

Universidad Mayor de San Andrés
Facultad de Humanidades y Cs. de la Educación
Carrera de Lingüística e Idiomas



**THE INFLUENCE OF SPANGLISH ON THE WRITTEN
ENGLISH OF ADULT ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS
FROM LATIN AMERICA**

Tesis de grado presentada para la obtención del Grado de Licenciatura

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**Para optar el grado académico de Licenciado en Lingüística e Idiomas
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ABSTRACT

This research study utilized a qualitative case study method that was focused on Hispanic adult English as a Second Language students at VIDA Ministries, Topeka, Kansas USA. The participants were primarily nontraditional students with diverse educational needs and backgrounds. The case study method helped to understand the reality of using Spanglish (code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing) and how the frequency of use of Spanglish was having negative influences.

Four major findings were identified in the data: 1. Domain influences language choice. 2. The most common transfer because of the use of code switching and code-mixing was the influence on grammatical and lexical cohesion. 3. Spoken language influences the coherence of English writing in ESL students. 4. The spoken language use of ESL students influences their English pragmatic writing. Analysis of the data established that the influence of negative transfer in writing English was confirmed by the results, not only in the vocabulary and grammar, but also the syntax. So, the results gave the basis for recommendations and comment that may be useful for administration and faculty for taking into account for reducing identified negative influences in the skill of writing in the existing system of support to students.

PART I

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Many social scientists and educators of late have been surprised at the growing population of Hispanics in the United States. The most rudimentary demographic study has made it evident: eventually the United States will no longer be a blend of arrivals from the old continent, but instead will be comprised of immigrants from other parts of the world, above all from Latin America (Suarez-Orozco and Paez 2002). The 2010 Census showed a big increase in the Hispanic population compared to 2000. According to the Pew Hispanic Center, “the 2010 Census counted 50.5 million Hispanics in the United States, which made up 16.3% of the total population. The nation’s Latino population, which was 35.3 million in 2000, grew 43% over the decade. The Hispanic population also accounted for most of the nation’s growth – 56% – from 2000 to 2010.”

Immigrants have many needs, especially those who are new to a country like the USA. Some of these needs are basic to the immigrants’ subsistence, like the need to find a job, health insurance and education. One of the keys for satisfying any need is to have a working knowledge of the language, which could be advantageous in achieving personal goals, while the lack of such knowledge is a barrier in attaining them. As Hispanics keep moving to the United States, they need to learn English in order to communicate effectively, even though they continue to use their native language, Spanish, in some contexts. After all, studies of language maintenance and shift suggest that Latinos, more than any other group, tend to remain loyal to their native language: “About 83% of immigrant

Latino youth use their language primarily or exclusively at home” (Suarez-Orozco and Paez 2002; Portes and Rumbaut 1990).

Many of these Spanish speakers use something called Spanglish. The American Oxford English Dictionary (2012) defines Spanglish as “a hybrid language combining words and idioms from both Spanish and English, especially Spanish speech that uses many English words and expressions.” One way of understanding this is to see Spanglish emerging from the “code-switching” and “code-mixing” of English and Spanish. (Code-switching is a phenomenon that happens when bilinguals switch languages for complete sentences or for parts of a sentence [Zentella 2002]; while code-mixing is the use of two languages in such a way that a third, new code emerges, in which elements of the two languages are incorporated into a structurally definable pattern [Maschler 1998].) Spanglish is widely used along the U.S.-Mexican border, but Spanglish also exists in Latin American countries because of contact with English through movies, internet, advertising and other media (Stavans 2003). As Thomason (2001) points out, English is strikingly pervasive beyond the traditional English speaking nations.

The influence of English upon Spanish, and vice versa, is not a new area of study. The globalizing influences of business and technology have led to linguistic globalization, as many people have had cause to learn a second language in different countries. This is true not only for Central American countries, but for South American countries like Bolivia as well. Bolivia recognizes itself as a multicultural country that is trying to incorporate and maintain different cultures and traditional languages, but this is

being challenged by globalization, including the introduction of English, which is a “globalizing” language.

One example of mixed cultures and languages in Bolivia was during the Colonization by the Spaniards, when Spanish was considered the lingua franca. The indigenous languages, such as Quechua, Aymara and others, were considered inferior in nature and controlled or subordinated through political-administrative and evangelistic influences. As a result, many minority groups’ languages have disappeared (Echavez-Solano and others 2007), possibly because of the language contact through creolization that occurred as a result of mixing Spanish-Aymara-Quechua etc. (Coello Vila 2009). These changes may offer us a model for understanding the contact between Spanish and English, which is Spanglish.

In fact, this exact contact between languages is occurring in Bolivia as a result of different events, such as its National Educational Reform, “Abelino Siñani,” approved in December 2010 by President Evo Morales Ayma. This reform was developed with the intention of being part of a globalized educational system where children of every age may learn English. According to this reform, students are required to learn English. However, English has also had a huge influence on the Bolivian population in general. Now, even adults in the military are learning English, and private institutions are teaching English as a Second Language to children, young people, and adults (La Patria, Enero 2011).

Thus, we see that the interaction between English and Spanish is mostly in countries near the USA, but the influence of the English language does not depend exclusively on geographic proximity (Zambrana 2003; Fatima 2004). This is because, as some researchers from the UMSA (Universidad Mayor de San Andres) suggest, English influence in radio and TV broadcasting, as well as reporting may be happening by means of Anglicisms. This is the process by which loan words from the English language become established in other languages, and are then transformed in different linguistic areas, such as phonetics, semantics, and even grammar (Rivadineira Prada 2002). Prada has collected Spanglish words in his dictionary of Anglicisms. For example, he uses words like “parquear”, “boxeador”, “chekear”, “golear,” and so on, and he states that “more than 600 English voices are used right now in the written and spoken language in the main cities in Bolivia.” In addition, he says the influence of English in Bolivia came about gradually, but was not prevalent until the twentieth century, so it has occurred largely due to the advancement of science and technology. This leads one to wonder whether the language contact between English and Spanish may be influencing the performance of written English in Bolivian ESL students as well. This may depend on context; for example, people who live in the city versus in the countryside, people who study English as a second language versus people who are simply exposed to this phenomenon, and people who have the experience of migration and immigration for a period of time.

While the influence of English upon Spanish in Central America and South America has been studied in depth, much remains to be uncovered by the inquiry into

the relationship between Spanish and English in the United States. Spanglish has been developing in Hispanic communities across the USA because of the constant switching between Spanish and English. Spanglish, then, could be considered a tool of communication, a third language or a process of becoming bilingual. (This is conceptualized and analyzed later in Chapter II.) There are different ways in which the use of Spanglish has increased over many years. The most common is through spoken language, but recently it has been appearing in the written language as well. Whoever listens to a radio station (music, interviews, advertisement, etc.) or reads a newspaper (especially those addressed to the Hispanic community) can perceive the phenomenon of Spanglish. “Bueno bye” or “Hasta later” are examples (Newspaper Tree El Paso 2008). At the same time, one can realize that this is not only a phenomenon among regular Hispanic people who are exposed to the English environment and those who are already bilingual (English/Spanish or Spanish/English) (Stavans 2003), but Spanglish is also used among English as a second language (ESL) students. The latter population is the focus of this research.

The current research looks for evidence to determine whether Spanglish has a negative effect upon the written English of five adult Hispanic students learning English as a second language (ESL) but who have Spanish as a mother tongue. This research project involves the qualitative case study method with surveys, observations and interviews as instruments of analysis to identify whether Spanglish is or is not negatively influencing the written performance of the ESL students, resulting in errors, or whether it is simply part of the process of learning English. This research took place in the

eastern side of the city of Topeka, Kansas USA, where the population was largely Hispanic.

Different fields of linguistic study are taken into account, such as applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics. Also, the concept of Spanglish is considered by appealing to instances of code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing for research purposes. Finally, the analysis and results of the written English language of ESL students consider cohesion, coherence and pragmatics in the written performance as well, given that the written English performance was important and had to do with educational improvement and work opportunities in the USA.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.2.1 Description of the Problem

Spanish-speaking Latin Americans have traveled to other countries to achieve economic and social success; this has contributed to globalization. Many people now live in a country completely different from their home culture and language. Such is the case for many Spanish speakers living in the United States of America, who, without necessarily knowing the language of that country (English), have been facing the challenge of learning English as a second language (ESL).

This has been a subject of interest to researchers because of the exchange of both languages (Spanish – English), especially in adult Spanish speakers who are studying ESL and whose English performance shows how Spanish is adapted to English in a

grammatical and syntactic way (e.g. “Wachear, vamos al mall,” or vice versa, “I was looking for el parque”), or by switching back and forth between English and Spanish.

The phenomenon mentioned above, called Spanglish, appears to be a new hybrid phenomenon that could be affecting the writing of the target language (English) in adult ESL learners. Therefore, this research is focused on describing the influence of Spanglish on the written language of adult ESL students and how that is manifested.

1.2.2. Research Question

To what extent is Spanglish found to be, or not, a negative influence in learning written English?

1.2.3. General Research Objective

To determine the extent to which Spanglish is found to be, or not, a negative influence in learning written English by adult ESL Hispanic students.

Specific Objectives:

1. To determine the level of exposure of adult ESL learners to code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing.
2. To determine the influence of Spanglish upon cohesion, coherence and pragmatics in written English language skills of adult ESL students.

1.2.4. Justification for the Research

According to Graham and Walsh (1996), adult learners of English have many reasons for wanting to write. Many need to write to carry out functional tasks such as

filling out forms, taking a message, or writing e-mail messages. Others may need writing skills to succeed in academic studies or to advance in a job. For many learners, writing enhances language acquisition when they put their thoughts on paper and share them with others, because they are often practicing the language structures and vocabulary they are learning in the classroom.

Adult English language learners usually have very specific and immediate goals. For example, they need English one day to get a job the next. If they do not achieve the goal of learning English, they are subject to economic and social consequences, and they struggle with dependency (Cafferty and Engstrom 2002). Here, then, the learning and acquisition of English becomes extremely important for newcomers and new generations, especially in areas where the majority population speaks English. In fact, this explains the purpose of existence for many institutions: to help people in learning ESL.

