I didn't go nowhere.
He is always working.
He neva like dat. (He didn't want that. (or) He never wanted that. (or) He didn't like that)
It's a sair fecht. (It's a real struggle/It's hard going)

1. Let's look at a chart of sentences. Work in pairs to decide if the sentence is English or not. (Answer: All. 1 = Australian English; 2 = American English; 3 = American English; 3 = Hawaiian English; 4 = Scottish English)
2. Compare answers with whole group
3. Are of all these 'English'? How do we know?
4. What is each sentence saying? Do we understand all of it? Which ones do we understand completely, and which ones do we not understand?

5. These are all dialects of English, which means different kinds of English that together make up the English language.
6. Decide on a definition for 'Dialect' and give examples in 2 column chart.

Big Idea

It's easier to understand Dialects we are familiar with. If we were familiar with the other Dialects (like if we lived in that area or had friends who spoke that way), we would get to understand the other Dialects too.

Closure/Re-state Big Ideas (1-5 minutes)

What's the difference between a Language and a Dialect? (In general, languages are so different you can't understand one unless you're a speaker of. In general, dialects are similar enough that even if you don't speak it, you can understand much of it.)

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Language identification
2. 2 column chart definitions and examples

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

Ask students to find more examples of 'dialect' in books in classroom. Wherever students find language, they find dialect.

Week 1 Day 2: How dialects differ: Vocabulary

RATIONALE

This lesson introduces students to how dialects follow rules or patterns that relate to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. This lesson focuses on vocabulary differences among regions and groups, with a special emphasis on the difference between slang and jargon.

OBJECTIVE

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will be able to give examples of slang and jargon.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

Materials for Instructor

1. Transparency or overhead copy of 3 column chart to fill out with students
2. Liza Lou and the Yeller Belly Swamp

Materials in Student Workbook

1. 3 column chart
2. pronunciation chart
3. vocabulary pictures
4. grammar pictures

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review unit goals: learn about how people speak differently, and what kind of language we need to use at school

2. Review big ideas from last session: What's the difference between a Language and a Dialect? (In general, languages are so different you can't understand one unless you're a speaker of. In general, dialects are similar enough that even if you don't speak it, you can understand much of it.) Task 1: How can we tell one dialect from another? (20-25 minutes)

Discussion:

1. How can we tell one dialect from another? How do we know people speak differently?
2. There are three ways dialects differ: pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Today we are going to focus on vocabulary differences between dialects.

Activity: Identify differences in dialects

1. VOCABULARY. People often have different words to say the same things. (Look at examples in workbook together.)
2. List words you've heard to say the same things (Task in workbook, can do in English or Spanish or both).
3. What is 'vocabulary'? List a definition and give examples in second column of chart.

4. What is SLANG? (Give examples, define: vocabulary specially used for informal situations [bro, dude, wassup, etc].) What is JARGON? (Give examples, define: vocabulary specially used for formal situations [sum, divide, fraction, equivalent, etc.]).
5. Ask students to think of other examples of SLANG and JARGON (workbook)
6. Read aloud Liza Lou and the Yeller Belly Swamp; identify vocabulary from Swamp Haunt section

Big Idea

Dialects are different according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. 3 column chart: student definitions and examples of Pronunciation, Vocabulary and Grammar
2. Whole-group discussion

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to find/think of examples of Slang versus Jargon.

Week 1 Day 3: Differences between dialects: Pronunciation

RATIONALE

Students continue developing their understanding that everyone speaks a dialect and that dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. This lesson focuses on pronunciation differences, with a discussion of 'accent'.

OBJECTIVE

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will identify words that differ in pronunciation.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

Materials for Instructor

1. Harry Potter box set
2. Transparency or overhead copy of PVG definitions worksheet
3. Transparency or overhead copy of Hagrid's speech chart
4. Three 'Comma Gets a Cure' tracks loaded onto iPod Shuffles for group-work (New Mexico, California, New Jersey)

Materials in Student Workbook

1. PVG worksheet
2. DCT task
3. 'Comma Gets a Cure' worksheet

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Dialects are different according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Because we all speak with our own pronunciation, our own vocabulary, and our own grammar, we all speak dialects.

Task 1: How is pronunciation reflected in writing? (5-10 minutes)

Discussion:

1. PRONUNCIATION. Today we're going to talk about how dialects differ according to pronunciation, or the way we pronounce words. Has any one read the Harry Potter books? There is a character, Hagrid the giant, who has a special pronunciation, which the author tries to represent through spelling.

Activity: Identify spelling that represents pronunciation

1. TASK: In small groups, scan the Harry Potter books for examples of Hagrid's speech. Write the page number, the quote, and try to 'translate' it to standard English.
2. Ask students for examples they found. (HINT: Book 1 p. 47; Book 2 p.

3. Why is Hagrid's speech spelled differently from the other characters'? For example, Hagrid says 'yer' for 'your' and 'yeh' for 'you', and 'an' for 'and'.
4. Does the author do this with characters like Harry? Why or why not? (maybe she wants Harry to appear 'normal', and Hagrid to appear 'different')

Big Idea

Authors sometimes represent a character's speech through different spelling patterns.

Task 2: Identify pronunciation differences (15-20 minutes)

Discussion

1. Let's listen to some speakers. They're all reading the same short story, 'Comma Gets a Cure', so they'll have the same grammar and the same vocabulary. We're going to focus on their pronunciation, and decide which words they pronounce differently.

Activity

1. Each group of 2 or 3 students shares an iPod Shuffle. Students listen to each of the three speakers, and together they complete step 1 and 2, and then share out answers.
2. STEP ONE: Listen to the three speakers telling the story. As you listen, write down words you think they pronounce in an interesting way (each speaker will probably have different words).
3. STEP TWO Share your words with your partner(s), and together identify at least 3 words that the speakers all say differently (should be same words from each speaker)
4. Share words whole group
5. If we were to represent their pronunciation with spelling, how could we do that? (Try 'spelling out' the pronunciation of the speakers' words).
6. Sometimes, writers will try to reflect a character's pronunciation by spelling it differently. In English, words aren't always written the way they are pronounced. (Example: was versus wuz, said versus sed, got you versus gotcha, gotchoo, etc).

Task 3: Define pronunciation (5-10 minutes)

1. What is 'pronunciation'? List a definition and give examples in first column of chart (from Day 2 Student Workbook). Kind of like ACCENT. Does everyone have their own pronunciation? (Yes) Everyone has an accent.

Closure/Re-state Big Ideas (1-5 minutes)

1. Pronunciation is often called 'Accent', and it means the way a person pronounces words. Many times a person's accent reflects where that person is from.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Student's ability to distinguish different Pronunciation of speakers
2. Student's discourse completion task answers

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to think of other words that writers may try to change the spelling of to reflect pronunciation of characters
2. Ask students to think of other examples of pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar differences.

Week 1 Day 4: Differences between dialects: Grammar

RATIONALE

Today's lesson continues to develop students' understanding of the three ways dialects differ: pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar, with a focus now on grammar.

OBJECTIVE

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will identify how verb forms differ in Spanish dialects.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

Materials for Instructor

1. Copy of worksheets
2. Chart paper/board
3. Paddington Bear

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Identify differences in dialects: P, V, or G?
2. Worksheet: Spanish verb forms
3. Worksheet: Dialects 3 column chart

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Pronunciation differences are often represented by authors through spelling. Many words in English are not spelled the way they are pronounced.
2. Today we're going to continue our discussion on how dialects differ. We've already seen that dialects differ because of the vocabulary they use and because of the pronunciation. Today we will look at another important way that dialects differ, their grammar.

Task 1: What are grammar differences? (5-10 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Before we start, let's get an idea of what we mean by grammar. I'm going to read aloud a section from Paddington Bear. It's about a bear that appears one day in Paddington Station in England, and a family decide to adopt him. In this part of the book, the family is taking Paddington Bear home. (read aloud taxi ride section).
2. The taxi driver says something interesting. He says "Bears is extra" and "Cream and jam all over me coat". (write on board or chart paper). The pattern here is "IS" for plural nouns, when in Standard English we would say "ARE"; instead of "me coat" Standard English would say "my coat". These are two examples of grammar differences.

Activity: Sentences that mean the same thing

1. Let's look at the sentences in our workbook, under each picture. The two sentences are saying the same thing, but they say it differently. What are the words the two sentences use differently?
2. They are saying the same thing, but how are they different? (They use different words, not just vocabulary, but verbs and stuff too.)

Big Idea

Grammar differences between dialects are one more way we can tell them apart. Neither grammar pattern is better than another, they are just different.

Task 2: Verb form comparison (15-20 minutes)

Discussion

1. Spanish is a language that has many different dialects. Many of these dialects have different verb forms. Let's look at some verbs to see how they are different.

Activity

1. In pairs, take a few minutes to read the sentences. Circle the differences you see in the sentences.
2. Share out answers. Discuss the pattern in each sentence (vosotros vs uds; vos vs. tú; -nos vs. -mos; parkear vs. estacionar)
3. Is one grammar pattern better than another? Why not? They each communicate what the speaker wants to say, so linguistically they are equal.
4. What about the Spanish from Spain? Is it better than the Spanish from other places? Why not?
5. What about the English from England? Is it better than what we speak here in the US? Why not?

Big Idea

Dialects differ according to grammar patterns. One grammar pattern is not better than another since they fulfill the needs of the speaker.

Task 3: Define Grammar (5 minutes)

1. List a definition of Grammar and give examples in third column of chart.

Task 4: Identify dialect differences (10 minutes)

1. Identify if difference is Pronunciation, Vocabulary, or Grammar. Partner work. Share answers whole class.
2. (1 = vocab; 2 = grammar; 3 = grammar; 4 = pronunciation; 5 = pronunciation; 6 = grammar).

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Grammar identification worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more grammar differences.

Week 2 Day 1: Language Change: Lord's Prayer

RATIONALE

This lesson gives students an opportunity to think critically about what is 'correct' or 'incorrect' language from the perspective of language change. This lesson introduces students to the fact that language is always changing: pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar all change over time.

OBJECTIVE

Students will examine dialect differences (PVG) from the perspective of language change. Students will identify words in English that have changed over time.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

Materials for Instructor

1. Three tracks loaded onto iPods:
2. OE Lord's Prayer 11th century English
<http://youtu.be/7Wl-OZ3breE>
3. Middle English Lord's Prayer:
<http://youtu.be/FM2ThezuzII>
4. 18th-19th century Lord's Prayer:
<http://youtu.be/7WYiOlFa8e8>

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: The Lord's Prayer

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Grammar is the third way that dialects differ from each other, along with Vocabulary and Pronunciation. Grammar patterns are not better than one another, they are just different.

Task 1: Slang and Language Change (5-10 minutes)

Discussion:

1. We know that dialects are different in three ways: pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. When we talked about Pronunciation, we talked about SLANG and JARGON, which are both special sets of vocabulary used by certain groups. Often, slang changes from one generation to another. For example, young people nowadays often say 'tight' or 'cool', but 30 years ago people used to say 'groovy' or 'right-on'.
2. Look at the list of Slang words. What slang have you heard nowadays? What slang do you never hear?

Task 2: The Lord's Prayer and Language Change (20-25 minutes)

Discussion

1. We know that language changes as years pass, so that the way one generation talks will be different from the next. As many, many years pass, the language changes so much that we have difficulty understanding or reading very old varieties of the language from many, many generations ago. An example is here in the Lord's Prayer.

Activity:

1. Let's listen to the three tracks on the iPods. As you listen, circle the words you understand.
2. What words did you circle? What words did you not understand at all? Does it look like English to you? Does it sound like English?
Which words do they recognize?
(todaeg, nama, heofonum)
Where do they see possible cognates?
hlaf = loaf, gyltas = guilt, etc. rich = reich/kingdom, not rich
Runic writing, Difficult to understand
3. Let's listen to another version of the Lord's Prayer, this time from the year 1390. Again, circle the words you recognize.
Readable (closer to ME than OE) Latinate vocabulary (delyuere, substaunce, dettouris)
Cognates: dettis = debts
4. What words did you circle? What words did you not circle? Does it look like English to you? Does it sound like English?
5. Let's listen to one more version of the Lord's Prayer, from the 19th century. Once again, circle the words you recognize.

6. Did anyone circle more words in the third one than the first one? Why do you think that is? (the language is more similar to the English we speak). Do you think if we could travel back in time to the 11th or the 14th century, that people would understand us? Would they tell us to talk correctly?

Big Idea

Language is always changing. Pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar do not stay the same over many generations.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Lord's Prayer word recognition

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm what English or Spanish slang will look or sound like in the future.

Week 2 Day 2: Language Change: Appendix Probi

RATIONALE

This lesson gives students an opportunity to think critically about what is ‘correct’ or ‘incorrect’ language from the perspective of language change. This lesson reinforces the concept that what may be regarded as an ‘error’ today may be considered ‘correct’ in the future.