The Department of Education and the White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanics (2011) states that during the first two years of the Obama Administration (2008–2010), approximately 1.9 million Latinos enrolled in adult education programs to learn the English language and to improve their reading, writing and literacy skills. This constitutes 42 percent of the entire adult education enrollment of 2.2 million students. Furthermore, Latinos comprised 69 percent of the English literacy program enrollment.

The effects of this research will contribute to the understanding of the use of Spanglish by Hispanic adult ESL students in the USA. The results will help to recognize where improvements may be made in ESL programs such as VIDA Ministries, in order to support their students according to their needs. Furthermore, this research will develop a method to measure and describe the influence of Spanglish in the writing of adult ESL students in the context of the USA. While the application cannot be generalized, it may be taken as a reference.

To fulfill the scope of this research, I used mainly instruments of analysis with qualitative resources, which will be given in the methodology chapter, to give a better understanding of the phenomenon (Spanglish).

1.2.5. Delimitation of the Problem

This research takes into account sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, morphology and syntax. The first has to do with language learning and the use of language; the second with the identification, analysis and description of the structure of words; and the last two with the grammatical arrangement of words in sentences. If the negative influence of Spanglish becomes evident in the written language of second language (L2) students, it is exposed in relation to the aforementioned subjects.

A limitation may exist because not much research has been done upon the influence of Spanglish in the written language of ESL students. In addition, gaining access to information in colleges, universities, and private institutions is sometimes

difficult in the USA. General services and information are provided, but research articles and papers are only for people who are part of its institution and not for outsiders.

Hispanic ESL adult students that arrive in the USA with different levels of language backgrounds have the challenge of learning English. These students encounter the unique experience of a non-traditional process of education because of their age, education, social and immigration status. Fortunately there are private institutions such as non-profit organizations and churches, which offer free English classes with more opportunities and services than state and government institutions. This enables some to pursue better jobs or even educational opportunities to get a degree.

ESL students may be facing different influences in the performance of the hosted language (English). In fact, the most obvious language influence—in this case, the language barrier of speaking Spanish—may mask other more subtle barriers that will need to be overcome by students attempting to improve their English. Therefore, this research is designed to investigate the influence of Spanglish upon the written English of adult students, with the ultimate goal of supporting these students in their effort to achieve a higher standard of living through education in a foreign country.

PART II

2.1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The phenomenon of Spanglish has gained the attention of many social scientists, linguists, and educators due to its complexity and background. An understanding of the concepts of bilingualism, code-switching and code-mixing is necessary in order to understand the Spanglish phenomenon. Both borrowing and Spanglish itself emerge as products of the contact of two languages, in this case Spanish and English. It is necessary to investigate whether or not these phenomena affect the writing skills of adult ESL students. Additionally, the topic of writing in ESL students is important in Applied Linguistics, where we can where we can ascertain whether ESL students are fulfilling the written component of their studies.

2.1.1 Bilingualism

Language contact has been a topic of interest for linguists because of the ways in which languages change as a result of this contact. Many authors agree that blended languages are a result of globalization, and that one of the effects of immigration is languages coming into contact, which results in bilingualism and code-switching. Spanglish is a blended language, as immigration has contributed especially to the hybridization of Spanish and English. So, languages that come into contact as an effect of globalization and migration have resulted in the assimilation of cultural identities, which, in turn, have caused language phenomena such as forced bilingualism.

According to Rene Appel and Pieter Muysken, “Language in contact inevitably leads to bilingualism which occurs when in a given society two or more languages are spoken” (1991:1). People become bilingual because life requires the use of two or more languages. This can be due to immigration, education, intermarriage, contact with other linguistic groups within a country and so on (Grosjean 2010). Besides that, the practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved, bilingual (Mougeon and Beniak 1991).

There are different points of view regarding who can be considered bilingual and different criteria for bilingualism, for instance, people who speak two languages, or those who have native control of two languages (Webster English Dictionary 1995). In contrast, one may be called bilingual if that person has some second-language skills in one of the four areas (speaking, listening, writing, reading), in addition to his or her first language skills (Macnamara 1969). These different perspectives are natural: bilingualism is not a concept that is easily defined, but rather complicated because it is related to complex social issues (Harding and Riley 1994). However, despite the perspectival complexity in determining clearly who is bilingual, Macnamara’s conception of bilingualism fits for adult bilinguals who are forced to learn English as a result of living in the USA, especially where the Hispanic population is lesser and the English population is predominant. Nevertheless, although we may understand bilinguals as those who use two languages, they remain difficult to label, depending on what they are able to do in which language, as well as their relationship with the people they talk to and the kinds of things they talk about. An example of this would be an adult

Hispanic who goes to the doctor “knowing English,” but is unable to give his medical history due to a lack of appropriate vocabulary. Something similar could happen with a person trying to get services for their house or apartment, trying to obtain health insurance, paying taxes, etc.

Likewise, when viewed from the sociolinguistic perspective, the concept of bilingualism can be applied to different kind of bilinguals. According to Harding and Riley (1994), the two categories are elitist and folk bilinguals. The elitist considers being bilingual as a privilege of the middle or upper classes, while educated members of most societies consider it as a result of the condition of ethnic groups; the folk bilingual is the common result of a person who has to become bilingual involuntarily in order to survive and who then adjusts to the use of the majority language. The latter group is representative of many adults in the USA. In addition, Mougeon and Beniak (1991) state that the restricted users of a minority language may show a pattern either of compartmentalized language use (as when the minority language continues to be used categorically in those societal domains where it is possible to use it, e.g. at home) or of un compartmentalized language use (as when the majority language is allowed to penetrate into these domains); these patterns may be seen with respect to the use of Spanish and English with adult Hispanic immigrants where Spanish is used mostly at home and English elsewhere.

There is, with respect to the phenomenon of bilingualism, a misunderstanding about the linguistic knowledge and the accent of bilinguals. Grosjean claims that a bilingual knows two languages to the extent that each language is needed. Some

bilinguals are dominant in one language, others do not know how to read and write one of their languages, others have only passive knowledge of a language and, finally, a very small minority has equal and perfect fluency in both languages. In fact, bilinguals are as diverse as monolinguals, and the presence of an accent does not make one more or less bilingual; rather, the presence of an accent has more to do with when the language was acquired. Thus, some extremely fluent and balanced bilinguals have an accent in one language or the other, while less fluent bilinguals may have no accent at all (Grosjean 2010).

It has been said that bilinguals acquire language fluency in childhood, but Grosjean says, “One can become bilingual in childhood, but also in adolescence and in adulthood. In fact, many adults become bilingual because they move from one country (or region) to another and have to acquire a second language” (2010:20, 85). He adds that adults can become just as bilingual as children who acquire their languages in their early years, although they usually do not acquire the accent of a native speaker. Late bilinguals who become bilingual in youth or adulthood are the object of study in the current project.

For many years, the education of bilinguals has been important for Hispanic-American children and for adult immigrants. Hispanics are the least-educated major racial ethnic group in the USA. Just 11 percent of those over the age of 25 have a bachelor’s degree and more than two-fifths of Hispanic adults over 25 never graduated from high school, while more than one-fourth have less than a ninth grade education (McCaffrey 2007). On the other hand, McCaffrey adds that the success of integrating

Hispanic immigrants into the American community depends on the educational system. Some people from the English Only movement promote total immersion, while immigration advocates tend toward a bilingual approach to education.

In most bilingual communities, the two languages do not have equal status. Minority language speakers have been at a disadvantage, and have sometimes been oppressed (Appel and Muysken 1987). Even though there are two models of education for bilinguals, one with the purpose of assimilating students into an English-speaking culture and the other model with the aim of preserving the mother tongue, the existence of these two models is purely theoretical and do not exist in current educational practices. In addition, institutions in the USA that offer ESL classes frequently do so for legal immigrants only, and do not permit illegal aliens. On the other hand, there are Hispanic institutions and churches that offer ESL classes to any newcomer.

2.1.2 Code-Switching and Code-Mixing

Bilingualism gives way to another phenomenon called code-switching. According to Shin and Otheguy (2009), code-switching is expected in bilinguals. Different authors agree that code-switching happens when bilinguals switch languages with complete sentences or with parts of a sentence. “A common phenomenon in societies in which two or more languages are used, it occurs far more often in conversation than in writing, where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence” (Zentella 2002: 37). This definition can be applied to

adult immigrants in the USA who switch between Spanish and English on a daily basis, depending on their context of interaction.

It is necessary to recognize that there is some rejection of the code-switching phenomenon. Many native Spanish-speakers object to code-switching as a perversion of the Spanish language, and as a sign of cultural assimilation. Code-switching and code-mixing are often viewed as abnormal and their users characterized as lazy, sloppy, and cognitively confused. Even more, many outsiders see code-mixing as a sign of linguistic decay which is the unsystematic result of not knowing at least one of the languages involved very well (Callahan 2004 and Lipski 2008). So, many linguists have tried to understand how code-switching works and why bilinguals use it.

Suarez and Paez (2002) write that the ideal bilingual switches from one language to the other according to appropriate changes in the speech situation, but not in an unchanged speech situation, and certainly not within a single sentence. It is clear that there are different types of code-switching (Appel and Muysken 1987):

- a) Tag-switches involve an exclamation, such as, “Oye, when I was a freshman...” at the beginning of the text.
- b) Intra-sentential switches occur in the middle of a sentence, as in “I started acting real *curiosa* and I thought”, which is also called code-mixing.
- c) Inter-sentential switches occur between sentences: “Can’t you see? Y luego *este*. I started seeing like little stars all over the place”.

d) The calque type is a literal translation of an expression from another language. E.g. “Le voy a llamar para atras” (I am going to call him back).

Some authors have tried to differentiate code-switching from code-mixing, even though Ping Liu (2006) claims that very often code-switching is used synonymously with code-mixing and basically means intra-sentential code-switching. Nevertheless, the finer distinctions between linguistic concepts are highly debated among linguists, because their meanings are related but a little bit different. According to Eva Mendieta (1999), code-switching implies inserting part of a language into a sentence (or fragment of a sentence) built with the grammar of what is phonetically, morphologically and syntactically a different language. An example of this would be, “Y me empujaron, bueno, yo no me iba a quedar dejao, you know, pues.”

Appel and Muysken (1987) differentiate in code-mixing the use of two languages in one sentence where the non-native items are adapted morphologically and phonologically for example: a common sentence of a Spanish speaker is “lo puso under arrest.” It sounds fluent and the second part in English complements without problem. Walte (2006) defines code-mixing or a mixed code as using two languages in such a way that a third, new code emerges, in which elements of the two languages are incorporated into a structurally definable pattern. In other words, when two code-switched languages constitute the appearance of a third, it has structural characteristics special to that new code. Appel and Myusken (2000) point out three processes or types of code-mixing:

1. The insertion of material of language B into a sentence that otherwise belongs to language A. e.g. “Yo anduve in a state of shock por dos dias”
2. Alternation, which is the succession of fragments in language A and B in a sentence, which is not generally identifiable as belonging to A or B. e.g. “Andale pues, and do and come again.”
3. 3.Congruent lexicalization, which is the use of elements of either language in a structure that is wholly or partly shared by languages A and B. e.g. “ Bueno, in other words, el flight que sale de Chicago around three o’ clock.”

Another factor that is necessary to consider is the reason why people switch between languages. As Appel and Muysken point out, the following functions may be involved:

1. The referential function involves lack of knowledge of one language to talk about certain topics.
2. The directive function involves the hearer directly. One way is to exclude some people from the conversation, and the opposite is to include people in the conversation.
3. The mixed function is used to stress the identity of the person like Hispanic/Latino, Asian, Indian, etc.
4. The phatic function indicates the tone of the conversation. For example comedians use it to tell a joke and have it make sense.

5. The metalinguistic function is used to comment directly and indirectly on the language from which the code is switched to impress and show linguistic skills.
6. The poetic function involves puns, jokes, etc.

At the same time, some researchers like Catherine Rivard (2010) state that code-switching has been observed to have several main functions. First, all code-switching signals a change of direction in some manner. This function can further be divided into changes that are “discourse-related,” such as a new addressee, new topic, new segment etc., or “participant-related” indicating linguistic preference or proficiency (Rampton 1995). These various changes in direction by the bilingual speaker may be unconscious in the immediate comprehension while at the same time being quite intentional choices in the brain (Heller 1988). Furthermore, Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) note that code-switching occurs in the negotiation of identities when the language is chosen to best convey the rights and characteristics of the subject. However, their research also serves as a reminder that identity is not the only factor influencing code-switching and must not be given undue weight in exploring this language practice.

Second, code-switching is a “boundary-leveling or boundary-maintaining strategy, which contributes to the definition of roles and role relationships” (Heller 1988). In this manner, it is used to help establish the language of intimacy versus distance (García 2005) as well as to differentiate between the in-group and outsiders (Pavlenko and Blackledge 2004). In many cases, it is used within the in-group to affirm

solidarity, where there are shared expectations and understandings of the interpretation of code-switching (Rampton 1995).

Finally, code-switching is frequently used as a strategy to assist in basic communication. García (2005) notes that code-switching is often used for clarification or as a teaching device, to reach out to the other person's level of fluency, or even as an intermediate stage in language learning. In this final category, Rampton (1995) observes that code-switching is used to cross boundaries by speakers whose second language is not yet fully ingrained. Despite the differences between code-switching and code-mixing, it is clear that both are related to the language use of bilinguals.

2.1.3. Borrowing

Borrowing is the use of a word from another language, which demonstrates morphological/phonological adaptation to the matrix language (Bloomfield 1933). Often it represents the appropriation of a term not available in the matrix language, e.g. “Va a emeilear a su vecino” (“She is going to email her neighbor”). That said, borrowing implies the incorporation of a lexeme L2 (i.e., second language), or a compound that can work like it, in an L1 (i.e., primary language) context, e.g., “Hay trocas y hay mucha gente.” Although guided by the same motivation, lexical borrowing and code-switching (CS) are not the same. In both cases, both monolingual and bilingual speakers insert elements from one language into the grammatical frame of another because they are motivated by the need to express themselves.

Bentahila and Davies (1983) suggest two criteria for distinguishing code-mixing and borrowing. First, borrowing can be used by both monolinguals and bilinguals since borrowed items have become part of the lexicon of the host language, whereas code-switching is featured in the speech of bilinguals only. Second, borrowing involves phonological and morphological adaptation of the lexical items into the host language, while code-switching does not. However, this criterion has been criticized. Studies have shown that code-switched elements can undergo morphological and phonological adaptation in the base language, for example: I ate tacos with rice and beans, estaba bueno.

Zentella (1997) gives the following examples of English loan words used by Spanish monolinguals in New York City: *londri* (“laundry”), *lonchea* (“to lunch”), and *biles* (“bills”). She explains that these words have been adapted phonologically and morpho-syntactically to the extent that the second generation believes them to be Spanish words. When countries share geographical or political arenas, such as in the case of immigration or invasions, borrowing takes place. It is more common for immigrants and conquered people to borrow items from the dominant or privileged group (Thomason & Kaufman, 1988). Both English and Spanish borrow words from the other.

Thomason and Kaufman (1988) demonstrate that, due to cultural pressure, borrowing involves the adoption of a foreign vocabulary first, and of structure second. The intensity of the cultural pressure is determined by the duration of contact and the degree of bilingualism. Also, second-language learners who do not master the new

language will make language changes. As non-native speakers, they will consciously use the new vocabulary but keep the grammar of their L1 (native language). Thus, Thomason and Kaufman conclude that “the more internal [the] structure [...], the more intense the contact must be in order to result in structural borrowing” (1988).

Thomason and Kaufman identify five different degrees of contact. They are listed here in increasing degrees: (1) casual contact, where there is lexical borrowing only, and the borrowing is limited to content words (such as nouns and verbs) that are not part of core vocabulary; (2) slightly more intense contact, where some function words are borrowed, such as conjunctions and adverbial particles; (3) more intense contact, where personal and demonstrative pronouns may be borrowed (here, more structural borrowing can be seen and inflectional affixes may enter on the loan words); (4) strong cultural pressure, where structural features are borrowed (for example, when inflectional affixes are borrowed and added to native words); (5) very strong cultural pressure where structural borrowing is heavy and there are changes in the structure of words (for example, adding prefixes and pronominal affixes.) Some examples are given in Tables 2.1 and 2.2.

Table 2.1 – Noun borrowings

| From Spanish to English | From English to Spanish |
|-------------------------|--|
| Adobe (adobe) | Chaguear (shower) (In Spanish: ducha) |
| Alpaca (alpaca) | Troka (truck) (In Spanish: camion/camioneta) |
| Armadillo (armadillo) | Lonche (lunch) (In Spanish: almuerzo) |
| Barricade (barricada) | Traila (trailer) (In Spanish: remolque) |
| Cannibal (cannibal) | Aseguranza (insurance) (In Spanish: seguro) |
| Canyon (cañon) | Baica or baika(bike)(In Spanish: bicicleta) |

Table 2.2 – Terms coined in Spanish and borrowed from English

| Spanish | Entry Area | English |
|-------------|----------------|-------------|
| “Corner” | Sport | “Corner” |
| “Ofsайд” | Sport | “Offside” |
| “Gol” | Sport | “Goal” |
| “Fax” | Technology | “Fax” |
| “Email” | Technology | “Email” |
| “Software” | Technology | “Software” |
| “Marketing” | Business | “Marketing” |
| “Shopping” | Business | “Shopping” |
| “Bus” | Transportation | “Bus” |
| “Taxi” | Transportation | “Taxi” |

The speaker's ability to keep languages separate, proficiency in each, attitude toward each, the domains and use of each, and the number of speakers of each all affect the kinds of borrowings that take place (Weinreich, 1968 as cited in Zentella, 1997). Thus, one may conclude that immigrants use loan words whenever languages are in contact.

2.1.4. What is Spanglish?

Spanglish is generally believed to be a mixture of Spanish and English (Webster English Dictionary 1965). Alternating between English and Spanish is the most common and visible characteristic of Spanglish (Stavans 2000). Other names for Spanglish are: espangles or spangles (español (Spanish) + ingles (English), casteyanqui (castellano (Castilian) + yanqui), inglañol (ingles (English) + español (Spanish), argot sajón (saxon jargon), español bastardo (bastard Spanish), papiamento gringo, calo pachuco and a bilingual manifesto (bilingual manifest) (Stavans, 2000).

There are different varieties of Spanglish, just as there are different varieties of Spanish or English. These varieties depend on important factors such as nationality, age, and class, and vary in morphology, structure, phonology, and/or terminology. For example, the variant spoken by Cuban-Americans, also called Cubonics, is different from the Dominicanish spoken in Washington Heights by immigrants from the Dominican Republic, the Nuyoricán Spanglish that Puerto Ricans speak in New York, the Pachuco spoken by Mexicans in El Paso, or the Sagüesera spoken in South West Street in Miami (Stavans 2000).

Despite these differences, Stavans (2003) argues that the path towards a standardized form is open because the tools to decode it are in the culture. He considers Spanglish to be a language in its own right not only because it is potentially understood and spoken by over 45 million speakers in the U.S. and 250 million in the world, but because it is found across social and economic levels as well as in various nations. Thus, Spanglish becomes the “unifier” of a larger group that comes from different Spanish-speaking countries.

Others, such as Franco (2004), are not sure whether Spanglish is a language. Although it has incorporated many formal rules, it is difficult to know whether to call it a dialect, a Creole, an interlanguage or a language. He has suggested that it might be a creolized language with a more complex and developed syntax and vocabulary, but that it is not a dialect because it does not deserve the pejorative connotation the word carries. Although there are many different perspectives and approaches to Spanglish, it is not within the scope of this research to further discuss the linguistic status of the Spanglish phenomenon.

Spanglish, like other social and linguistic phenomena, could not exist apart from history. Its historical background can be located during the time after the Mexican-American war when a treaty was established in 1848. Many Spanish speakers remained in the land that was ceded to the USA by Mexico. This event began a great exodus from Latin America to North America, and especially to the southwestern part of the country. Even today, many people are emigrating from other parts of the Americas to North

America, and vice versa, and this migration is key to the sophistication of Spanglish (Stavans 2003; Morales 2002).