OBJECTIVE

Students will critically examine the concepts of ‘correct’ language and ‘incorrect’ language from the perspective of language change.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

Materials for Instructor

1. *Woe is I Jr*, by Patricia T. O’Conner

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Appendix Probi

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Language is always changing. Pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar change over time.

Task 1: Language Prescriptivists (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to continue our discussion about language change and dialect differences. I want to show you this book I was reading, *Woe Is I Jr*, a guide to better English. This book is all about what language to use and what language NOT to use. The author has a chapter on contractions (explain concept of contractions quickly—read-aloud p. 68-69). She divides them into two categories (p. 70): 'Respectable' and 'Disreputable'.
2. The author includes a list of contractions that she doesn't like, and she calls them 'grammatical horrors'. (Give a few examples from her list). She claims they are clumsy and awkward in writing, so we should never write them, but it's okay to say them. Do you agree? Why or why not?
3. Her list of words not to write made me think of another list I've seen, only this one is from many, many years ago.

4. Appendix Probi is from 200 or 300 AD, so at least 1,700 years ago. It is a list of words that the author thinks people shouldn't say. At the time, people spoke Latin, but not everyone spoke Latin the same way, just like not everyone speaks English or Spanish the same way. Probus wanted people to speak 'correctly', just like the author of *Woe Is I Jr*. wants everyone to speak English the same way.

Activity:

1. Let's take a look at some of Probus' examples. He says *musivum non museum*, which means he thinks people should say 'musivum' and not 'museum'.
2. In pairs, try to guess the modern Spanish and the modern English words for the rest of Probus' examples.
musivum non museum (museo/museum)
camera non cammara

3. If you heard someone say ‘auctor’ instead of ‘autor’, would you think they were correct or incorrect? Why? (‘autor’ is the word we commonly hear—no one ever says ‘auctor’ anymore).
4. Does language stay the same or does it change? (It changes). Sometimes the words that some people think are ‘incorrect’ will end up being the ‘correct’ words in the future, and no one even remembers the original word.

Big Idea

Language always changes, and we can’t stop language from changing. What is considered a mistake today may be considered correct tomorrow.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Appendix Probi worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm words that are considered ‘incorrect’ now that could be ‘correct’ in the future

Week 2 Day 3: Speech and Identity

RATIONALE

Students learn what kind of social information can be guessed or assumed about a person from the way they speak, and how this can lead to linguistic discrimination. This lesson gives students an opportunity to verbalize assumptions they may have about speakers. Students will recognize that a person's voice can tell us a lot about who they are (in terms of social categories like sex, age, etc.)

OBJECTIVE

Students will understand that social information can be extracted from speech, and that people make assumptions about a speaker according to their speech.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

Materials for Instructor

1. Audio files of 3 speakers
2. Short audio clips of various speakers loaded onto iPods
3. Access to video player/ projector:
YouTube video: Fair Housing Announcement:
<http://youtu.be/zup2qlFuCDc>
4. Overhead transparency or copy of Semantic Differential scale

Materials in Student Workbook

1. worksheet: determine speaker social characteristics
2. Semantic Differential scale for 3 different speakers
3. iPod Shuffles loaded with same 3 speakers

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session:
Appendix Probi: what was once considered incorrect may be considered correct in the future because of language change. Language is always changing.

Task 1: The connection between speech and identity (10-15 minutes)

Discussion

1. When we listen to a person's voice, what can we guess about that person?

Activity

1. Listen to short clips of voices, decide if its M/F, speaking E/Sp, old/young, where are they from
(Speaker 1: male, English---speaker, from Puerto Rico, mid age; Speaker 2: female, English---speaker, from US, young; Speaker 3: male, English--- speaker, from US, old)
2. Compare answers with elbow partner, whole group

Big Idea

Our speech carries social information about who we are

Task 2: What is linguistic discrimination? (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. We talked about assumptions that people make about others only by listening to a speaker's voice. Those assumptions can be positive or negative.

2. What is 'discrimination'? What does this word mean?
3. Is it possible to discriminate against someone by the way they speak? Why or why not?

Activity: Linguistic Discrimination Video

1. We're going to watch a video about a man looking for an apartment. Listen to the way he talks, and how the lady on the other end of the phone responds.
2. (Watch video)
3. What happened in the video? Why do you think that happened? Does this sort of thing happen in real life?

Task 3: What assumptions do we make about people when they talk? (20-25 minutes)

Discussion:

1. We can often guess where a person is from, if they're male or female, their age, and maybe other things about a person depending on how they speak. What other assumptions can we make about people according to the sound of their voice?

Activity: Semantic Differential Scale

1. Listen to same 3 speakers on iPods

2. Fill out Semantic Differential scale for speaker as you listen
3. Compare answers in pairs after each speaker
4. Compare answers whole group after all three speakers. What assumptions did we make about them?

Big Idea

Listeners make other assumptions about speakers according to the sound of their voice. These assumptions can be negative or positive.

Closure/Re-state Big Ideas (1-5 minutes)

1. People speak differently
2. There is a connection between the way a person talks and the identity they possess/express.
3. We're going to learn about people speak differently, and what kind of language we need to use in school.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Semantic Differential scales
2. Student impressions of 3 speakers
3. Whole-group discussion
4. Pair work

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to think of other assumptions about the speakers that were not reflected on the Semantic Differential scales. Ask them to explain their impressions.
2. Listen to voices (on the radio, for example) and try to guess characteristics about that speaker.
3. Have students bring in CDs of favorite singers, the rest of the class has to guess social characteristics about the singer.

Week 2 Day 4: Linguistic Fieldwork

RATIONALE

In this lesson, students get a chance to do linguistic fieldwork by interviewing each other for variations in vocabulary and syntax. Students get an immediate taste of vocabulary differences and syntax differences. Students recognize in this lesson that they already know a lot about dialect/language variation. Teachers will get a sense of where students think people speak differently.

OBJECTIVE

Students will show previous knowledge of regional dialect variation by drawing dialect boundaries on maps. Students will recognize the connection between speech and identity. Students will interview classmates to discover language variation in their own classroom.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

Materials for Instructor

1. Transparency or overhead copy of elicitation worksheets

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Language elicitation sheets in workbook
2. Language elicitation sheets for homework
3. 2 maps of NM

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from previous lesson: people make assumptions about others based on how they speak. Assumptions can be positive or negative.

Task 1: Perceptual Dialectology Maps (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Does everyone speak the same way? Do people in New Mexico speak the same way as people in Mexico, or California, or New York City? How can you tell?

Activity

1. (Individual in Workbooks): DRAW ON A MAP of the state of NM places where you think people's English/Spanish sounds different. Next, write down what you'd call that way of talking, if you can think of a label for it. Give an example of what's different there (is it a word or pronunciation they use? Or a special way of talking?)
2. Compare our maps with elbow partner, whole group share

Big Idea

So, do we think everyone speaks the same way?
What evidence do we have to support our position?

Task 2: Linguistic Fieldwork: Surveying each other (10-15 minutes)

Activity

1. Now we're going to survey each other to see what kinds of words our classmates use for different items. You can survey your classmates in English, Spanish, or both. Write down the words they use for those items in the chart. Our goal is to see how much diversity and variation we can find in our own classroom.

2. Students survey each other. Share answers whole group.
3. Even in our own small group of people we have amazing linguistic diversity. Isn't that cool? No one is right or wrong, it's just different ways of talking about the same thing.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Student-produced dialect maps
2. Whole-group discussion

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Try dialect variation maps with a map of US or a map of the world
2. What other items do we use different words for?

Week 3 Day 1: Introduction to Style-Shifting

RATIONALE

This lesson introduces the distinction between formal and informal language, and asks students to identify formal and informal language. Like clothing, students understand that language can be appropriate or inappropriate to a situation.

OBJECTIVE

Students will understand that while all language varieties are correct because they follow rules, sometimes one variety is not appropriate in a certain context.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3 Use knowledge of language and its conventions when writing, speaking, reading, or listening.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3a Expand, combine, and reduce sentences for meaning, reader/listener interest, and style.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.3b Compare and contrast the varieties of English (e.g., *dialects*, *registers*) used in stories, dramas, or poems.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade---appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases.

Materials for Instructor

1. Copies of formal and informal worksheets.
2. My teacher is an alien copies

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Do you always say the same thing every time?
2. Worksheet: Formal and Informal English/Spanish
3. Worksheet: Formal and Informal definitions

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Even in our own classroom there is a lot of linguistic variation in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.
2. Today we're going to talk about how people change the way they speak to match who they are talking to and where they are. I'm going to give you an example from a book called *My Teacher is an Alien*. In this part, Susan finds out from her principal that her teacher isn't coming back to teach them. (read aloud pp. 6-8).

3. Here, Susan had to change her language. Instead of saying “excuuuuse me” she asked very politely. Why did she do that? (she was talking to the principal).

Task 1: Clothing Analogy (5-10 minutes)

Discussion and Activity:

1. Today we’re going to think about linguistic discrimination in a different way. But first let’s talk about shoes for a minute. In your workbook you have a list of places where you can wear shoes. Take a minute to list as many kinds of shoes that you can wear to these places as possible.
2. Share whole group
3. Let’s talk about high heels for a minute. Can I wear high heels to the grocery store? Sure, but it may not be practical since I’ll be walking around a lot. What about to a wedding? Definitely. To school? Yes, lots of women wear high heels to school. What about to the beach? Why wouldn’t I want to wear high heels to the beach? Would I have a hard time walking around in the sand?

4. Is there anything ‘incorrect’ about high heels themselves? Is it accurate to say that high heels are ‘incorrect’? Maybe a better term would be ‘inappropriate’, since there’s nothing wrong with high heels themselves, it just wouldn’t be practical to wear them around the beach.

Task 2: How do you say ‘hello’? (5-10 minutes)

Discussion and Activity

1. Now we’re going to do the same thing, but with language. Take a minute to brainstorm as many kinds of ways of saying ‘hello’ to someone in these situations.
2. Share whole group

3. Let's look at some of these examples. It is okay to say 'what's up?' at the beach? Sure. At school? Maybe it depends on who you're talking to. Who would we say what's up to at school, and who would be NOT say that to? Maybe sometimes it's not the place that matters, but who we are talking to. Maybe it's a combination of both place and person— could you say what's up to your teacher if you saw them at the beach? What about the grocery store? Would you say 'what's up' to a clerk you've never met before? Maybe not, since they're a stranger. What if you knew that person really well and saw them often? What about a wedding? Could you say 'what's up' to the bride and groom? What if you didn't know them, what else would you say?
4. Is there something 'incorrect' or 'wrong' about 'what's up'? It works perfectly well in some situations, like flip-flops at the beach. But it doesn't ALWAYS work, does it? Like high heels at the beach, sometimes 'whats-up' or 'How are you' can be inappropriate to the situation.
5. This means that we have to be aware of where we are and who we're talking to, to use language appropriately.

Task 3: Appropriate Language: Formal vs Informal (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Let's continue our discussion about language that can be appropriate to one situation and inappropriate to another. But first we need to think of the different ways we communicate the same idea.

Activity:

1. Let me ask you a question. Do you speak the same way to everyone, every time? How do you know?
2. Let's take a look at our workbook, "Do you speak the same way every time?" Take a minute in pairs to fill out what you would say in each situation.
3. Share whole group
4. Why did we speak differently to the teacher and to the classmate? (Because it was appropriate to the audience, the place, and the task. It was appropriate). How would your teacher react if you spoke very informally to her / him? How would your friend react if you spoke very formally to him / her?

Big Idea

We need to follow the language pattern that is appropriate to where we are, who we are talking to, and what we are doing. We speak formally in formal situations and informally in informal situations.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Formal vs informal worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more features of formal and informal English / Spanish.

Week 3 Day 2: Formal vs. Informal Language

RATIONALE

This lesson continues the distinction between formal and informal language, and asks students to identify formal and informal language. Students also have the chance to write definitions of formal and informal language, explaining where, with who, with what topics, and why formal and informal language appear.

OBJECTIVE

Students will define and give examples of formal and informal language.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade---appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases,

Materials for Instructor

1. Copy of DON'T SAY AINT (Leave other copies in classroom for free reading time)
2. Chart paper

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Formal and Informal English/Spanish
2. Worksheet: Formal and Informal definitions

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Where we are and who we are with can drive our language decisions. This is called style-shifting.

Task 1: Definitions of formal and informal (15-20 minutes)

Discussion

1. We know we need to speak formally to the teacher, because we're in school and we're learning. But how can we tell the difference between formal and informal language?

2. What is 'formal' language? (Ask for examples). What is informal language? (Ask for examples).

Activity

1. In pairs, take a few minutes to decide if each sentence in the two boxes, English and Spanish, are formal or informal language.
2. Share out answers
3. How do you know it's formal or informal?
4. Definitions. In pairs, decide where, with whom, what topics, and why we speak or write formally or informally.

Big Idea

Language can be formal or informal, and both are correct, but formal language is usually used in formal situations. Informal language is usually used in informal situations.

Task 2: Read Aloud 'Don't Say Ain't' (20 minutes)

Discussion and Activity: Read Aloud

1. We're going to read a book about a girl who is told she talks incorrectly sometimes. Listen to the story, and while you listen think of what we just talked about, in terms of appropriate and inappropriate language.
2. Read story aloud
3. Where was it okay for her to say AINT? To whom was it okay to say AINT? Where was it not okay? To whom was it not okay? What did she discover about her teacher? (Her teacher used AINT when not at school). (List this in a chart: WHERE/WHO).
4. Let's talk about AINT and IS NOT. Are either of these 'wrong' or 'incorrect'? Some people may say it is **incorrect**, but what they really mean is that one is **inappropriate** to where you are and who you're talking to.
5. Is AINT formal or informal? How do you know? Is IS NOT formal or informal? How do you know?

Big Idea

Sometimes when people say language is wrong or incorrect, they really mean it is inappropriate to the situation.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Formal vs informal worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

3. Ask students to brainstorm more features of formal and informal English / Spanish.

Week 3 Day 3: Lingua Franca

RATIONALE

This lesson gives students an opportunity to understand why a standard dialect is useful to know, i.e., for communication between diverse groups. Students continue the discussion of formal versus informal, and use the framework ‘appropriate/inappropriate’ to decide if the standard dialect is appropriate in all situations or not.

OBJECTIVE

Students will understand that standard dialects are useful for communication BETWEEN groups, while many other dialects are used for communication WITHIN groups. Students will identify situations where the standard dialect is appropriate, and will scan books for examples of Standard English and Standard Spanish.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade-- appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases,

Materials for Instructor

1. A series of Unfortunate Events book 1:
Diary of Wimpy Kid book 1
2. Chart: 4 circle Venn diagram.

Materials in Student Workbook

3. Worksheet: Is the standard dialect appropriate here?
4. Chart: 4 circle Venn diagram.

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Formal versus informal language. Sometimes when people say ‘incorrect’ language, they really mean inappropriate to the situation.

Task 1: Language affects what the audience thinks about a topic (20-25 minutes)

Discussion

1. I want to read you a short section from two different books: *Diary of a Wimpy Kid* and *A Series of Unfortunate Events*. We're going to compare the kind of language we hear in each. (Read aloud *Wimpy Kid: Cheese Touch* section, pp. 8-10; *Series: death of parents* section, pp. 6-10).
2. Which would you say is formal? Informal? Why? What kinds of words does each author use to make you think that? Who is the audience for the books? How does the formal tone in *Series* or the informal tone in *Diary* affect the way we think about the characters? (Greg is very casual; he's intelligent but doesn't want you to think so; Violet, Klaus and Sunny are not so casual, kind of super-intelligent and not afraid of it).

Big Idea

The formality or informality of the language can influence what we think about the topic.

Task 2: Appropriateness of standard dialects (10-15 minutes)

Discussion: Audience expectations and appropriateness

The authors influence our ideas about the characters by the kind of language they use. Sometimes the audience expects a certain kind of language, and that will influence what kind we use. For example, if Greg started talking as formally as the Baudelaire children, it might sound weird to us because we expect Greg to be casual and informal. Likewise, if Violet and Klaus started talking informally, we would think it was weird because it's not their personalities to do that. For Greg to speak formally in his diary is not APPROPRIATE—it doesn't match the context.

Activity: Standard is one among many dialects

1. Chart: 4 circle Venn diagram. Fill in the middle section with STANDARD. This is the kind of English or Spanish that everyone learns at school, so we can all understand each other. Fill in the outside circles with other dialects, like Mexican Spanish, New Mexican Spanish, Colombian Spanish, and Spain Spanish. Someone can speak one of these dialects and also the Standard dialect. You speak a certain dialect at home, and you learn Standard Spanish at school. Same thing with English: we speak a certain English dialect with friends or family, and we learn Standard English at school.

2. While different dialects can be heard in different regions or by different groups of people, a ‘Standard’ is the kind of language that everyone can learn. In fact, ‘standard’ is the kind of English or Spanish that we learn at school, and is often used for ‘formal’ situations. Also, a lot of people think ‘Standard’ is the only ‘correct’ language kind there is, but in fact all language is ‘correct’, it just may not be ‘appropriate’.

Activity: Is the Standard appropriate or not?

1. The words in bold are in Standard English. Look at the three situations, and decide if the words in bold would be appropriate in that situation or not. Circle YES or NO
2. Ask volunteers to share their answers whole group, and to justify responses

Big Idea

The ‘standard’ is useful for different groups to talk to each other, which is why we learn it in school. School helps us learn to communicate with many different groups of people.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to think of other examples of words/phrases that may be appropriate to one context but inappropriate to another
2. Ask students to identify other situations where the standard dialect is useful for communication between groups

Week 3 Day 4: Style-shifting Obama

RATIONALE

This lesson introduces students to the concept of ‘indexing’, that is, using one’s speech to convey a particular attitude or group loyalty. Students listen to Barack Obama in two contexts, a formal one (his 2008 victory speech) and an informal one (ordering a hamburger in a restaurant), and debate why he speaks differently on both occasions. Students have an opportunity to examine their own style---shifting abilities, and define the concept with examples.

OBJECTIVE

Students will define and give examples of style---shifting, that is, changing one’s speech to match the context and audience expectations.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade---appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases,

Materials for Instructor

1. iPods loaded with Obama speeches: 1) victory speech 2008; 2) ordering a hamburger with the president of Russia. Copies/overheads of student worksheets

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Obama’s English
2. Worksheet: Associations
3. Worksheet: Defining Style-shifting wheel

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Standard dialect as a way to communicate between groups, usually in FORMAL situations.

Task 1: President Obama style-shifting (15-20 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to listen to someone use formal and informal language, based on where he is and what he's doing. Let's listen to President Obama doing two different things: in the first recording, he is in Chicago in 2008 and has just won the presidential election. In the second recording, he is in a restaurant with the president of Russia ordering a hamburger. We're going to listen to see how Obama changes the way he talks in each situation.

Activity: Listening to Obama

1. First I want you to listen to both of the tracks, and decide with your partner how Obama talks differently in each one. Next, listen to the tracks again, and while you listen, write down things that he says that seem appropriate to the situation. (Give example if necessary, demonstrate on a chart).
2. Share examples of language Obama uses in restaurant and at victory speech.

3. How would you describe Obama in his victory speech in 2008? What words would we use to describe him? (confident, formal, decisive) What words would you use to describe him when he orders the hamburger? (informal, indecisive, flippant)
4. Why do you think Obama sounds formal and decisive in his victory speech? (He wants to sound like a strong leader) Why do you think he sounds informal and indecisive in the restaurant? (He hasn't thought hard about the pickles he wants, maybe the decision doesn't really matter).
5. What would happen if Obama sounded informal and indecisive in his victory speech? What would people think of him if he said 'uh, uh' or 'I dunno, lemme think' in his victory speech? Would people have confidence in him? Why or why not? Why does Obama speak formally in his speech, and informally in the restaurant? Why doesn't he speak formally in both places?

Big Idea

People form ideas about each other based on how they talk. We call these ideas ‘associations’. Sometimes we want people to have a certain idea of us, so we speak a certain way in order to convince them. In the same way, Obama decides to speak very formally and to sound decisive in his victory speech to convince people they made a right choice in voting for him. At the hamburger restaurant, he wants to convince people that he’s calm and relaxed and can order a hamburger just like anyone else, and it’s no big deal. There are ASSOCIATIONS we make about him when he talks.

Obama ordering a hamburger	Obama victory speech 2008
1. We’re gonna order two burgers 2. We’re both gonna have cheddar cheese on ‘em 3. He is gonna have some sauteed onions on ‘em 4. I’m gonna have the same, cheddar cheese 5. Lemme have lettuce and tomato 6. You know, I’m tryin’ to decide 7. Lemme try those out 8. Do you guys have ice tea or sweet tea?	1. If there is anyone out there who still doubts that America is a place where all things are possible... 2. It’s the answer told by lines that stretch throughout schools and churches... 3. it’s the answer spoken by young and old... 4. Americans who sent a message to the world... 5. we are and always will be the united states of america

Task 2: Associations we make with formal and informal language (5-10 minutes)

Activity: Associations

1. What associations do you want people to make about you? When you talk to a teacher or the principal, do you want to sound the same way as you do when you talk to your friends? Why or why not?
2. Take a few minutes to decide what you would say in the following situations, and think about WHY you would say it to that person in that way. Be prepared to explain your answer.
3. Ask volunteers to share answers.
4. Why do Teachers care so much that you write ‘proper’? To show us that you can communicate to a wide range of groups.

Task 3: Define STYLE-SHIFTING (5-10 minutes)

1. We call this STYLE-SHIFTING, that is, when someone can change the way they speak according to where they are and who they are talking to. Being able to style-shift means you have a good idea of the expectations other people have of you, and you meet those expectations by changing your language.
2. With a partner, write a definition of style-shifting and give an example.
3. Compare definitions whole group, or write a definition together as a class.

Big Idea

We need to change our language to fit the context not only so it is appropriate, but so that people make the associations about us that we want them to make.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more associations people make with formal and informal language.
2. Ask students to think of other public figures who style-shift.

**Week 4 Day 1: Contrastive Component:
English and Spanish**

RATIONALE

This is the first lesson of four where students compare and contrast grammatical patterns. Working with bilingual students, it makes sense to compare and contrast grammatical patterns in their two languages. This makes explicit what students may have only known implicitly before: the two patterns each achieve the communicative goal, they are different, and one is not better than the other.

OBJECTIVE

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns in English and Spanish.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

CCSS.ELA-Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade-appropriate general academic and domain-specific words and phrases,

Materials for Instructor

1. Chart paper to record language patterns
2. Bilingual children's books

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Language patterns

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: We change our language from formal to informal to match the situation. This is called style-shifting.

Task 1: Comparing and contrasting English and Spanish grammar patterns (30-35 minutes)

Discussion:

1. We've talked about style-shifting, and the idea that we usually use formal language in formal situations and informal language in informal situations. For those of us who speak two languages, does this also apply to English and Spanish? Are there places and times that we use English, and places and times for Spanish? (Ask students for examples, list on chart or board).
2. We know that English and Spanish can communicate the same idea, although they do it differently. Today we're going to compare and contrast the way English and Spanish grammars work to communicate the same idea.

Activity: English and Spanish Questions

1. Let's start with Spanish. Let's look at how we make questions in Spanish when we don't use the question words *quien-donde-que-por que-como*. Let's look at this question: ¿Eres feliz? What do you notice about this question? (Verb + Adjective) (Track statements and patterns on a chart)

2. Let's take a look at the way we would say this question in English: Are you happy? What's the pattern here? (Verb + person + Adjective)
3. Is this always the pattern for questions that don't use question words in these languages? Let's test our hypothesis with more data. (Ask students for more question examples in Spanish and English, record on chart paper).
4. Let's look at the two patterns we've uncovered. Is one better than another? (No) Why not? (They both communicate the idea to the listener).
5. Let's try this again with another kind of sentence in English and Spanish, called declarative sentences that state a fact. In Spanish we say, *Eres feliz*. What's the pattern? (Verb + adjective, record on chart). It's the same pattern as the question formation. How do you know in Spanish if someone is asking you a question or stating a declarative? (Intonation).
6. Let's see what happens in English. In English we would say: You are happy. What's the pattern? (Person + verb + adjective) Is it the same? What's different? How do you know in English if someone is asking you a question or stating a declarative? (Intonation + word order).

7. Is one pattern better than another? Why not?
8. What other patterns can we compare in English and Spanish? Work in pairs or small groups to brainstorm more patterns in English and Spanish that are different or the same. Look in bilingual books for ideas. (Adjective + Noun order: Trabajo difícil VS Hard work); Possessive adjectives (Abre los ojos VS Open your eyes)

Big Idea

We see that English and Spanish have different grammatical patterns for some functions, but one pattern is not better than another because each fulfills the communicative function for its speakers.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Student pattern comparisons

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more patterns in English and Spanish that are the same or different.

Week 4 Day 2: Contrastive Component: Spanglish

RATIONALE

Today's lesson continues the contrastive component of the curriculum by having students examine a commonly stigmatized dialect, Spanglish, for grammar patterns.

OBJECTIVE

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns in Spanglish and Standard Spanish.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade-- appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases.

Materials for Instructor

1. Chart paper to record patterns
2. Copies of CALL ME MARIA

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Grammar pattern chart

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: English and Spanish have different grammatical patterns for some language functions, but one is not better than another, they are just different.