Spanglish is a bigger part of bilingual life than ever before in places where large populations of Hispanics have contact with English. Code-switching and borrowing seem to be the most frequent phenomena present in Spanglish (Ghirardini 2006; McCaffrey 2007). Ghirardini states that intra-sentential code-switching or code-mixing is the most frequent pattern and that borrowing shows the influence of one culture on another. Orsi (2008) adds that both English and Spanish borrow words from each other. The imbalance of this phenomenon is influenced by the advantage of power, prestige, and/or wealth enjoyed by the community that speaks Spanish. It seems that many words borrowed from English into Spanish have to do with science, technology, computing, the Internet and sports.

Some characteristics in the use of Spanglish show the use of English verb roots adding the Spanish infinitive ending marker –ar. Example: “liquear”= to leak instead of the Spanish verb “perder” or “derramar.” Infinitive marker endings in Spanish are: -ar, -er and -ir. However, most infinitives in Spanish end in –ar. Examples are: amar (to love), hablar (to talk), limpiar (to clean), and jugar (to play). See Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 – Examples of Infinitives

| Spanglish | English | Spanish |
|-------------|----------------|-----------------------|
| “Formatear” | “to format” | “dar forma” |
| “chatear” | “to chat” | “clarlar” |
| “Nerdear” | “to be a nerd” | “actuar como un nerd” |
| “Liquear” | “to leak” | “derramar” |

As shown in the example, to form verbs in Spanglish, the most frequent ending to mark the infinitive is not -ar (infinitive marker) using an English root verb but rather –ear. It appears that Spanglish undergoes an adaptation by adding <e> to the –ar infinitive marker. It can happen with the affix [-eando] which corresponds to its counterpart in English -ing to form the progressive forms, i.e. “Yo estoy chateando” = “I am chatting.” Thus, Spanglish seems to follow the inflectional markers of its mother language, Spanish.

Likewise, with nouns, Spanish seems to rule the adjective noun agreement, thus assigning gender and number to English nouns. Gender and number are also assigned to nouns in Spanglish. An English noun is assigned a determiner that marks feminine or masculine gender and/or singular or plural. See Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 – Examples of Gender and Number Assignment to English Nouns in

Spanglish

| Singular | Plural | Singular | Plural | English | Spanish |
|-------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| Masculine | Masculine | Feminine | Feminine | | |
| | | "la troka" | "las trokas" | "the truck" | "la camioneta" |
| | | "la jaiwei" | "las jaiweis" | "the highways" | "la autopista" |
| "el rufo" | "los rufos" | | | "the roofs" | "los techos" |
| "el lonche" | "los lonches" | | | "the lunch" | "el almuerzo" |

Sociolinguists have identified complex linguistic constraints and syntactic hierarchies that Latino code-switchers of all backgrounds acquire and honor. In fact, it has been documented that Spanglish speakers ably juggle two grammars without harming either one (Zentella 1983; Poplack and Sankoff 1988.) Orsi (2008) finds that the social context and language choice are closely related for Spanglish users, and that this contributes to making communication happen. Bilingual-bicultural individuals share a contextual understanding, as well as a vast repertoire of shifting. Previous graphophonic, syntactic, semantic and pragmatic knowledge of the L1 systems permits the speaker of a second language to actively change “text” during the creative transaction (Goodman 1987).

This section was intended to explain some of the characteristics of Spanglish. For the current research objective, this study has considered Spanglish to be an increasing phenomenon that incorporates code-switching, code-mixing, and borrowing. That said, a thorough linguistic analysis of the phenomenon of Spanglish is beyond the scope of this study.

2.1.5. Effects on Writing of Adult ESL Students

There is cause for viewing code-switching as language interference, particularly from a teaching perspective. In this situation, the environment is set up so that interference may occur as the societal norm moves to the inclusion of code-switching and the degree of bilingualism increases. Interference may occur in this instance by monolingual speakers who attempt to use a second language for a social reason such as solidarity or by bilingual speakers attempting to integrate the second language into the first to be understood by monolingual speakers.

Code-switching may be viewed as an extension of language for bilingual speakers rather than interference, but from other perspectives it may be viewed as interference, depending on the situation and context in which it occurs. The switching also occurs within postulated universal constraints such that it may be integrated into conversations in a particular manner (Poplack 1980; Cook 1991). On this basis, given that it occurs within a particular pattern, the potential for code-switching to interfere in a language exists. Again, scope for code-switching to cause interference in a language exists if it is not used carefully as a teaching method. It may then be concluded that when code-switching is used to compensate for a language difficulty, it may be viewed as interference, but when it is used as a sociolinguistic tool it should not (Skiba 1997).

Interference is the deviation from the norm of either language, which occurs in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language (Mougeon and Beniak 1991). Thomason (2001) understands interference to be the

transfer of a structure of one language into another language in which that structure is not permissible. Interference (more often called transfer) in psycholinguistics is acceptable because the integrity of the target language is not at stake. In sociolinguistics, however, there is a concern with bilingual speech communities, which are very often linguistic minorities (Mougeon and Beniak 1991). At the same time, sociolinguists point out that interference is one indication of language dominance. In those cases where the bilingual is not absolutely balanced, one language is said to be dominant and people who speak only one language have areas in which they are especially skilled and other areas in which they are ignorant. So, in bilinguals, the dominance of one language should not be thought of in any way as being unhealthy or unusual. Rather, one further manifestation of dominance is the bilingual's preference for one language over the others. If a bilingual is allowed to choose one language and is asked to talk about a number of topics, a clear preference can be discerned.

Interference can occur at any level of language structure or function. One of the first levels is the phonetic level, which gives rise to foreign accent. The level of vocabulary interference usually manifests itself by a failure to choose correctly between related words, but interference can also take place in grammatical structures. A common example of this is the ordering of words according to the rules of the dominant language. The more active (dominant) language determines which mental dictionary will be accessed faster (Mougeon and Beniak 1991).

Code-switching may be indicative of difficulties in retrieval (access) affected by a combination of closely-related factors such as language use (i.e., how often the first

language is used) and word frequency (i.e., how much a particular word is used in the language) (Heredia 1997). For example, Tomas Mario Kalmar (2001) assigns the term “hybrid alphabet” to the writing of some Latino immigrants in the USA, because Hispanics mix English and Spanish where the preference for Spanish is apparent.

The Educational page of Colorado State University shows some questions for teachers when teaching English to ESL students to verify different influences that may have a negative impact upon linguistic ability:

What language skills are already present? Can the students hold a conversation in English but not read and write, or vice versa? Some Asian countries are known for teaching written English and grammar while oral skills lag behind. On the other hand, immigrants who have learned most of their English on the street may have little or no competence with written English. Some students may appear fairly fluent when you meet them, but communication may break down quickly when the topic changes. Or you may meet a student who appears to have minimal speaking skills and discover later that the silence was due to shyness rather than a lack of comprehension. Of course, students who are not literate in their own language will need a different approach to ESL than those who are, since it would be necessary to address the lack of reading and writing ability by beginning from where they are in their own language.

Another factor for ESL students that impedes learning or has a negative influence on the command of a skill or part of the L2 due to differences between L1 & L2 is positive and negative transfer. Some of these negative transfers would be age,

focus, limited quantity of L2 input, and linguistic distance between L2 and L1. The term “negative transfer” is used by linguists in the study of second language acquisition and refers to the practice that new language learners have of applying rules from their native language to the language being learned. This transfer may be on a grammatical, phonological level, or syntactical level. When L1 speakers attempt to learn another language (L2, 3 etc.), they will often unknowingly “transfer” these unspoken rules to the language they are attempting to learn. Even when one is learning, the L1 speaker unknowingly continues to make such changes when speaking the L2. That is negative transfer, because doing so creates a situation in which the L2 is not being spoken as though it were by a native, and thus, in a way, it is being spoken negatively and that is precisely because those rules from the L1 are transferring across to the L2.

Because the transfer may occur in different areas of the language being learned, it is useful to identify some differences between English and Spanish where the negative influence may happen.

1. Alphabet: Spanish uses the Latin alphabet. The vowels can take an acute accent, and there is the additional letter ñ. When spelling English words or writing them from the teacher’s dictation, beginning Spanish students may make mistakes with the English vowels a, e, and i. The consonants h, j, r, y may also be problematic, since they have significantly different names in Spanish. The English writing system itself causes no particular problem to Spanish learners. Beginners, however, may be tempted to punctuate questions or exclamations as follows, since this is how it is done in Spanish:

¿What is your name? ¡What a goal! Punctuation of direct speech may also be a problem because quotation marks are not used in Spanish.

2. Phonology: The phonological system of Spanish is significantly different from that of English, particularly as it relates to vowel sounds and sentence stress. These differences are very serious obstacles to Spanish learners being able to acquire a native English-speaker accent. According to Coe (1987), “European Spanish speakers, in particular, probably find English pronunciation harder than speakers of any other European language.” Spanish has 5 pure vowels and 5 diphthongs. The length of the vowel is not significant in distinguishing between words. This contrasts with English, which has 12 pure vowel sounds and 8 diphthongs. The length of the vowel sound plays an important role. It is not surprising, therefore, that Spanish learners may have great difficulty in producing or even perceiving the various English vowel sounds. Specific problems include the failure to distinguish the sounds in words such as ship/sheep, taught/tot, fool/full or cart/cat/cut.

Coe (1987) explains that producing English consonant sounds is not so problematic for many Spanish learners, but they are still difficult enough! They may have problems in the following aspects:

-Failure to pronounce the end consonant accurately or strongly enough (e.g. “cart” for the English word “card,” or “brish” for “bridge,” or “thing” for “think.”)

-Problems with the /v/ in words such as “vowel” or “revive.”

-Difficulties in sufficiently distinguishing words such as “see”/“she” or “jeep”/“sheep”/“cheap.”

-The tendency to prefix words beginning with a consonant cluster on s- with an /ɪ/ sound, so, for example, “school” becomes “eschool” and “strip” becomes “estrip.”

-The swallowing of sounds in other consonant clusters; examples: “nest” becomes “nes” and “instead” becomes “istead.”