Task 1: Spanglish versus Standard Spanish (30-35 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to continue examining grammatical patterns, and today we're going to look at the patterns that you see in two Spanish dialects: Spanglish and Standard Spanish.

2. First I want to read you a short section from a book called *Call Me Maria*, about a Puerto Rican girl who moves to New York City and is living between two worlds, one in Spanish and one in English. She learns there is a third world where she can use Spanglish. (read aloud p. 18). What was the Spanglish you heard? (el mall; vamos to the marqueta ahora). We're going to talk about that kind of language, Spanglish. She also says she wants to keep her textbook English so she can go to college: what do you think she meant by 'textbook English'?

Activity:

1. Let's start with Spanglish. What is Spanglish? Has anyone ever heard Spanglish? How do you describe it? How is it different from Standard Spanish? What is Standard Spanish? How do you describe it? How is it different from Spanglish?

2. One thing that is interesting about Spanglish is that it is very easy to make new verbs, and these new verbs usually end in -ear. Can anyone give me examples of -ear Spanglish verbs? (parquear, watchear, lunchea, etc) Where do these verbs come from? Are they related to English in any way? What is the pattern? (record on chart paper). Can we think of other Spanglish verbs that fulfill this pattern too? (record on paper)
3. How does Standard Spanish say these verbs? Do they come from English? (usually not, but sometimes: cliquear vs hacer click?) Standard Spanish uses all three verb types: -er, -ir, -ar for its verbs. What other verbs can you think of that fit these patterns?
4. What other patterns does Spanglish have? Usually code-switching, using both English and Spanish in same sentence. Does Standard Spanish do that? Why or why not? (record examples on chart).
5. Work in pairs or partner to brainstorm more examples of Spanglish and Standard Spanish.

Big Idea

Spanglish and Standard Spanish both follow grammatical patterns, and one pattern is not better than another, they are just different.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Grammatical patterns recorded in workbook

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more patterns of Spanglish and Standard Spanish.

Week 4 Day 3: Contrastive Component: Informal Contractions in English

RATIONALE

This lesson continues the contrastive component of the curriculum, with a focus on commonly heard informal contractions in English such as “gonna” and “wanna”. It builds on the idea that one grammatical pattern is not better than another, but may not be appropriate to all situations.

OBJECTIVE

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns of informal and “formal” contractions in English.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade---appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases.

Materials for Instructor

1. Chart to record patterns
2. Voices in the Park;
3. (Chart: 1st voice, 2nd voice, 3rd voice, 4th voice)
4. Kids will need scissors and glue

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: language patterns cut outs

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Spanglish and Standard Spanish both have verbal patterns, and one is not better than another, they are just different.

Task 1: Compare and Contrast informal and ‘formal’ contractions in English (30-35 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to continue our discussion of language patterns, and we'll look at contractions in English. First, what's a contraction? (List some contractions on chart/board). Where do you see or hear contractions, in formal or informal language?

Activity:

1. We're going to read aloud a book called *Voices in the Park*. Your job is to clap each time you hear a contraction. There are four characters, and we're going to track how many contractions each character says. (Chart: 1st voice [0], 2nd voice [3], 3rd voice [5], 4th voice [3]). Why do you think we didn't hear any contractions with the first voice? Why do you think the 3rd and 4th voice had more contractions? (speaking more informally)
2. common contractions usually represent how people speak, as if representing their pronunciation, like "D'you" and "wanna".
3. In your student workbook you'll find some contractions and what they are contracted for in Standard English. Your job is to cut out the phrases and words and categorize them: are they informal contractions or Standard English?
4. Compare whole group

Big Idea:

Less common contractions often represent informal speech. Very formal language usually does not use contractions.

Common contractions can be in formal or informal speech.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. contractions worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more contractions
2. Ask students to write a story using informal contractions, and then 'translate' it to very formal English

Week 4 Day 4: Contrastive Component: Topic Registers

RATIONALE

This lesson continues the explicit examination of language patterns by examining the registers found in school subjects. Students get a chance to use what they know about vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation to describe the kind of language commonly used for academic subjects.

OBJECTIVE

Students will describe the vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation patterns of the registers used for academic subjects.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade---appropriate general academic and domain---specific words and phrases.

Materials for Instructor

1. PVG chart for Math register

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: Math message 2.1 PVG chart
2. Worksheet: Math messages

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: Contractions are used in both formal and informal language, but very formal language doesn't use contractions. Less common contractions usually try to represent people's pronunciation.

Task 1: The patterns in math language (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to look at the kind of language we find in school. Would you describe school language as formal or informal? Why? Any examples?

Activity: Identify math language patterns

1. Let's look at a math message from the curriculum Everyday Math. Does it sound formal or informal? Why?
2. Now let's pick out the vocabulary, grammar, or pronunciation that makes us think that the math message may be more formal than informal.
3. What kinds of sentences do we see here? (2 questions and a command—List under G features). Are there any contractions? (No—List that in G features).
4. Let's list the math-related vocabulary we see (List under vocabulary).
5. Pronunciation: is there anything about the way the words are spelled to make us think this may be informal? Why not? (no informal contractions, words are spelled 'correctly'). The writers of this problem probably expect us to pronounce it in a certain way if we were going to read it aloud.

Big Idea

Math language has its own patterns in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation.

Task 2: Formal math language (15-20 minutes)

Discussion

1. We know that math language we find in textbooks and in tests is usually formal, that is, they use certain kinds of sentences, they use certain kinds of vocabulary. What would we do if we had a friend who didn't know this, and who read the math message but didn't really get what it was saying?

Activity: 'Translate' math language

1. We're going to practice explaining a math message to someone who might not know about math language patterns. Look at the math messages. Your job is to read the math message and explain it to a partner using informal language. Let me demonstrate with message 2.1: "*Okay man, let's pretend there's a bus that we need to measure. We can use inches, feet or yards. Which one you wanna use? Okay, why'd you use that one and not the others? Okay, now you hafta use that one you chose to guess how long a school bus is gonna be.*" What was different about how I explained it? Did I use the same vocabulary (some—*inches, feet, yards, measure*, but not *estimate*) Did I use the same grammar? (Some-I had different kinds of sentences and used informal contractions)
2. Pick one math message and explain it orally to a friend.

Big Idea

Academic language that we find in school usually has its own vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation patterns. We have to become familiar with those patterns.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Oral translations of math messages

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to identify more features of math language
2. Ask students to find math language in their textbooks

Week 5 Day 1: Style-shifting practice

RATIONALE

Today students have a chance to put into practice their knowledge of language patterns and appropriateness.

OBJECTIVE

Students will practice style-shifting their language pattern to the school-based dialect.

STANDARDS ADDRESSED

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.1 Demonstrate command of the conventions of standard English grammar and usage when writing or speaking.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.4a Use context (e.g., cause/effect relationships and comparisons in text) as a clue to the meaning of a word or phrase.

CCSS.ELA---Literacy.L.5.6 Acquire and use accurately grade-appropriate general academic and domain-specific words and phrases.

Materials for Instructor

1. Copies of worksheets

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: switching sentences
2. Worksheet: switching a paragraph

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: last time we looked at the language of math for patterns. We practiced changing the formal math language into informal language so we could explain it to someone else. Today we're going to flip the switch in the other direction, and practice changing informal language to formal language.

Task 1: Flip the switch (10-15 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to practice switching from informal to formal language.

Activity:

1. Let's practice with some patterns in English and Spanish that we've studied. We learned about informal contractions in English and Spanglish –ear verbs.
2. In pairs or small groups, take a few minutes to switch these sentences to formal English or formal Spanish.

Task 2: Switch a paragraph (15-20 minutes)

Discussion

1. Now we're going to do the same thing but with a paragraph that a student wrote for the prompt you see on the top of the page. Not only can you switch the grammar so it's more appropriate, but you can also switch the vocabulary if you need to.
2. With a partner, re-write the paragraph so that it sounds more formal.
3. Share out answers.

Big Idea

Language needs to match the audience and the context. For writing tests, we need to write formally.

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more situations where formal English or Spanish would be appropriate

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Switching exercises

Week 5 Day 2: Reflection

RATIONALE

Students have an opportunity to think about what language diversity means for them as students and as members of a diverse society.

OBJECTIVE

Students will reflect as a group on what they learned about language diversity and the need to match our language with the audience and the situation.

Materials for Instructor

1. Copies of student worksheet: most interesting thing and what we can say

Materials in Student Workbook

1. Worksheet: the most interesting thing you learned
2. Worksheet: what we can say to someone

PROCEDURE:

Warm Up (1-5 minutes)

1. Review big ideas from last session: We change our language to match the audience and situation.

Task 1: Workbook flip (30-35 minutes)

Discussion:

1. Today we're going to reflect on everything we've learned about languages and dialects work.

Activity: What did we learn?

1. I want you to answer a couple of questions for me, listed in the final pages of your workbook. First, what was the most interesting thing you learned? Take a few minutes to flip through your student workbook to help you remember. Then write down the most interesting thing you learned.
2. Whole group share
3. Second, what is something we can say to someone who thinks another person talks funny or weird?
4. Whole group share

Big Idea

Languages and dialects follow patterns. One pattern is not better than another, but we need to choose the most appropriate pattern to fit the situation.

INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

1. Whole-group discussion
2. Interesting thing & what we can say
worksheets

EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

1. Ask students to brainstorm more interesting things they learned, unexpected things

Appendix C: Student Workbook

Name/Nombre _____

Language Variation and Style Shifting for Fifth Graders

By Mary Hudgens Henderson

University of New Mexico
Department of Spanish & Portuguese
November–December 2013

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Goals of Unit

Why learn about language diversity? ¿Por qué aprender sobre la diversidad lingüística?

The way you speak gives people an idea of where you come from and who you are. Everyone speaks differently—language changes according to where you are, who you are talking to, and what you want to do.

La manera en que hablas da a la gente una idea de dónde vienes y quién eres. Todo el mundo habla diferente—el lenguaje cambia según dónde estás, con quién hablas, y qué quieres hacer.

What will we learn? ¿Qué vamos a aprender?

We will learn how language varieties differ in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. We will study the kind of language we hear and read in school, and practice making our language fit those patterns.

Aprenderemos cómo las variedades lingüísticas se diferencian según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática. Estudiaremos el tipo de lenguaje que se oye y se lee en la escuela, y haremos que nuestro lenguaje quede bien con esos patrones.

How will this prepare us to be better students in reading, writing, science, math and social studies? ¿Cómo nos va a preparar para ser mejores estudiantes de la lectura, la escritura, la ciencia, las matemáticas, y los estudios sociales?

Each topic (math, science, social studies, etc.) has its own vocabulary and its own way of saying things. We need to learn the language patterns of each topic to better understand the content. Once you talk the talk, you can walk the walk! Cada tópico (las matemáticas, las ciencias, los estudios sociales, etc.) tiene su propio vocabulario y su propia manera de expresar ideas. Hay que aprender los patrones de lenguaje de cada tópico para poder entender mejor el contenido. Cuando predicas bien, ¡aplicas bien!

Week One: Introduction to Language Diversity

Semana Una: Introducción a la diversidad lingüística

Overall Objectives

Students will understand that everyone speaks a dialect, and that dialects are different because of pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Students will understand basic concepts in language variation due to someone's age, when they lived, where they live, and who they are talking to.

Objetivo Global

Los estudiantes entenderán que todo el mundo habla una variedad de una lengua, y que los dialectos son diferentes por la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática. Los estudiantes entenderán conceptos básicos de la variación lingüística debido a la edad de una persona, cuando y donde viven, y con quien habla.



Day 1/Día 1

Objective / Objetivo

Students will identify and give examples of important terms: Language, Dialect.

Los estudiantes comprenderán y podrán dar ejemplos de términos importantes: una Lengua y un Dialecto.

Day 2/Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will be able to give examples of slang and jargon.

Los estudiantes entenderán que (1) los dialectos son diferentes según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática; (2) los estudiantes podrán ofrecer ejemplos de la jerga.

Day 3/Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will identify words that differ in pronunciation.

Los estudiantes entenderán que (1) los dialectos son diferentes según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática; (2) los estudiantes identificarán palabras que son diferentes por la pronunciación.

Day 4/Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that everyone speaks a dialect, and everyone has an accent.

Students will understand and give examples of how individual people do not speak the same way every time.

Los estudiantes identificarán las diferencias de los dialectos según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática. Los estudiantes entenderán y darán ejemplos de la manera en que la gente no habla igual cada vez.

Day 1 / Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will identify and give examples of important terms: Language, Dialect.

Los estudiantes comprenderán y podrán dar ejemplos de términos importantes: una Lengua, un Dialecto.