Spanish is a syllable-timed language. When Spanish speakers transfer the intonation patterns of their mother tongue into English, which is a stress-timed language, the result can be barely comprehensible to native English speakers. This is because the meaning or information usually conveyed in English by the combination of stress, pitch and rhythm in a sentence is flattened or evened out by the Spanish learner.

3. Grammar-Verb/Tense: Although Spanish is a much more heavily inflected language than English, there are many aspects of grammar that are similar. The major problem for the Spanish speaking ESL learner is that there is no one-to-one correspondence in the use of the tenses. So, for example, an ESL student might incorrectly use the present tense instead of the progressive or the future: “She has a shower” instead of “She’s taking a shower;” “I help you after school” instead of “I’ll help you after school.” Problematic for beginners is the formation of interrogatives or negatives in English. The absence of an auxiliary in such structures in Spanish may cause the learner to say things such as, “Why you say that?” “Who he saw?” “Do you saw him?,” “I no see him,” or “I not saw him.”

Another grammatical factor is that Spanish word order is generally subject-verb-object, like English. However, Spanish allows more flexibility than English, and generally places words that are to be emphasized at the end of the sentence. This may result in non-standard syntax when Spanish learners speak or write English. There are numerous other minor differences in the two languages that may result in negative transfer. Here are a few examples where the way that things are done in Spanish can be inferred from the mistakes in English: “Do you have sister?”; “It’s not easy learn English”; “Have you seen he?”; “I am more tall than my brother”; “Was snowing when I got up”; “She took off the glasses.”

Vocabulary: Due to shared Latin influence, English and Spanish have many cognates. Since the Latin-derived words in English tend to be more formal, the Spanish student will benefit when reading academic texts. He or she may sound too formal, however, if using such words in everyday spoken English. Conversely, phrasal verbs, which are an essential aspect of colloquial English, are difficult for Spanish learners and may obstruct listening comprehension. Additionally, noun groups such as the standard language classroom teacher-student interaction pattern, commonly found in academic English texts, are troublesome for Spanish speakers, whose language post-modifies nouns.

Miscellaneous: Spanish has a strong correspondence between the sound of a word and its spelling. The irregularity of English in this respect causes predictable problems when Spanish learners write a word they learned in spoken language or say a word first seen in written language. A specific problem concerns the spelling of English

words with double letters. Spanish has only 3 double-letter combinations: cc, ll, and rr. English, in comparison, has 5 times as many. Spanish learners often reduce English double letters to a single one, or overcompensate by doubling a letter unnecessarily; for example, “hopping” instead of “hoping” for the present participle of “to hope” (Coe 1987; Swan and Smith 1987).

Finally, persistent negative influence may lead to mistakes, and these to errors and fossilization. Fossilization, or the cessation of learning, is recognized as a widespread phenomenon in second language acquisition. Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he or she receives in the target language.

However, it is extremely rare for the learner of an L2 to achieve full native-like competence. Fossilization is a reality and there are many examples of it, such as those given by Timothy Mason (2002) who talks about Mukkatesh, who studied the written production of 80 students at a Jordania university, and found that, after 11 years of instruction in English, they continued making errors such as the use of simple past instead of simple present. No amount of grammatical explanation or of error correction had any effect. As this implies, a student may continue to make progress in certain areas, and yet return again and again to the same error. Thus, for example, it was found that among advanced students who communicate with great skill and who make very few errors, still many could not master the pluperfect tense in English.

Therefore, an influence on the spoken language may take place because of Spanglish, e.g. positive or negative transfer. This transfer could also occur in writing, as we will discuss next.

The effects of Spanglish can be seen in written language. Cafferty and Engstrom (2002) say that the cost of being assimilated is a challenge for Hispanic immigrants in the USA, because those who are not able to speak and write English have been classified as illiterate and often as ignorant, and have been subjected to social and economic consequences. It has already been mentioned that Spanglish occurs more in spoken language than in written language. So, this part of the paper will show how code-switching and code-mixing could be affecting the written English of Hispanic ESL students as well.

According to Zhu Xuandong (2002), speaking has a great influence upon the formulation of ideas for writing and the acquisition of structure for our writing. If students are encouraged to speak the words correctly, this may have a positive influence on their writing as well. These statements show us the opposite also: if the spoken language can influence our writing positively, it may affect it negatively as well.

Kalmar (2001) relates one bilingual literacy method that enables students to begin writing “English” without knowing how to spell. Speakers of Spanish (and other phonetic languages) often have difficulty writing, spelling, and even pronouncing English. Zamel (1983) found that unskilled L2 writers wrote like unskilled L1 writers and that the inability to compose competence was separate from oral proficiency. Lack

of L1 cognitive academic development, a somewhat broader concept than writing competence, affected L2 learners' composition skills. Pianko (1979) concluded that the problem of unskilled writers may result from a "truncated writing process." Raimes found that his subjects' composing competence did not correspond with their linguistic competence, a recurring finding in L2 writing research. He conjectured that L2 writers may not be "as concerned with accuracy as was thought they were, that their primary concern is to get down on paper their ideas on a topic" (1985: 20). Finally, he recommended the use of the composing-aloud protocol as an effective pedagogical strategy. L2 writers represent a variety of types of backgrounds and needs. An L2 composition class may represent at least half a dozen strikingly different cultures, very different educational backgrounds, ages ranging from sixteen to sixty in adults, and very different needs for being able to write in a foreign language.

Some studies have concluded that, as a rule, at least some aspects of the first language crop up in the writing of a second language (Michael Gasser, 2007). They have compared L1 and L2 writing processes, and have investigated the influence of L1 writing process on L2 writing process. So, spoken Spanglish could be influencing the writing of ESL Hispanic students whose goal is to write accurate English. From the teaching perspective, the students must acquire the necessary skills for a determined level of English.

Here it is important to mention that the L2 student's production of a text can be evaluated according to cohesion, coherence and pragmatics. These categories, as well as the thematic organization of the text, may be evaluated positively or negatively (Eliche

1990). According to Castellanos (2008), cohesion and coherence are linked to the comprehension and production of text. Cohesion is established between words and sentences in a text to give it sense. A cohesive text will always be more comprehensible because it involves grammatical cohesion, which refers to the logical and structural rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases, and words in any given natural language. The term refers also to the study of such rules, and this field includes morphology and syntax, often complemented by semantics and pragmatics. Castellanos points out different mechanisms to give cohesion to a text, which are outlined in the following:

Cohesion:

1. Reference: This mechanism establishes a relationship between an element with other elements in the same text or in the situational context. The identification of the reference is very important for the comprehension of the text. There are two types of reference:
 - a) Anaphoric reference occurs when the writer refers back to somebody or something that has been previously identified, to avoid repetition (e.g., “The taxi driver stopped to pick up the passengers. Then she asked for their destination,” where “she” is an anaphoric reference to “taxi driver.”)
 - b) Cataphoric reference is the opposite of anaphora: a reference forward as opposed to backwards in the discourse. Something is introduced in the

abstract before it is identified (e.g., “Here she comes... Our winning host... It’s Cristina!”)

Both examples belong to the endophoric relationship, which establishes a referent in the same text. Castellanos adds exophoric as another mechanism, but other authors like Halliday and Hasan (1976) consider exophoric reference as not cohesive, since it does not tie two elements together in a text.

2. Substitution: A word can be used as a substitute for another more specific word. For example, “Which ice cream would you like?” “I would like the pink one.” In this instance “one” is replacing ice cream.
3. Ellipsis: This is a cohesive device where after more specific mention, words are omitted and the phrase is repeated when needed. For instance:

A. “Where are you going?”

B. “To town”

The full form would be “I am going to town.”

4. Connectors: These connect expressions of transition to establish a logical relationship within the text. They may be adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions, nouns and prepositional phrases (e.g. “I went home, then I took a shower.”)
5. Repetition: It is a necessity for the text more than it is a quality, however, the text would be unbalanced there were to be excessive repetition. There are two kinds: designative (e.g., “I will be in this office, and you will be over there”) and lexical

(e.g., “The ideological and intellectual movement developed in the XVIII Century. This cultural phenomenon had political, social and economic impact.”)

6. Punctuation: It gives to the reader fundamental guidelines to make sense of the text. It serves many functions, such as eliminating ambiguity, underlining ideas, etc., (e.g., “My family likes swimming, but they hate other sports.”)

Coherence:

Coherence can be thought of as how meanings and sequences of ideas relate to each other. It has to do with the communicative intention. Coherence also refers to logical semantic relationship between the parts of the text, and specifically between one sentence and another. The text can be read without any problem because there is a logical development in the communicative intention throughout the sentences. A text is incoherent when it does not make sense, because there is no consistency between the elements that are part of the text (e.g., a problem and a solution, a general and a particular statement, a question and an answer). Many authors agree that in writing it is necessary to ensure cohesion and coherence using appropriate connectors; punctuation also helps to make the text clear and fluent.

Pragmatics:

Pragmatics is the study of language usage from a functional perspective. It is concerned with the principles that account for how meaning is communicated by the writer and interpreted by the reader. It is a way of investigating how sense can be made of certain texts even when, from a semantic point of view, the text seems to be

incomplete or to have a different meaning other than what is really intended. For instance, the sign “Baby sale – lots of bargains” could be on the window of a shop that sells children’s wear. We know without asking that the store is not selling babies. Pragmatics allows us to understand how this meaning “beyond the words” can be understood without ambiguity. The extra meaning is there, not because of semantics, but because we share a certain contextual knowledge with the writer (Moore 2001). Thus, pragmatics exists between the text and the context (condition, communicative intention, time, place and extra verbal circumstances), and can help inform strategies for teaching language.

2.2. Conceptual Framework

The following linguistic concepts represent the key terms for this research paper:

Acculturation: The process or result of cultural and linguistic contact between members of two speech communities, characterized by borrowing of vocabulary or grammatical patterns, bilingualism and loan-words, as between European settlers in North America and the indigenous population, or between different ethnic groups, such as Hispanic communities in the United States of America (Dictionary of Language and Linguistics 1972).