LANGUAGE EXCERPTS FROM BBC

COLUMN A	COLUMN B
A astronauta Wang Yaping, segunda mulher chinesa a viajar para o espaço, deu uma aula a estudantes de uma escola em Pequim a mais de 300 quilômetros de distância da Terra.	Arabic/Árabe
Cuatro cubanos decidieron construir una réplica del arca bíblica para convertirla en una atracción turística. El proyecto, que ya cuenta con un elefante gigante, se erige poco a poco en las afueras de esa ciudad estadounidense.	Vietnamese/vietnamita
Hình những thiên hà khổng lồ trên vũ trụ và Dải Ngân Hà nằm vắt qua Công viên quốc gia Yosemite là một trong số những bức ảnh đầy ấn tượng được tuyển chọn dự giải Nhiếp ảnh gia Thiên văn trong năm	Spanish/español
Research has revealed that the marine mammals use a unique whistle to identify each other. A team from the University of St Andrews in Scotland found that when the animals hear their own call played back to them, they respond.	Portuguese/portugués
توبور لوألمحي اخوراص قلطت نابايلا ءاضفلا ىلإ قطان ،بأ /س طس غأ ،ن ين ثال ا :ثي دحت رخأ قي دصل لس را يس يب يب ةع اذا ىلإ عم تس ا رخأ لغشم يف فلمل ا ضرع ا	English/inglés

Definitions and Examples

<hr/>	

Is it English?

COLUMN A	COLUMN B		
The waves at the beach were heaps good.	YES	NO	Don't Know
I didn't go nowhere.	YES	NO	Don't Know
He is always working.	YES	NO	Don't Know
He neva like dat.	YES	NO	Don't Know
It's a sair fecht.	YES	NO	Don't Know

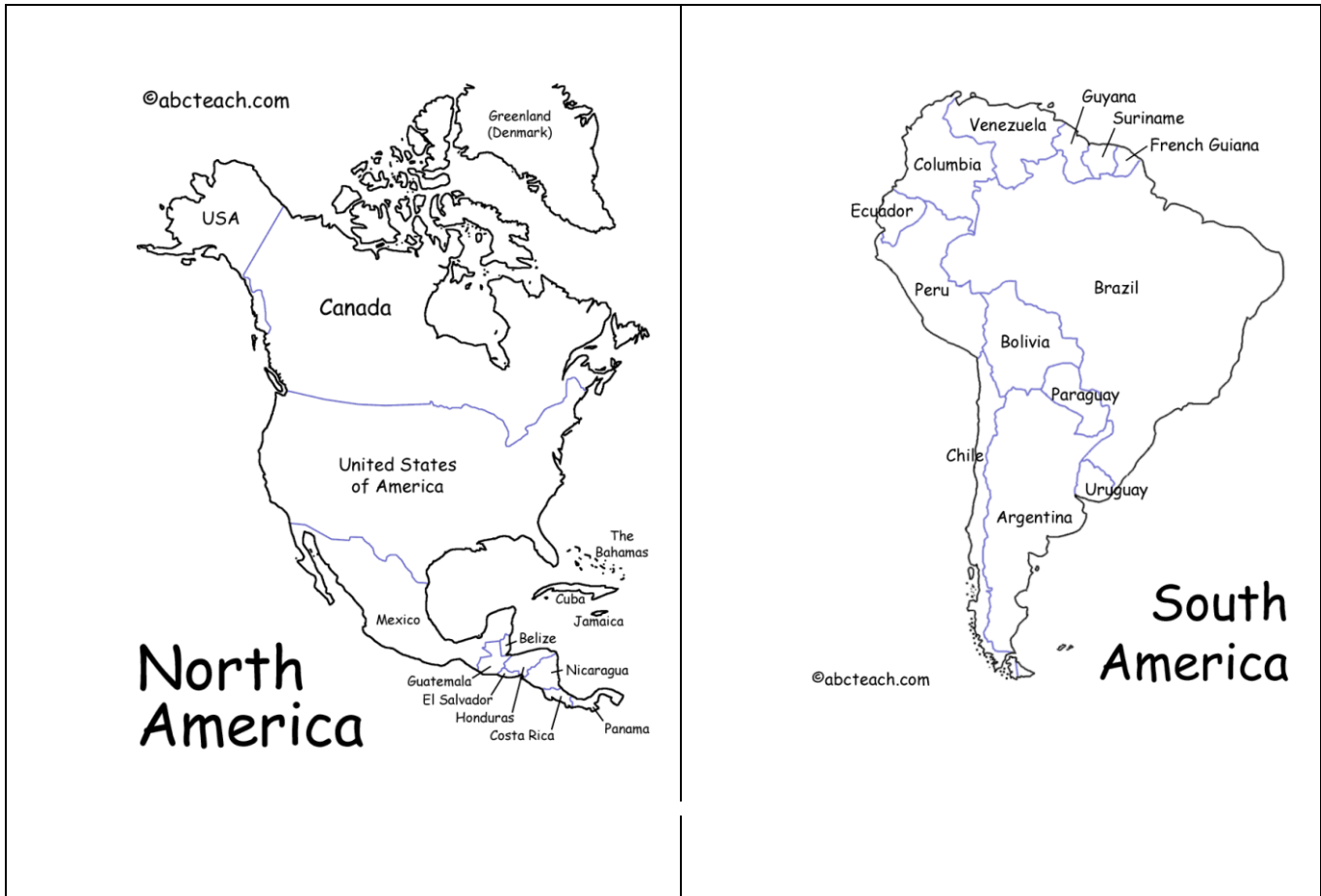


Day 2 / Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will be able to give examples of slang and jargon.

Los estudiantes entenderán que (1) los dialectos son diferentes según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática; (2) los estudiantes podrán ofrecer ejemplos de la jerga.



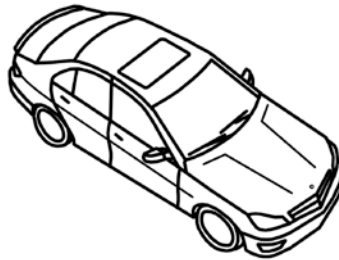
HOW DIALECTS ARE DIFFERENT

<hr/>		

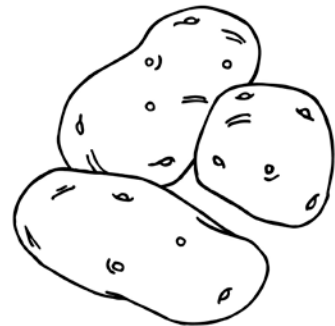
VOCABULARY: Different words to say the same thing



In the United States: soccer
In Britain: football

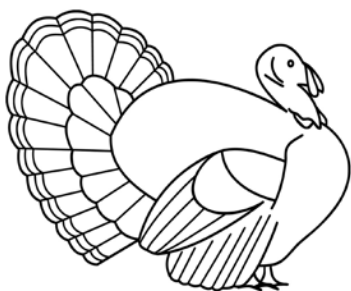


En España: un coche
En Latinoamérica: un carro



En España: patata
En Latinoamérica: papa
In the United States: potato, tater
In Scotland: tattie

What words have you heard for these items?



2 Types of Vocabulary: Slang and Jargon

Slang: Special words used between people to show they belong to the same group. (usually INFORMAL groups)

Young People Marbles

What up? Bro Tight Peace out	Shooter Jasper knuckle down for keeps	
---------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------	--

Jargon: Special words used between people to show they belong to the same group. (usually FORMAL groups)

Teacher Math

score benchmarks accommodations highly qualified intervention	base sum divide multiply area	
---------------------------------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------	--

Day 3 / Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will identify words that differ in pronunciation.

Los estudiantes entenderán que (1) los dialectos son diferentes según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática; (2) los estudiantes identificarán palabras que son diferentes por la pronunciación.

TASK ONE: Hagrid's speech

Page Number	Hagrid's Quote	Translate to Standard English
page 47	"Yeh look a lot like yer dad, but yeh've got yer mum's eyes."	You look a lot like your dad, but you've got your mother's eyes.

"Comma Gets a Cure" ⁴¹

Well, here's a story for you: Sarah Perry was a veterinary nurse who had been working daily at an old zoo in a deserted district of the territory, so she was very happy to start a new job at a superb private practice in North Square near the Duke Street Tower. That area was much nearer for her and more to her liking. Even so, on her first morning, she felt stressed. She ate a bowl of porridge, checked herself in the mirror and washed her face in a hurry. Then she put on a plain yellow dress and a fleece jacket, picked up her kit and headed for work.

STEP ONE Listen to the three speakers telling the story. As you listen, write down words you think they pronounce in an interesting way.		
Speaker 1 New Mexico 4	Speaker 2 California 4	Speaker 3 New Jersey 2
STEP TWO Share your words with your partner(s), and together identify at least 3 words that the speakers all say differently.		
Speaker 1 New Mexico 4	Speaker 2 California 4	Speaker 3 New Jersey 2

⁴¹ Copyright 2000 Douglas N. Honorof, Jill McCullough & Barbara Somerville. All rights reserved.
<http://www.dialectsarchive.com/comma-gets-a-cure>

Day 4 / Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that (1) dialects differ according to pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar; (2) Students will identify how verb forms differ in Spanish dialects.

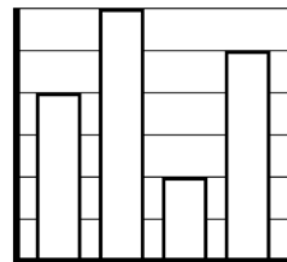
GRAMMAR: These sentences are saying the same thing. But how are they different?



He doesn't know anything about baseball.
He don't know nuthin' about baseball.



¿Quieren ustedes usar el telescopio esta noche?
¿Queréis vosotros usar el telescopio esta noche?



Bar Graph

This bar graph ain't go no labels like it's supposed to.
This bar graph does not have any labels like it's supposed to.

Spanish verbs

1. Vosotros podéis venir a mi casa si queréis.

Ustedes pueden venir a mi casa si quieren.

2. Vos sos mi mejor amigo.

Tú eres mi mejor amigo.

3. Anoche te cantábanos la canción.

Anoche te cantábamos la canción.

4. Tengo que parquear mi carro.

Tengo que estacionar mi carro.

Identify the differences in dialects: Pronunciation, vocabulary, or grammar?
Identifica los diferencias entre los dialectos: ¿pronunciación, vocabulario, o gramática?

1. Este ordenador no funciona. Esta computadora no funciona.	Pronunciation
	Vocabulary
	Grammar
2. Do you want to study fractions with us? You wanna study fractions with us?	Pronunciation
	Vocabulary
	Grammar
3. Tú eres mi mejor amigo. Vos sos mi mejor amigo.	Pronunciation
	Vocabulary
	Grammar
4. We have to complete the math test. We hafta complete the math test.	Pronunciation
	Vocabulary
	Grammar
5. I'm going to pahk the cah right here. I'm going to park the car right here.	Pronunciation
	Vocabulary
	Grammar
6. Ustedes saben mucho de los dialectos. Vosotras sabéis mucho de los dialectos.	Pronunciation
	Vocabulary
	Grammar

Week Two: Judging Speech

Semana Dos: Juzgar el habla

Overall Objectives

Students will understand that listeners may make assumptions (positive and/or negative) about a speaker, and recognize examples of linguistic discrimination. Students will understand that while all dialects are 'correct', they may not be 'appropriate' for every situation.

Objetivo Global

Los estudiantes entenderán que los oyentes hacen unas suposiciones (positivas y/o negativas) sobre un hablante, y reconocerán ejemplos de la discriminación lingüística. Los estudiantes entenderán que mientras todos los dialectos son 'correctos', es posible que no sean 'apropiados' para la situación.



Day 1/Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that social information can be extracted from speech, and that people make assumptions about a speaker according to their speech.

Los estudiantes entenderán que la información social se puede extraer del habla, y que la gente hace suposiciones sobre un hablante según la manera que habla.

Day 2/Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will define and give examples of linguistic discrimination.

Los estudiantes definirán y darán ejemplos de la discriminación lingüística.

Day 3/Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will use what they know about linguistic discrimination to discuss whether one language variety is better than another. Students will critically examine the concepts of 'correct' language and 'incorrect' language.

Los estudiantes usarán lo que saben sobre la discriminación lingüística para discutir si una variedad lingüística es mejor que otra. Los estudiantes examinarán críticamente los conceptos de lenguaje 'correcto' y lenguaje 'incorrecto'.

Day 4/Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will use what they know about appropriate-to-context language to discuss whether one language variety is better than another. Students will critically examine the concepts of 'correct' language and 'incorrect' language.

Los estudiantes usarán lo que saben sobre lenguaje que es apropiada a su contexto para discutir si una variedad lingüística es mejor que otra. Los estudiantes examinarán críticamente los conceptos de lenguaje 'correcto' e 'incorrecto'.

Day 1 / Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will examine dialect differences (PVG) from the perspective of language change. Students will identify words in English that have changed over time.

Los estudiantes examinarán las diferencias de los dialectos según la pronunciación, el vocabulario, y la gramática de la perspectiva del cambio de lengua. Los estudiantes identificarán palabras en inglés que han cambiado a lo largo del tiempo.

Slang changes over time:

	'Cool'	'I don't believe it'	Goodbye	Hello
2010s:	tight	Yeah right!	Peace out	Wassup?
1980s	gnarly	No way!	Gotta motor	Yello
1960s:	groovy	Far out!	Catch you on the flip side	Gimme some skin
1920s:	The cat's pajamas	I'll be a monkey's uncle	I have to see a man about a dog	Hiya pal

Language Change in English: The Lord's Prayer (Matthew 6: 9-13)

Old English, 11th century

Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum;
Si þin nama gehalgod
to becume þin rice
gewurpe ðin willa
on eorðan swa swa on heofonum.
urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us todæg
and forgyf us ure gyltas
swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum
and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge
ac alys us of yfele
soplice.

Middle English, 14th century (Wycliffe Bible 1390)

Oure fadir that art in heuenes,
halewid be thi name;
thi kyngdom come to;
be thi wille don, in erthe as in heuene.
Yyue to vs this dai oure breed ouer othir substaunce,
and foryyue to vs oure dettis, as we foryyuen to oure dettouris;
and lede vs not in to temptacioun, but delyuere vs fro yuel.
Amen.

Early Modern English, 19th century

Our Father who art in heaven,
hallowed be thy name.
Thy Kingdom come,
thy will be done,
on earth as it in heaven.
Give us this day our daily bread.
And forgive us our trespasses,
as we forgive those who trespass against us.
Lead us not into temptation,
deliver us from evil.
For thine is the kingdom, the power and the glory forever.
Amen.

Day 2 / Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will critically examine the concepts of 'correct' language and 'incorrect' language from the perspective of language change.

Los estudiantes examinarán críticamente los conceptos de lenguaje 'correcto' e 'incorrecto' de la perspectiva del cambio lingüístico.

Appendix Probi, 200-300AD		Español Moderno	Modern English
1	musivum non museum		
2	camera non cammara		
3	auctor nun autor		
4	viridis non virdis		
5	Februarius non Febrarius		
6	rabidus non rabiosus		
7	numquam non numqua		

Day 3 / Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that social information can be extracted from speech, and that people make assumptions about a speaker according to their speech.

Los estudiantes entenderán que la información social se puede extraer del habla, y que la gente hace suposiciones sobre un hablante según la manera que habla.

Speaker 1/Hablante 1

female mujer	male hombre
is speaking English está hablando inglés	is speaking Spanish está hablando español
older than me es mayor que yo	younger than me es menor que yo
from the United States es de los Estados Unidos	not from the United States no es de los Estados Unidos

Speaker 2/Hablante 2

female mujer	male hombre
is speaking English está hablando inglés	is speaking Spanish está hablando español
older than me es mayor que yo	younger than me es menor que yo
from the United States es de los Estados Unidos	not from the United States no es de los Estados Unidos

Speaker 3/Hablante 3

female mujer	male hombre
is speaking English está hablando inglés	is speaking Spanish está hablando español
older than me es mayor que yo	younger than me es menor que yo
from the United States es de los Estados Unidos	not from the United States no es de los Estados Unidos

What do you think about this speaker? 1

friendly	_____	_____	_____	_____	unfriendly
dark skin	_____	_____	_____	_____	light skin
rich	_____	_____	_____	_____	poor
mean	_____	_____	_____	_____	kind
good-looking	_____	_____	_____	_____	ugly
not smart	_____	_____	_____	_____	smart
hardworking	_____	_____	_____	_____	lazy
light hair	_____	_____	_____	_____	dark hair
drives a new car	_____	_____	_____	_____	drives an old car
bad-tempered	_____	_____	_____	_____	cheerful
blue/green eyes	_____	_____	_____	_____	brown eyes
wears relaxed, casual clothes	_____	_____	_____	_____	wears dressy, elegant clothes

a) This speaker is from _____

b) This speaker is: Male Female

c) This speaker is about _____ years old.

¿Qué piensas de este hablante? 1

amigable	_____	_____	_____	_____	no amigable
piel morena	_____	_____	_____	_____	piel clara
rico	_____	_____	_____	_____	pobre
cruel	_____	_____	_____	_____	amable
bonito	_____	_____	_____	_____	feo
no inteligente	_____	_____	_____	_____	inteligente
trabajador	_____	_____	_____	_____	perezoso
cabello rubio	_____	_____	_____	_____	cabello oscuro
maneja un carro nuevo	_____	_____	_____	_____	maneja un carro viejo
malhumorado	_____	_____	_____	_____	alegre
masculino	_____	_____	_____	_____	femenino
lleva ropa casual y tranquila	_____	_____	_____	_____	lleva ropa elegante y llamativa

a) Este hablante es de _____

b) Este hablante es: Hombre Mujer

c) Este hablante tiene alrededor de _____ años de edad.

What do you think about this speaker? 2

friendly	_____	_____	_____	_____	unfriendly
dark skin	_____	_____	_____	_____	light skin
rich	_____	_____	_____	_____	poor
mean	_____	_____	_____	_____	kind
good-looking	_____	_____	_____	_____	ugly
not smart	_____	_____	_____	_____	smart
hardworking	_____	_____	_____	_____	lazy
light hair	_____	_____	_____	_____	dark hair
drives a new car	_____	_____	_____	_____	drives an old car
bad-tempered	_____	_____	_____	_____	cheerful
blue/green eyes	_____	_____	_____	_____	brown eyes
wears relaxed, casual clothes	_____	_____	_____	_____	wears dressy, elegant clothes

a) This speaker is from _____

b) This speaker is: Male Female

c) This speaker is about _____ years old.

¿Qué piensas de este hablante? 2

amigable	_____	_____	_____	_____	no amigable
piel morena	_____	_____	_____	_____	piel clara
rico	_____	_____	_____	_____	pobre
cruel	_____	_____	_____	_____	amable
bonito	_____	_____	_____	_____	feo
no inteligente	_____	_____	_____	_____	inteligente
trabajador	_____	_____	_____	_____	perezoso
cabello rubio	_____	_____	_____	_____	cabello oscuro
maneja un carro nuevo	_____	_____	_____	_____	maneja un carro viejo
malhumorado	_____	_____	_____	_____	alegre
masculino	_____	_____	_____	_____	femenino
lleva ropa casual y tranquila	_____	_____	_____	_____	lleva ropa elegante y llamativa

a) Este hablante es de _____

b) Este hablante es: Hombre Mujer

c) Este hablante tiene alrededor de _____ años de edad.

What do you think about this speaker? 3

friendly	_____	_____	_____	_____	unfriendly
dark skin	_____	_____	_____	_____	light skin
rich	_____	_____	_____	_____	poor
mean	_____	_____	_____	_____	kind
good-looking	_____	_____	_____	_____	ugly
not smart	_____	_____	_____	_____	smart
hardworking	_____	_____	_____	_____	lazy
light hair	_____	_____	_____	_____	dark hair
drives a new car	_____	_____	_____	_____	drives an old car
bad-tempered	_____	_____	_____	_____	cheerful
blue/green eyes	_____	_____	_____	_____	brown eyes
wears relaxed, casual clothes	_____	_____	_____	_____	wears dressy, elegant clothes

- a) This speaker is from _____
- b) This speaker is: Male Female
- c) This speaker is about _____ years old.

¿Qué piensas de este hablante? 3

amigable	_____	_____	_____	_____	no amigable
piel morena	_____	_____	_____	_____	piel clara
rico	_____	_____	_____	_____	pobre
cruel	_____	_____	_____	_____	amable
bonito	_____	_____	_____	_____	feo
no inteligente	_____	_____	_____	_____	inteligente
trabajador	_____	_____	_____	_____	perezoso
cabello rubio	_____	_____	_____	_____	cabello oscuro
maneja un carro nuevo	_____	_____	_____	_____	maneja un carro viejo
malhumorado	_____	_____	_____	_____	alegre
masculino	_____	_____	_____	_____	femenino
lleva ropa casual y tranquila	_____	_____	_____	_____	lleva ropa elegante y llamativa

a) Este hablante es de _____

b) Este hablante es: Hombre Mujer


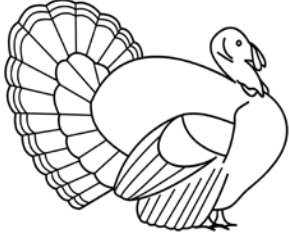


c) Este hablante tiene alrededor de _____ años de edad.

Day 4 / Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will show previous knowledge of regional language variation by drawing boundaries on maps. Students will interview classmates to discover linguistic variation in the classroom. Los estudiantes mostrarán conocimiento previo de la variación regional lingüística por dibujar fronteras sobre mapas. Los estudiantes se entrevistarán para descubrir la variación lingüística en el salón de clase.

¿Qué nombre tienes para los siguientes ítems?

	Compañero 1	Compañero 2	Compañero 3
			
			
			
			

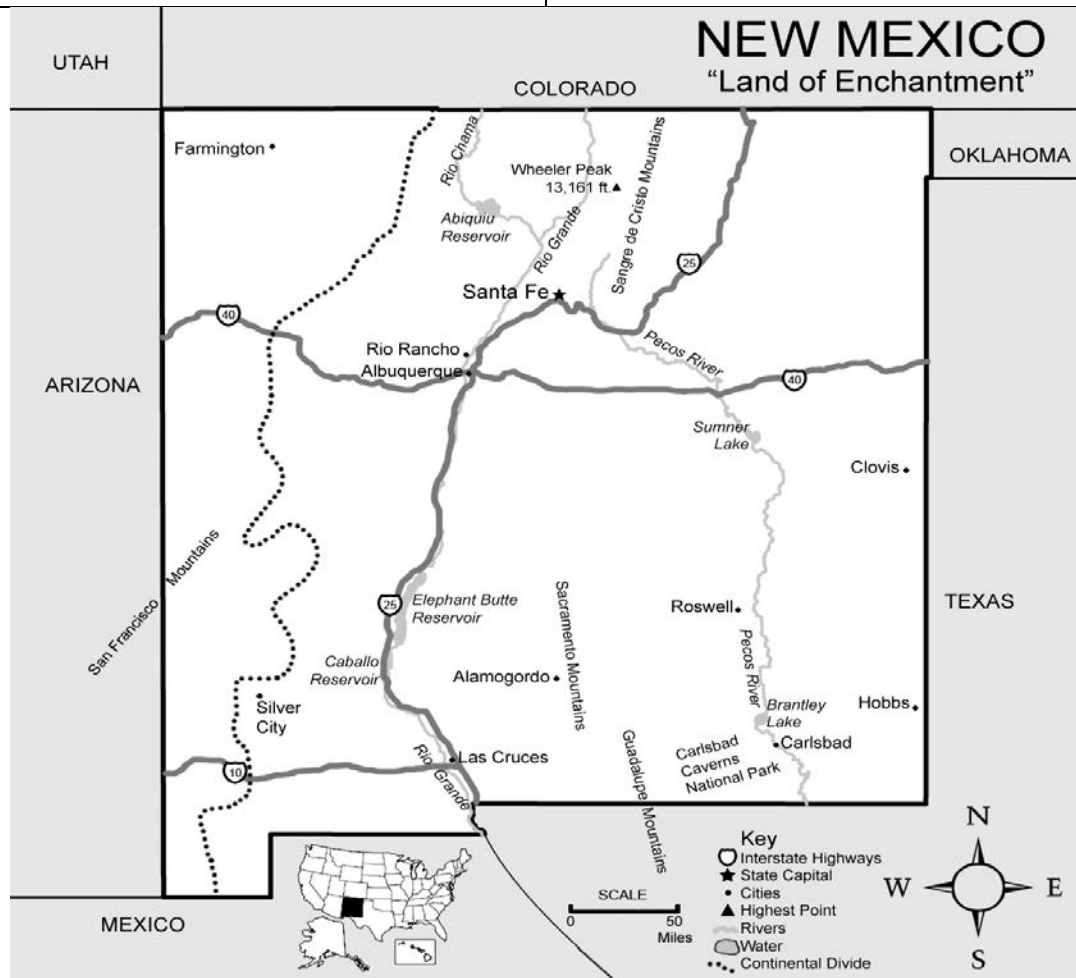
1. Draw on the map below places where you think people's **ENGLISH** sounds different.
2. Next, write down what you'd call that way of talking, if you can think of a name for it. Give an example of what's different there (a word? A pronunciation? A special way of talking?)

1. Dibuja sobre el mapa los lugares donde crees que el **INGLES** de la gente suena diferente.
2. Luego, escribe lo que llamarías a esa manera de hablar, si puedes pensar en un nombre por ella. Da un ejemplo de lo que es diferente allí (una palabra? Una pronunciación? Una manera especial de hablar?)