Anglicism: A word or phrase that is peculiar to English. The quality of being typically English or of favoring English things. A word or phrase borrowed from English into a foreign language, for example “Yo voy al internet” (Oxford English Dictionary 2012).

Adult student: An individual who is pursuing an education and who has reached a mental and emotional level of maturity in which responsibilities are taken seriously regardless of chronological age (Bruno 1998). Adults are the fastest growing group of students in America. They often have been out of school for several years and must generally manage adult roles and responsibilities in addition to those involved with academic expectations (Boylan, Bonham, and White 1999).

Applied Linguistics: A branch of linguistics where the primary concern is the application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems that have arisen in other areas of experience. The most well-developed branch of applied linguistics is the teaching and learning of foreign languages, and sometimes the term is used as if this were the only field involved (A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics 1985).

Bilingualism: The use of two languages by a speaker or speech community. There are many types of bilingualism, (e.g., someone with parents of different native languages living in either speech community, or a person having learned to master a foreign language through intensive formal instruction.) Bilingual speakers are not necessarily translators and interpreters, as the skill of switching between two languages must be acquired separately, and persons who are equally conversant in both languages and in all situations (ambilingual) are very rare. In areas of intensive language contact (e.g., Switzerland, Holland or Wales), bilingualism is an important factor of linguistic change (Dictionary of Language and Linguistics 1972).

Borrowing: Conventional term for the introduction into one language of specific words, constructions, or morphological elements from another language. Thus table and marble are among the many loan words borrowed into English from Old French in the period after the Norman Conquest (Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics 2007).

Code-switching: Phenomenon that occurs when bilinguals switch languages for complete sentences or for parts of a sentence. It occurs far more often in conversation than in writing, where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence. This is a common phenomenon in societies in which two or more languages are used (Zentella 2002).

Code-mixing or a mixed code: The use of two languages in such a way that a third, new code emerges, in which elements of the two languages are incorporated into a structurally definable pattern. In other words, when two code-switched languages constitute the appearance of a third, it has structural characteristics special to that new code (Maschelr 1998).

English as a Second Language student: One who learns to write, read, and speak the English language in addition to a first or native language. An ESL student may or may not possess advanced linguistic and academic skills in a native language (Chamot and O'Malley 1994).

Interference: A term used in sociolinguistics and foreign-language learning to refer to the errors a speaker introduces into one language as a result of his contact with another language. The most common source of error is in the process of learning a

foreign language, where the native tongue interferes; but interference may occur in other contact situations, such as multilingualism (Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics 1985).

Interlanguage: 1. A language, or an artificial system like a language, used as an intermediary, or kind of translation, between two others. 2. A system of rules said to develop in the mind of someone learning a foreign language, which is intermediate between that of their native language and that of the one being learned (Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics 2007).

Ministry: The content of ministry seems to prioritize the ministering in spiritual things, not just practical things. Ministry should certainly place emphasis on sharing the Gospel of Jesus Christ with others and go even further to know Christ as the essence of their Life. Ministry can, and should, include ministering to the physical, emotional, mental, vocational, and financial needs of others (<http://www.gotquestions.org>).

Performance: Refers to the realization of a set of specific utterances in actual situations where language is used, and thus relates to the utterances themselves. In transformational-generative grammar, features of competence are represented in the deep structure exhibited by the syntactic component of the grammar, whereas features of performance are represented in the surface structure produced by the phonological component of the grammar (Dictionary of Language and Linguistics 1972).

Sociolinguistics: Any study of language in relation to society. Originally from the late 1960s, referring to studies of variation in language by Labov and his followers.

In that sense, sociolinguistics involves the study of correlations between linguistic variables (e.g. the precise phonetic quality of a vowel, or the presence or absence of a certain element in a construction) and non-linguistic variables such as the social class of speakers, their age, sex, etc. Applied more widely, from the end of the 1970s, to any study of language informed by that of societies in general: hence of a range of loosely connected investigations, including forms of Discourse Analysis and Conversation Analysis, the identification in a language of distinctions reflecting ideologies or relations of power among those speaking it, linguistic aspects of social psychology, etc. (Oxford Concise Dictionary of Linguistics 2007).

Transfer: The process or result of carrying over grammatical forms from one language to another. In language teaching, for example, the patterns of the mother tongue may interfere in the acquisition of those of the foreign language, or the translation lexical items may be borrowed from the source language (Dictionary of language and linguistics 1972).

Spanglish: The mixing of Spanish with English, a hybrid language, an informal code that Latinos speak in informal get-togethers (Morales 2002). The three most visible characteristics of Spanglish are: borrowing, code-switching and code-mixing (Orsi 2008).

PART III

3.1. METHODOLOGY

In the previous chapter, I reviewed current investigations into the manifestations of Spanglish. In order to answer the research question, I gathered demographic information using a questionnaire with open-ended questions. After that, I observed and recorded five ESL students where I suspected Spanglish was going to be used. Then I asked them to write paragraphs to see if the influence could be detected in their written work.

Sampieri (p. 528) states that the procedure of the methodology in the qualitative research includes a description of the process of the data collection, what and when and how the data was collected; and the techniques used to codify the data. This chapter will review the following: type of research, research context, sample selection, the study design, instruments, data collection and data analysis.

3.1.1. Type of Research

The type of research and the approach of this study are qualitative. I used the qualitative interpretative method because the topic required an exploration of the phenomenon from the perspective of the participants' experience in a natural environment. Moreover, the topic of this study had not yet been sufficiently explored, perhaps because the most popular area of study of Spanglish has been the spoken language. Thus, a thorough inquiry into the influence of Spanglish on the written performance of Hispanic ESL students required an interpretation centered in

understanding the meaning of the behavior of subjects in a natural context. For this reason, the researcher must built a complex, holistic picture, interpreted (analyzed) words, reported detailed data from informants, and conducted the study in a natural setting (Sampieri 2010; Creswell 1998).

In addition, Sampieri (2010) mentions that when, in a case study, qualitative methods are employed, the research becomes a qualitative research, which is why five Hispanic adult students at VIDA Ministries were the primary focus of this study. I used the collective or multiple-case method of study, and I chose more than one person to illustrate the issue, using the logic of replication to discover if the issue replicated or showed different characteristics.

Case study analyzes the object to answer the statement of the problem, and also provides insight into the issue (Sampieri 2010; Creswell 2010). Thus, the focus in case study is not predominantly on the individual, but rather on the issue, with the individual case selected to understand the issue. Also, in the case study research, the analytic approach involves a detailed description of the case and the setting of the case within contextual conditions (Yin 2003). Although case study may also be seen as methodology or a comprehensive research strategy (Merriam 1998), Creswell sees it as a type of design in qualitative research, an object of study and a product of the inquiry.

I obtained data through the techniques of observations and open interviews. Describing the effects, I understood the influence of Spanglish in the production of text and its properties that the students experience in natural settings of writing, which

included a focus on differences as well as similarities (McVay 2004; Sampieri 2010). The nature of this research was qualitative also because it was flexible in its design and used non-random samples collected by the researcher as primary data. Findings were comprehensive and richly descriptive. This study was not based on and did not look for precise numerical results, nor did it use a large random structured data collection approach (Merriam 1998).

3.1.2. Population

The Hispanic community in the eastern part of the city of Topeka, Kansas USA is mainly composed of new immigrants from Latin America. According to the Census of 2010, there were 17,026 Hispanics in the city of Topeka. Even though the topic of immigration (in particular, illegal immigration) is a problem for the USA, many institutions offer ESL classes, usually free, to help people who do not otherwise have opportunities to learn English. Among these institutions are schools, Washburn University, church ministries, etc. One of those ministries, of the Presbyterian Church, is called “VIDA Eastboro Life Together Ministry,” situated at 3168 SE 6th Ave., Topeka, KS 66607. This ministry has worked with Hispanic people by offering ESL classes, nutrition classes, spiritual care, etc. I focused on the ESL class of this particular ministry as my population. At the time of study, the classes had been given for seven years. There were two levels in the class: beginners and intermediate. This population lived in a mixed environment as far as language was concerned. They needed to use English as part of their daily life, e.g. at work, in the community, in the school, etc, because most of the population in Topeka speaks English.

According to the first Director of “VIDA” (Jane K. Daniels at that time), when VIDA was first beginning its ministry, a survey of needs in Topeka’s Latino community indicated that an English as a Second Language Class would be beneficial. Even though there were already ESL programs in place through other organizations, there were none that provided ESL for Latino families while offering something for children while their parents were learning English, nor did any of them structure ESL classes to allow for practice with native speakers. (There were programs that included classes only, and there were other opportunities that provided practice only with native English speakers, but nothing that combined the two.) Therefore, it was decided to begin a program that would meet these needs. VIDA began offering ESL classes on Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday nights, with a nursery for children ages 0-5 and a homework center for children ages 6-12 on the same nights. Two nights of ESL were dedicated to traditional classroom learning, and the third was spent with volunteers from churches and the local community who helped as conversation partners so that the ESL students could have an opportunity to put into practice what they were learning in the class that week.

VIDA’s approach to teaching ESL offered a new perspective, one that is not common in formal education. In addition to the free classes, the students benefit by assimilating not only the language, but also American culture, something that is very important for new immigrants when they face challenges in living the “American Dream.”

3.1.3. Sample Selection

In qualitative research, the “sample” is a group of individuals, events, and communities from which the data are collected. This does not necessarily mean that they represent the entire population of study. The size of the sample in qualitative research is not very important from a probabilistic perspective, because the interest of the researcher is not to generalize the results to a bigger population. Rather, it seeks to dig deeper. Thus, the sample (people, organizations, events, facts etc.) should help us to look for a more profound understanding of the phenomenon and answer the research questions (Sampieri 2010).

In this research project, purposeful sampling was used to select five individuals from the population of interest that are likely to provide the most relevant information from which existing theory may be affirmed or refuted and from which new discoveries, understandings, and insights may result. This type of sampling was also appropriate because statistical generalization is not a goal of this project. The sample is considered homogenous, as the students were all adult ESL students from Latin American with an intermediate level of English. (Other types of nonrandom sampling were not necessary to identify the individuals that would best inform the study, because it was possible to interview all students who agreed to participate [Sampieri 2010; Miles and Huberman 1994; Creswell 2009; Anderson 2009; and Krathwohl 1998].)

The typology of sampling strategies advanced by Miles and Huberman (1994) was very helpful. A mixed combination of sampling strategies was used to provide for

triangulation of data, which, according to Sampieri means the use of different sources and methods of collecting data, flexibility in sample selection, and diversity among the population (students) with respect to education, interests, and needs. A combination of sampling was used as follows: maximum variation sampling was used to discover diverse as well as common patterns from multiple participants with different characteristics. Even though all students were learning English as their second language, variation was seen in regard to age, educational background, and ESL learning and language use, as indicated in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 – Student Demographic Information

| Student | Age/ | Native | Education | How long | How long | Do you | Language | Level of |
|---------|-------|---------|-----------|----------|----------|--------|----------|----------|
| 1 | 26(M) | Spanish | GED | 10 yrs | 4 yrs | No | Both | Interm. |
| 2 | 35(M) | Spanish | Grade 5 | 10 yrs | 7 yrs | No | Spanish | Interm. |
| 3 | 38(F) | Spanish | Bachelor | 12 yrs | 6 yrs | No | Spanish | Interm. |
| 4 | 32(F) | Spanish | Grade 12 | 14 yrs | 7 yrs | Yes | Both | Interm. |
| 5 | 39(F) | Spanish | Grade 12 | 12 yrs | 7 yrs | Yes | Both | Interm. |

Criterion sampling provided assurance that all sample individuals met the established criteria. All sample participants met the criteria in that they were all Hispanic adults learning English as a second language, and were enrolled in at least one class offered through VIDA Ministries (although some were also simultaneously enrolled in another institution). Judgmental sampling was helpful when decisions had to be made about which individuals would provide the richest data. The use of such a combination of strategies was helpful in providing triangulation of data, in providing increased credibility, and in addressing multiple interest and needs. It was anticipated that both

diverse variations and common patterns would be discovered when sampling ESL students who had been exposed to English for longer and shorter periods of time.

3.1.4. Data Collection

For data collection to be valid, a clearly developed, consistent set of procedures need to be used. Getting access to the necessary field sites and gaining the trust and cooperation of the individuals involved were anticipated to be two of the biggest challenges of this study. To rise to the second of these two challenges, adequate time was needed to gain confidence from students, taking part in the ESL class beginning in the middle of 2009. Moreover, I began addressing these issues early in the initial stages of planning for this research project by meeting with the staff (teachers and coordinator) of Vida Ministries, and permission was granted to go on with the research at the beginning of 2010. After those preliminary activities, I began to observe and participate in the target classes in order to establish credibility and trust with students within the defined sample population. These contacts facilitated the entry into the field as a participant observer and established a comfortable presence with both students and instructors. These interactions benefited work in the field and increased accuracy in the data, which reflected the perspectives of people being studied. Finally, it increased the validity and reliability of the data gathered (Sampieri 2010).

The data collection took place during a one and a half hour class three times a week. Apart from that, it was necessary to set times for interviews outside classes which would fit the participants' schedule. The five adult ESL students from the Intermediate

level of English were all enrolled in an ESL classes at Vida Ministries at night and other places simultaneously, albeit with different schedules. Even though the targeted students had reasonable spoken English language proficiency, most of them recognized the need to improve their written language skills.

To strengthen this study, I collected data using several techniques in order to triangulate the findings and answer the research question. I gathered demographic data about all the subjects through a structured questionnaire that collect background information about the participants (see Appendix A). In addition, I obtained written data through a written test with open-ended questions during two different time periods in order to see if some influences persisted (See Appendix B and C). The demographic questionnaire gave me perspective on the language background of the participants and prepared the arena for the data collection. Even though a questionnaire and a test are quantitative instruments, they were used to identify the characteristics of Spanglish influence in the written performance of the students, as well as to determine the frequency with which it was used.

I observed and interviewed the students with an audio and video recorder. The interviews in this research project were intended to be (as per Sampieri [2010] and Merriam [1998]) a combination of structured, semi-structured and open (unstructured) interviewing. The structured information with predetermined questions gave common socio-demographic data from respondents and showed the writing of the students, while the semi-structured data gave the flexibility to provide specific information related to the

topic. The open-ended (unstructured) format was then useful for exploring the phenomenon in the respondents' lived reality.

The first of each different type of interview was followed by a review of the data collected to determine if changes in the questions were indicated. Particularly where two different languages impacted the exchange of information, flexibility in format and choice of words was essential. Pilot interviews were held with one student first. Interviews were recorded and written down, and began with informal conversation to establish rapport and to explain the purposes and procedures, thus putting the respondent at ease (Merriam 1998). Handwritten notes supplemented the interview recording for noting nonverbal behaviors and interviewer reactions. Such notes were able to make up for poor sound quality or inaudible expressions at some points. Audio film recording and note taking did not appear to be discomforting or intrusive to the interview process, so interview data and reflections did not need to be written from memory upon conclusion of the interview. Because Merriam (1998) states that post-interview recording is the least desirable method of recording interview data, establishing a comfortable interview environment was very helpful. The most ideal way of preserving interview data was to transcribe recorded interviews in order to provide the best database for analysis. The drawback to transcribing is that it is very tedious and time consuming. Nevertheless, transcribing was done for all primary data collection interviews to facilitate coding and to analyze whether code-switching and code-mixing were present. Finally, the open-ended nature of the questionnaire used to get writing samples did not bother the participants, but rather gave them confidence to write.

3.1.5. Instruments and Techniques

I collected the data using multiple sources (instruments) of information: questionnaire, observation, interviews, audiovisual material, and written registers or field notes (Creswell 2007; Sampieri 2010).

a) Questionnaire. This instrument is one of the most frequently employed in quantitative research for collecting data. It uses various questions in order to measure one or more variables. There are two kinds of questions: open-ended and closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions do not limit the number of answers, and they are useful when there is not enough information about possible answers from people. Closed-ended questions contain options for answers, which were previously delimited. Sampieri claims that it may be necessary to use one kind of question, but that it may sometimes be possible to use both, depending on the necessity; likewise, the number of questions is determined by the variable or variables to be measured. The questions must be clear to avoid ambiguity, short to prevent tediousness, not give an opportunity for misunderstanding, and avoid the tendency to jump to conclusions (Sampieri 2010).

The demographic questionnaire helped in obtaining data related to the position of the participants in areas such as age, level of education, time in the USA, time learning English, and language preference. I combined the closed-ended and open-ended questions to get rich data. All the questions had to do with the language learning experience of the participants. Since most of them understood English, the questions were in English.

b) Test. A test is another method to collect data in the quantitative method. It measures specific variables (for example, one's loyalty to something, interest in something, etc.) Some tests may evaluate the state of a variable with quantitative and qualitative elements. The written questionnaire helped to see the actual written skills of the students with respect to the target language (English), the purpose being to evaluate and identify elements of influence of code-switching, code-mixing, and borrowing (Spanglish) in the students' written English (Sampieri 2010).

c) Observation. Qualitative observation is not contemplation (i.e. sitting down and taking notes); instead, it implies reaching a deeper level in social situations and maintaining an active roll, while at the same time maintaining a sense of permanent thinking. Paying attention to the details, facts, events and interactions is important, and the researcher collects different kinds of data: written, verbal and non-verbal language, and observable behaviors and images (Sampieri 2010).

The qualitative observation not only helped me to contextualize by exploring many aspects the students' social lives, but it also precisely identified the use of Spanglish in their experience, by establishing time, place, date and purpose. Observation as an instrument of qualitative research, with all its advantages, was thus useful to collect data of the phenomenon.

d) Interview. A qualitative interview design is narrow in scope. Interviewing supports or confirms data, while at the same time it is employed as a tool to collect data, especially when the phenomenon being studied is not easily observable because of its

complexity. There are structured, semi-structured, non-structured or open interviews (Sampieri 2010; Grineell and Unrau 2007). In the structured interview, the interviewer works under the guidance of specific questions, adjusting only accidental elements (e.g., which specific questions and in what order) and not content. The semi-structured interview questions are based on a guide of topics and questions. Therein, the interviewer feels free to add questions of his/her own to get a more precise idea and to obtain more desired information. This means that all questions are not deemed to have the same priority. The open interview is more general and flexible; the interviewer may use the content and its structure. The questions should be neutral and open questions, such as “What?” questions, which are exploratory in nature and may pertain to a variety of qualitative research strategies. “What?” questions are combined with “How?” or “Why?” questions to give the opportunity to obtain general perspectives, examples, experiences, knowledge and detailed opinions from the participants (Sampieri 2010; McVay 2004).

A variety of interviewing methods was used in this research. Semi-structured questions helped the students to feel free to answer the questions, while open questions in open interviews helped to gather information about the inquiry of using code-switching and code-mixing. And, because of the open interviews, the students shared experiences from their daily lives. I not only combined the types of interview to collect the data, I also focused on interview schedules to avoid the collection of superfluous data (Patton 1980; Merriam 1998; Miles and Huberman 1994).

e) **Audiovisual Material.** I used audio recordings and videos with a purpose, as they are considered resources of qualitative data. They helped to illuminate the phenomenon as it exists in real life and experiences in daily situations. Those elements were a support for the other manners of collecting data (e.g., if the audio recorder would not work the video would get some information). Some important considerations with the materials were the following: registering the data (date, place, kind of collection), purpose, and which was produced and integrated to the material of analysis (Sampieri 2010).

3.1.6. Validity of Instruments

Sampieri offers the following criteria to validate the instruments:

Dependency: The researcher explains the selection of the sample and the instruments.

Credibility: The researcher makes triangulation (e.g., he/she uses different instruments to collect the data).

As has already been explained, a careful selection of the sample and the instruments to be used was necessary to ensure a valid sample and valid data-collecting instruments. The use and purpose of the questionnaire, test, observation, interview and audiovisual instruments has also been described above. I used different methods to triangulate the data-collection instruments, providing rich information and studying the data in depth, in order to understand the phenomenon.