1. Draw on the map below places where you think people's **SPANISH** sounds different.
2. Next, write down what you'd call that way of talking, if you can think of a name for it. Give an example of what's different there (a word? A pronunciation? A special way of talking?)

1. Dibuja sobre el mapa los lugares donde crees que el **ESPAÑOL** de la gente suena diferente.
2. Luego, escribe lo que llamarías a esa manera de hablar, si puedes pensar en un nombre por ella. Da un ejemplo de lo que es diferente allí (una palabra? Una pronunciación? Una manera especial de hablar?)



Week Three: The need for style-shifting

Semana Tres: La necesidad de cambiar el estilo

Overall Objectives

Students will understand why speakers change their language to fit where they are, what they are doing, and who they are talking to.

Objetivo Global

Los estudiantes entenderán por qué los hablantes cambian su lenguaje para quedar bien con dónde están, qué hacen, y con quién hablan.



Day 1/Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that while all language varieties are correct because they follow rules, sometimes one variety is not appropriate in a certain context.

Los estudiantes entenderán que mientras todas las variedades son correctas porque siguen patrones, a veces una variedad no es apropiada para un contexto particular.

Day 2/Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will define and give examples of formal and informal language.

Los estudiantes definirán y darán ejemplos del lenguaje formal e informal.

Day 3/Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that standard dialects are useful for communication BETWEEN groups, while many other dialects are used for communication WITHIN groups. Students will identify situations where the standard dialect is appropriate, and will scan books for examples of Standard English and Standard Spanish.

Los estudiantes entenderán que los dialectos estándares son útiles para la comunicación ENTRE los grupos, mientras muchos otros dialectos se usan para la comunicación DENTRO DE los grupos. Los estudiantes identificarán unas situaciones donde el dialecto estándar es apropiado, y van a buscar ejemplos del inglés estándar y el español estándar dentro de unos libros.

Day 4/Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will define and give examples of style-shifting, that is, changing one's speech to match the context and audience expectations.

Los estudiantes definirán y darán ejemplos del cambio de estilo, es decir, cambiar el lenguaje para quedar bien con el contexto y las expectativas de la audiencia.

Day 1 / Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that while all language varieties are correct because they follow rules, sometimes one variety is not appropriate in a certain context. Students will understand how standard dialects are useful for communication among diverse groups.

Los estudiantes entenderán que mientras todas las variedades son correctas porque siguen patrones, a veces una variedad no es apropiada para un contexto particular. Los estudiantes entenderán cómo son útiles los dialectos estándares para la comunicación entre grupos diversos.

Let's talk about shoes! ¡Hablemos de zapatos!

Brainstorm the kinds of shoes you can wear to the following places:
Piensa en los tipos de zapatos que se puede llevar a los siguientes lugares:

1. The grocery store / El supermercado

2. A wedding / Una boda

3. School / La escuela

4. The beach / La playa

Let's talk about greetings! ¡Hablemos de los saludos!

Brainstorm the different ways you can say 'hello' to someone in the following places:

Piensa en las maneras diferentes que se puede decirle 'hola' a alguien en los siguientes lugares:

1. The grocery store / El supermercado

2. A wedding / Una boda

3. School / La escuela

4. The beach / La playa

Do you always say the same thing every time? Fill in what you would say to the following people.

¿Siempre dices la misma cosa cada vez? Llena el espacio en blanco con lo que dirías a las siguientes personas.

1. You are on the playground playing basketball. You accidentally bump into one of your **classmates**.

YOUR CLASSMATE: Hey, watch where you're going!

YOU:

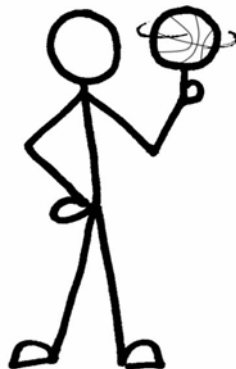
YOUR CLASSMATE: Okay, whatever. Pass me the ball, and let's keep playing.

2. You are on the playground playing basketball. You accidentally bump into your **teacher**.

TEACHER: Whoa, you had better watch where you are going.

YOU:

TEACHER: Thanks. Five more minutes for recess.



3. Estás en clase, sentado en tu pupitre, cuando te das cuenta que no puedes encontrar tu cuaderno de matemáticas. Tu **amigo** te dice que lo busques.

AMIGO: Saca tu cuaderno ya, tenemos que hacer estos ejercicios juntos.

TÚ: _____

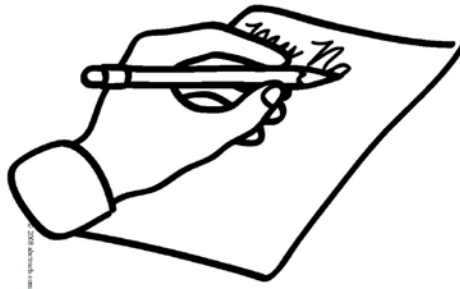
AMIGO: Pues, ¡Búscalos! No quiero perder tiempo.

4. Estás en clase, sentado en tu pupitre, cuando te das cuenta que no puedes encontrar tu cuaderno de matemáticas. Tu **maestra** te dice que lo busques.

MAESTRA: Necesito que saques tu cuaderno, por favor.

TÚ: _____

MAESTRA: ¿Lo has buscado en tu mochila? Es posible que esté allí.



Day 2 / Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will define and give examples of formal and informal language.
Los estudiantes definirán y darán ejemplos del lenguaje formal e informal.

ESPAÑOL: ¿Formal o Informal?		
1. Ya hemos escrito la tarea.	Formal	Informal
2. Ya hemos escrito la tarea.	Formal	Informal
3. La maestra no quiere que nos váyamos.	Formal	Informal
4. La maestra no quiere que nos vayamos.	Formal	Informal
5. ¿Fuiste al mercado ayer?	Formal	Informal
6. ¿Fuistes al mercado ayer?	Formal	Informal

ENGLISH: Formal or Informal?		
1. I'm gonna study real hard.	Formal	Informal
2. I'm going to study very hard.	Formal	Informal
3. He said he'll do it later.	Formal	Informal
4. He said he would do it later.	Formal	Informal
5. There are lots of papers on the floor.	Formal	Informal
6. There's lots of papers on the floor.	Formal	Informal

FORMAL LANGUAGE/ LENGUAJE FORMAL



Where do we speak / write **formally**?
¿Dónde hablamos / escribimos **formalmente**?

With whom do we speak / write **formally**?
¿Con quién hablamos / escribimos **formalmente**?

What topics do we speak / write **formally** about?
¿De cuáles tópicos hablamos / escribimos **formalmente**?

Why do we speak / write **formally**?
¿Por qué hablamos / escribimos **formalmente**?

INFORMAL LANGUAGE/ LENGUAJE INFORMAL



Where do we speak / write **informally**?
¿Dónde hablamos / escribimos **informalmente**?

With whom do we speak / write **informally**?
¿Con quién hablamos / escribimos **informalmente**?

What topics do we speak / write **informally** about?
¿De cuáles tópicos hablamos / escribimos **informalmente**?

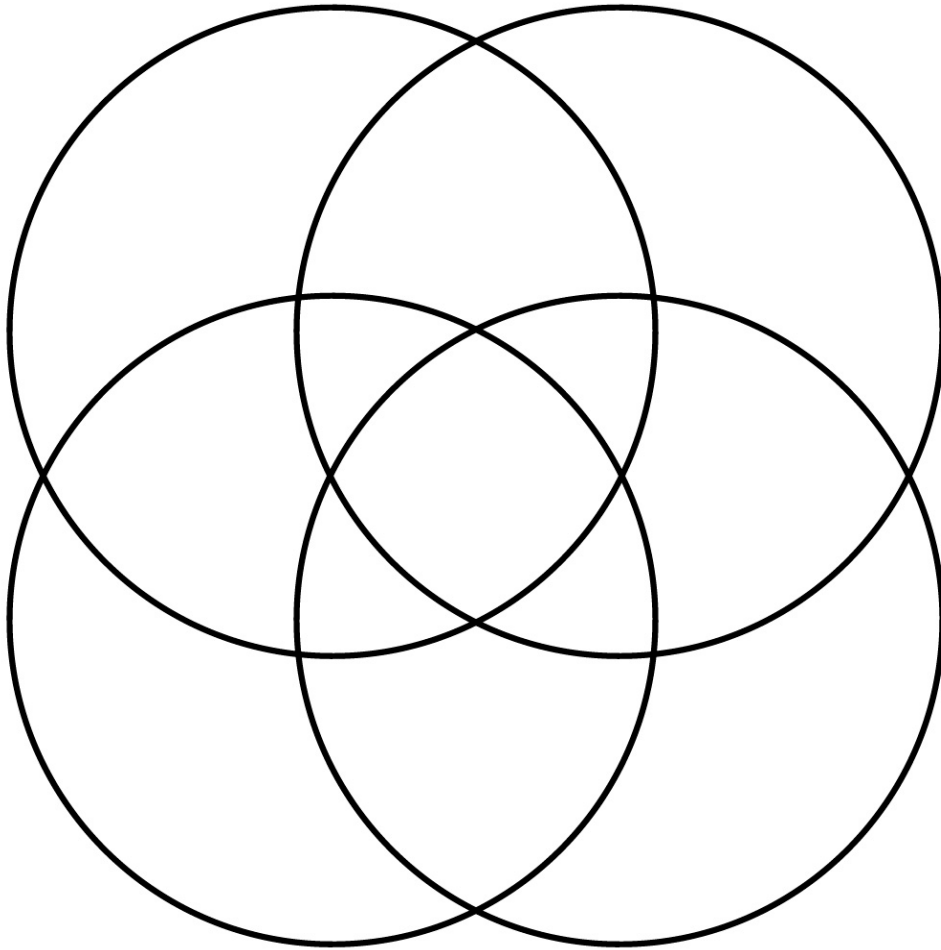
Why do we speak / write **informally**?
¿Por qué hablamos / escribimos **informalmente**?

Day 3 / Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will understand that standard dialects are useful for communication BETWEEN groups, while many other dialects are used for communication WITHIN groups. Students will identify situations where the standard dialect is appropriate, and will scan books for examples of Standard English and Standard Spanish.

Los estudiantes entenderán que los dialectos estándares son útiles para la comunicación ENTRE los grupos, mientras muchos otros dialectos se usan para la comunicación DENTRO DE los grupos. Los estudiantes identificarán unas situaciones donde el dialecto estándar es apropiado, y van a buscar ejemplos del inglés estándar y el español estándar dentro de unos libros.



Is the Standard Dialect appropriate here?

1. You are taking a writing test at school, and you are writing about what you will do tomorrow. You write, **"I'm going to see a movie with my family"**.

YES

NO

2. You are playing soccer with your friends, like you do every day. You want someone to pass you the ball so you can make a goal. You say, **"I would appreciate it if you would pass me the ball."**

YES

NO

3. You are talking to the teacher about your homework. You explain that you didn't turn it in because the dog ate it. You say, **"I'm sorry, I will never let this happen again."**

YES

NO

Day 4 / Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will define and give examples of style-shifting, that is, changing one's speech to match the context and audience expectations.

Los estudiantes definirán y darán ejemplos del cambio de estilo, es decir, cambiar el lenguaje para quedar bien con el contexto y las expectativas de la audiencia.

Obama's English in Two Situations

<p>What: Obama's presidential victory speech, 2008</p> <p>Who: Obama and a large cheering audience</p> <p>Where: Grant Park, Chicago</p> <p>When: November 4, 2008</p>	<p>What: Obama orders a hamburger</p> <p>Who: Obama, the president of Russia, and cashier</p> <p>Where: a hamburger restaurant</p> <p>When: 2010</p>

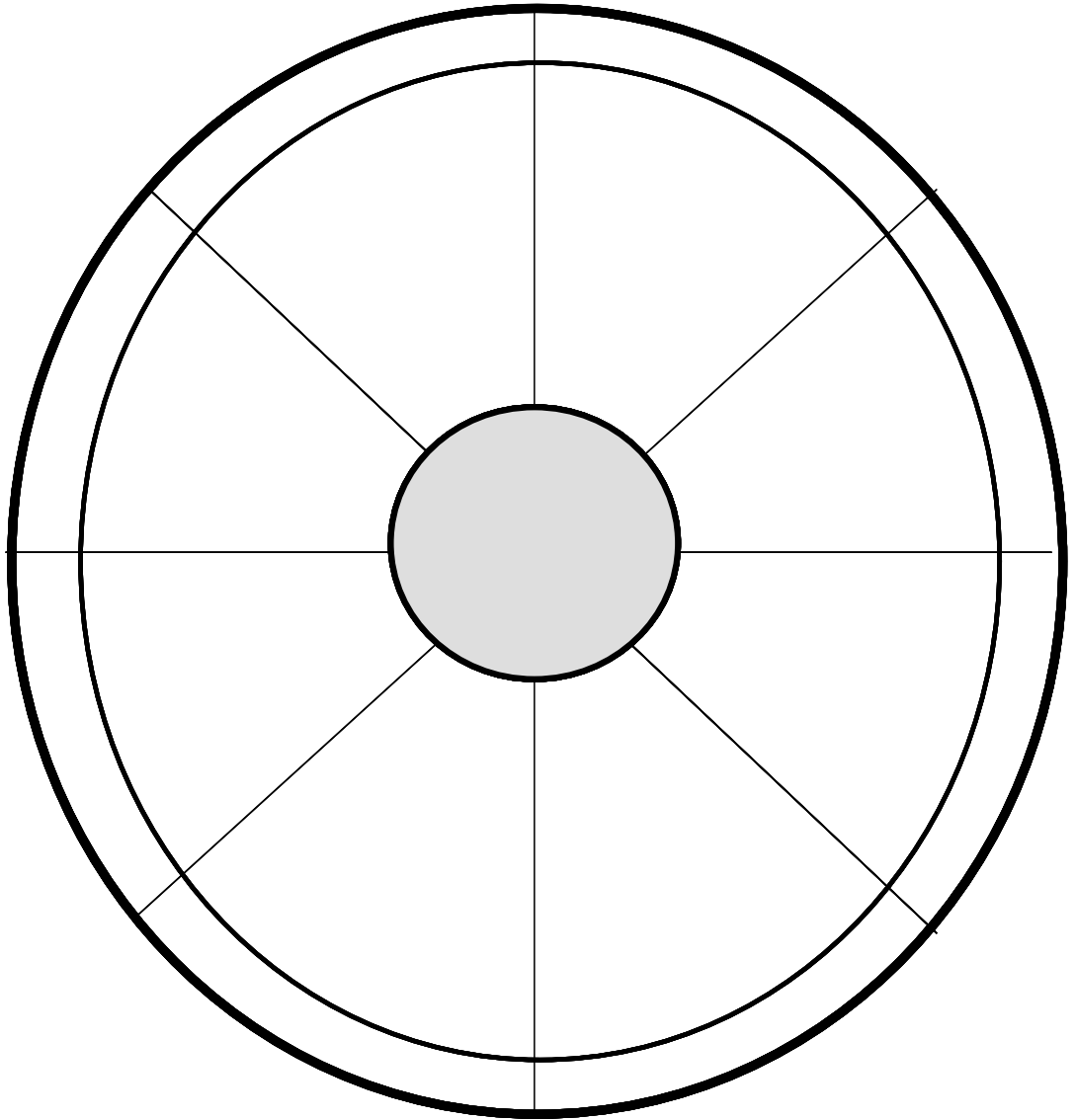
Associations we want people to make with us when we talk

1) You see your friends playing soccer during recess, and you want to convince them to let you play. What do you say?

2) Your teacher is handing out awards for excellent students, and you want an award. What would you say?

3) Your mom just gave an ice cream cone to your little brother or sister, and you want to convince her to give you one, too. What would you say?

Name_____



Week Four: Differences between dialects

Semana Cuatro: Las diferencias entre los dialectos

Overall Objective

Students will understand and give examples of similarities and differences between the language features used in school and other dialects, in Spanish and English.

Objetivo Global

Los estudiantes entenderán y dar ejemplos de las similitudes y las diferencias entre el tipo de lenguaje que se encuentra en la escuela, y otras variedades, en el español y en el inglés.



Day 1/Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns in English and Spanish.
Los estudiantes compararán y contrastarán los patrones de gramática del inglés y del español.

Day 2/Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns in Spanglish and Standard Spanish.
Los estudiantes compararán y contrastarán patrones de gramática que se encuentra en Spanglish y el español estándar.

Day 3/Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns of informal and “formal” contractions in English.
Los estudiantes compararán y contrastarán los patrones de gramática de contracciones informales y ‘formales’ del inglés.

Day 4/Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will describe the vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation patterns of the registers used for academic subjects.
Los estudiantes describirán los patrones del vocabulario, la gramática, y la pronunciación de los registros que se suele usar para los tópicos académicos.

Day 1 / Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns in English and Spanish.
Los estudiantes compararán y contrastarán los patrones de gramática del inglés y del español.

Language Patterns/Patrones de la lengua	
Spanish / Español	English / Inglés

Day 2 / Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns in Spanglish and Standard Spanish.
Los estudiantes compararán y contrastarán patrones de gramática que se encuentra en Spanglish y el español estándar.

Language Patterns/Patrones de la lengua	
Spanglish	Standard Spanish / español estándar

Day 3 / Día 3

Objective/Objetivo

Students will compare and contrast grammatical patterns of informal and “formal” contractions in English.

Los estudiantes compararán y contrastarán los patrones de gramática de contracciones informales y ‘formales’ del inglés.

Language Patterns/Patrones de la lengua	
Informal Contractions / contracciones informales	Standard English / inglés estándar

gonna	kinda
lemme	want to
wanna	gimme
let me	should have
kind of	shoulda
give me	going to

Day 4 / Día 4

Objective/Objetivo

Students will describe the vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation patterns of the registers used for academic subjects.

Los estudiantes describirán los patrones del vocabulario, la gramática, y la pronunciación de los registros que se suele usar para los tópicos académicos.

VOCABULARY	GRAMMAR	PRONUNCIATION

Math Message Lesson 2.1⁴²

If you were measuring the length of a school bus, would you use inches, feet, or yards? Why?

Use the unit of measure you chose to estimate the length of a school bus.

⁴² Copyright Everyday Mathematics, University of Chicago.

Math Message Lesson 2.4⁴³

Niko has \$8.00. Does he have enough money to buy 3 fancy pencils for \$1.98 each and an eraser for \$1.73? What is the total cost of 3 pencils and 1 eraser?

Math Message Lesson 3.5

Draw the largest and the smallest circle you can draw with your compass. What is the radius of the largest circle?

Math Message Lesson 4.5

A rope measuring 87.6 m long is cut into 12 equal pieces. Estimate the length of each piece. Be prepared to explain your estimation strategy.

⁴³ Copyright Everyday Mathematics, University of Chicago.

Week Five: Making our language fit the situation

Semana Cinco: Hacer que nuestro lenguaje quede bien con la situación

Overall Objectives

Students will practice style-shifting into the school-based dialect, and demonstrate understanding of the need to match language features with audience and situation.

Objetivo Global

Los estudiantes practicarán a cambiar el estilo de lenguaje hacia el dialecto común de la escuela, y demostrarán entendimiento de la necesidad de combinar bien el lenguaje con la audiencia y la situación.



Day 1/Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will practice style-shifting their language patterns to the school-based dialect.

Los estudiantes practicarán cambiando el estilo de los patrones lingüísticos al dialecto de la escuela.

Day 2/Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will reflect as a group on what they learned about language diversity and the need to match our language with the audience and the situation.

Los estudiantes reflexionarán como un grupo en qué aprendieron sobre la diversidad lingüística y la necesidad de cambiar el estilo de lenguaje para quedar bien con la audiencia y la situación.

Day 1 / Día 1

Objective/Objetivo

Students will practice style-shifting their language patterns to the school-based dialect.
Los estudiantes practicarán cambiando el estilo de los patrones lingüísticos al dialecto de la escuela.

Directions: Switch the informal language to formal language.

Informal English	Formal English
1. I'm gonna divide these numbers.	
2. You wanna translate this sentence for me?	
3. Lemme read this to you.	
Spanglish	Español Formal
1. Vamos a telefonar a tu papá.	
2. Tenemos que chequear los resultados.	
3. Hay que parquear el carro enfrente de la casa.	

Suppose you were principal of the school for a day. What changes would you make? What would you keep the same? Include an introduction, interesting details, and a conclusion.

Okay, so, if I was the principal of my school I would do tons of things. I wanna have more candy for the kids during lunchtime. I'd also get more soccer balls for the fields cuz we need more. Oh yeah. And I also think there should be more swings cuz there ain't enough. Okay that's it.

Day 2 / Día 2

Objective/Objetivo

Students will reflect as a group on what they learned about language diversity and the need to match our language with the audience and the situation.

Los estudiantes pensarán en grupo total en lo que aprendieron sobre la diversidad lingüística y la necesidad de combinar bien el lenguaje con la audiencia y la situación.

What was the most interesting thing you learned?

¿Cuál fue la cosa más interesante que aprendiste?

What can say to someone who thinks another person talks funny or weird?

¿Qué podemos decirle a alguien que cree que otro habla raro o extraño?

Appendix D: Suitability of Principal Components Analysis

Sociolinguistic Knowledge items

The suitability of Principal Components Analysis was assessed prior to analysis; the KMO measures are reported in Table D.1. First, the correlation matrix showed that all variables had at least one correlation coefficient greater than 0.3. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.411, a classification of “unacceptable” according to Kaiser (1974), suggesting this data set may not be factorizable. However, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi^2(45) = 65.896, p < 0.05$), indicating that a Principal Components Analysis was likely appropriate for this data set.

Table D.1: Sociolinguistic Knowledge KMO measures from anti-image correlation

<i>Item</i>	<i>KMO measure</i>
Dialects are different from each other because of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar	.511
I can guess where a person comes from by listening to how he/she talks	.435
People can change how they speak according to the situation	.401
I have an accent when I speak my native language	.555
Everyone speaks a dialect	.326
Dialects are sloppy forms of language	.346
Dialects follow rules or patterns	.530
Sometimes saying “What’s up?” can be more appropriate than saying “Hello how are you?”	.323
Language is always changing	.392
Dialects and slang are the same thing	.343

The PCA revealed four components that had eigenvalues greater than one and which explained 23.5%, 20.7%, 16.2%, and 14.3% of the total variance, respectively. Visual inspection of the scree plot indicated that four components should be retained (Cattell, 1966). The four-component solution explained 74.77% of the total variance. A Varimax orthogonal rotation was employed to aid interpretability. The rotated solution exhibited “simple structure” with all items except three, which displayed cross-loadings on more than one factor: “Language is always changing”, “People can change the way they speak according to the situation”, and “I have an accent when I speak my native language”

The item “Language is always changing” was eliminated because it did not contribute to a simple factor structure and had factor loadings of 0.545 on factor 4 and 0.518 on factor 2. The item “People can change” was retained due to its strong primary loading of 0.784 on factor 3 and a relatively weak cross-loading of 0.385 on factor 1. Likewise, the item “I have an accent” was retained due to its strong primary loading of 0.754 on factor 4 and a relatively weak cross-loading of 0.352 on factor 3. Both of these weaker cross-loadings showed a difference of at least 0.4 between the primary and the secondary loadings, which is considered an acceptable margin. The factor loading matrix for this final solution is presented

in Table 6.1 *Sociolinguistic Knowledge factor loadings and communalities* reported in Chapter 6.

Overall, these analyses indicated that a four-factor structure for 9 out of 10 items was evident, based on a principal components analysis with a Varimax rotation. One of the ten items was eliminated (“Language is always changing”). The first two factors showed high internal consistency, while the second two factors showed low internal consistency. Re-writing the questions could probably strengthen the latter two factors.

Language Attitude items

The correlation matrix showed that two variables did not have at least one correlation coefficient greater than 0.3: Item 12: “The language we learn in school is the correct kind of language” and Item 19: “Formal language is always better than informal language”. These two items were excluded and the analysis was run again.

The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.534, a classification of “miserable” according to Kaiser (1974), suggesting this data set may not be factorizable. The KMO measures are reported in Table D.2. However, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($\chi^2(28) = 66.084$, $p < 0.0001$), indicating that a principal components analysis was likely appropriate for this data set.

Table D.2: Language Attitude KMO measures from anti-image correlation

<i>Item</i>	<i>KMO measure</i>
Item 1: Everyone should speak a language the same way all the time.	.650
Item 2: Some people sound stupid because of how they talk.	.630
Item 4: People from Spain speak better Spanish than people from Mexico.	.493
Item 5: I think everyone speaks his/her native language correctly.	.262
Item 6: People who speak dialects are lazy.	.606
Item 9: People from England speak English better than people from the United States.	.541
Item 14: It is okay to think someone is dumb because of how they talk.	.711
Item 16: I think some accents are better than others.	.323

The PCA revealed three components that had eigenvalues greater than one and which explained 36.64%, 20.65%, and 15.59% of the total variance, respectively. Visual inspection of the scree plot indicated that three components should be retained (Cattell, 1966). The three-component solution explained 72.89% of the total variance. A Varimax orthogonal rotation was employed to aid interpretability. The rotated solution exhibited “simple structure” with all items except one, which displayed cross-loadings on more than one factor: Item 9, “People from England speak better English than people from the United States”, which was subsequently removed from the analysis. The factor loading matrix for this final

solution is presented in Table 7.1 *Language Attitude factor loadings and communalities* reported in Chapter 7. The three factors were named “Accent Superiority”, “Enforced Normativity”, and “Speaker Expertise”.