3.1.7. Data Analysis

To analyze the data collected, I used the interpretative model and described the data in its natural settings. As Sampieri states, qualitative research is based on an interpretative perspective, and focused on the understanding of the meaning of the subject's activities. Reality is understood through the interpretation of the participants, and how they perceive their own reality. Therefore, the qualitative research can be considered as a combination of interpretations that show a "reality." I first gathered the data from the observation, the audiovisual recordings and the interviews of all sessions and selected the most prolific body of information as my focus. I based my selection on those moments when students used more Spanglish or where a pattern was found. Because discourse is part of a particular context, the selected whole sessions were transcribed. Likewise, the written expressions were transcribed and analyzed in order to answer the research question.

After transcribing all the selected sessions, I color-coded the transcripts into three categories: blue for English, purple for Spanish and light mustard for Spanglish. I selected the utterances in Spanglish to see whether the language use was more in one category or another and determined if there was influence in the written expressions which would be expressed in the cohesion, coherence and pragmatic aspects of the text. During the process of selection, I attempted to reflect on the purpose of this research, and aimed to answer the research question. All these steps were followed for the purposes of analysis where unstructured data is structured, and where the analysis looks

for organizing, categorizing topics, describing, understanding, evaluating and explaining the phenomenon and relating the results with new theories (Sampieri 2010).

I wanted specifically to explore whether the use of Spanglish was constraining the performance of writing in certain functions and structures of text production. I made attempts to guarantee that the selection be exhaustive in a way that all relevant data fit into a category or subcategory and be mutually exclusive. I sought that each unit fit in the appropriate category or categories, be transparent, clear and conceptually congruent. In other words, I made sure that similar concepts were grouped together (Merriam 1998).

Based on the premise that ESL students have goals to achieve and requirements to fulfill in learning English—in this case the written language—there are some properties (cohesion, coherence and pragmatics) in production of texts that need to be considered for analysis (Castellanos 2009). I created the text “relationships” and “mechanisms” categories according to the following principles:

1. To identify the use of text reference e.g. exophoric, endophoric (anaphoric and cataphoric) reference.
2. To identify lexical substitution elements (e.g., pronouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs).
3. To identify ellipses that elide extra information in the text.
4. To find lexical links or connectors that establish relationship between sentences in a text (e.g., addition, contrast, cause and effect, temporal,

comparison, emphasis, illustration, order, change of perspective, condition and conclusion).

5. To check repetition in the text (e.g., lexical, designative).
6. To highlight the omission and use of punctuation in the text.
7. To check the criteria of ideas in sentences that fit together clearly (coherence).

To further categorize the pragmatic relationship found in the transcripts, I also followed Castellanos' method of pragmatic analysis. The categories that I used based on Castellanos' set-up are the following:

1. To describe a permanent relationship between the text and the context.
2. To reveal the communicative intention, time, place and extraverbal circumstances.

First, recurring themes were identified in the students' writing in order to identify the categories in the performance of writing. Then, to be able to identify and fit language properties into the appropriate category, I color-coded the writing in the transcripts, using brown for cohesion, pink for coherence, and yellow for pragmatics. After that, recurring lack of mechanisms in the writing were identified on the transcripts to create additional categories. Finally, I entered the color-coded data into an Excel spreadsheet to fit into the categories created.

Because of ethical considerations, the names of the participants will not be revealed, but rather codes, numbers or initials will be used during the analysis phases. This is necessary, to avoid stripping data from the contexts in which they occur, while at the same time reducing the data over the course of the project and facilitating the narrative writing until the final report is finished (Sampieri 2010). Initial coding for identification purposes was established with respect to demographic information by means of a maximum seven-column code. Each column allowed for coding initial known categories with additional placeholders for categories that might emerge during the data collection phase. The category placeholders allowed for demographic, descriptive, and numerical coding. Four categories were finally established to help organize the data collected from the Student Personal Data Form and to provide anonymity to the interview participants. The four categories included location, position, ethnicity, and gender. In addition, adequate placeholders were available to assign a number to each interview participant. For example, the code VSHF9 would represent the definitions and categories explained in Table 3.2. For reference codes in the narrative reports, the system was shortened in order to identify the students by gender and interview number.

| Table 3.2 | Coding | Description |
|------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Code Symbol | Code Definition | Category |
| V | Vida Ministries | Location |
| S | Student | Position |
| H | Hispanic | Ethnicity |
| F | Female | Gender |
| G | Subject Number | Number Column |

In this chapter, the methods used to explore the research were presented. The rationale and description of the research design were stated, along with the description of the qualitative and the data collections protocol together with a description of the sample population and instruments that were used to collect and analyze the necessary data. I tried to avoid the following possible limitations of the study: to simplify complex information so hastily that it leads to jumping to conclusions; to avoid isolated conclusions, or descriptive data that was not clear and thus unintentionally presented in a misleading way. The results are presented in the following chapter.

PART IV

4.1. RESULTS

4.1.1. Introduction

For several reasons, the results that contributed to my conclusions include quotations from students. Sampieri states that the literature will improve the understanding of the data while interpreting such quotations, and that they will work as a reference or contrast to the results. So, in addition to the contribution to research, the interpretation will be contrasted in this way. The quotations have not been edited for grammar, and enhancement for clarity is indicated only occasionally by words in brackets. The quotations should not be viewed critically as inappropriate or inaccurate data, but rather as rich representations of heartfelt feelings being communicated in a language that the students used to express themselves.

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which Spanglish is found to be, or not, a negative influence in learning written English by adult ESL Hispanic students. This chapter will present the analysis and critical findings I made from the data collected.

First Finding: Domain influences language choice.

Domain is a socio-cultural construct abstracted from the areas of communication, relationships between communicators, and locales of communication, in accord with the institutions of a society and the spheres of activity of a culture, in such a

way that individual behavior and social patterns can be distinguished for each other and yet related to each other. Domains enable us to understand language choice; some examples of domains can then be identified with domains at the societal-institutional level (such as home, school, work etc.), which coincide with different activities (Fishman 2000). According to the preliminary students' answers, the domains I took into account were the following:

TABLE 4.1 Students Survey

| Domain | VSHM1 | VSHM2 | VSHF3 | VSHF4 | VSHF5 |
|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | E%/S% | E%/S% | E%/S% | E%/S% | E%/S% |
| Home | 20/80 | 30/70 | 0/100 | 50/50 | 0/100 |
| Work | 100/0 | 100/0 | 0/100 | 70/30 | 100/0 |
| Shopping | 100/0 | 50/50 | 50/50 | 50/50 | 100/0 |
| Street | 50/50 | 40/60 | 50/50 | 70/30 | 100/0 |

VSHM1=Vida Student Hispanic Male 1 E%/S%=English%/Spanish%

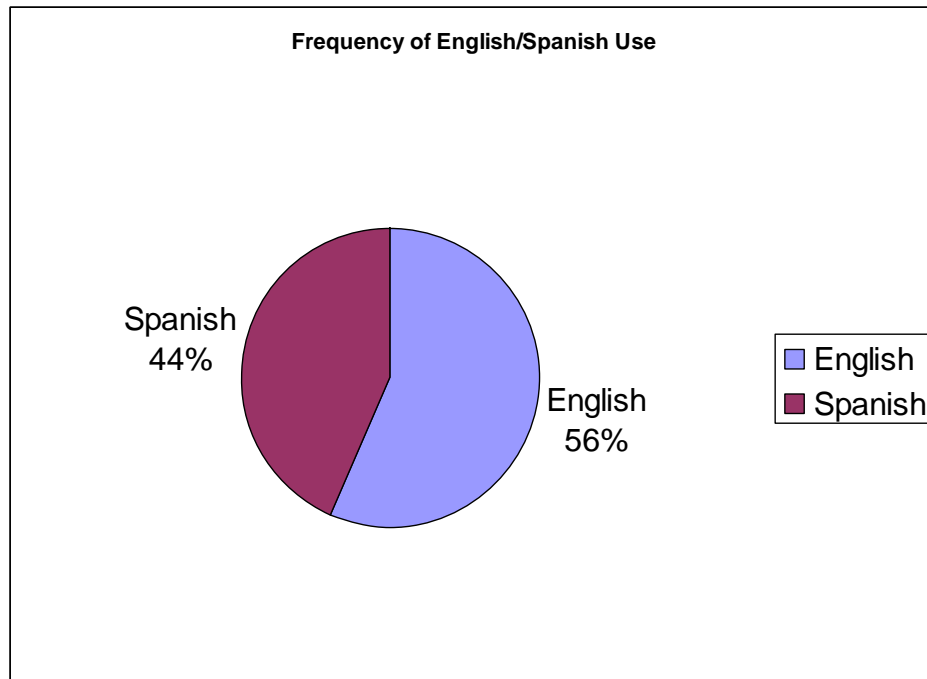
When I added the percentage and divided between the number of students, I got the average of use English/Spanish e.g. Home English use $100/5=20\%$.

TABLE 4.2

| | | |
|----------|---------|---------|
| | English | Spanish |
| Home | 20% | 80% |
| Work | 74% | 26% |
| Shopping | 74% | 26% |
| Street | 58% | 42% |
| Average | 56.5% | 43.5% |

The different domains of behavior will determine language choice and topic. The following pie chart illustrates the domain influence and students' language choice.

Figure 4.1



A preliminary result from just the questionnaire data in figure 4.1 showed an average of language use in different societal domains like home, work, shopping and street use. The chart manifests 56% use of English and 44% use of Spanish in the different domains mentioned before, according to the students' initial answers regarding how often they use each language. It is interesting to notice that the English language use is mostly in those places where the students submit their choices to the environment where English is dominant (for example, work and shopping=74% each; and street 58% in table 4.2). Considering that work, shopping and street domains are set to determined

times and places, and they are not necessarily part of the weekend (this is true for work especially), interviews were necessary to know in more detail the language use, including what language was used on weekends. Surprisingly, the average was considerably different after observing, and asking specific questions in the interviews.

This data is demonstrated below:

The triangulation among observation (video recording, notes) plus interview helped to highlight the facts of language use (e.g., the questions: “At what time of the day?” “With whom?” and “In what situations do you speak English/Spanish during the day?”) Also, a role-play of a regular week consisting of 24 hours per day and 7 days a week offered rich data, allowing me to know important details about the lives of the students.

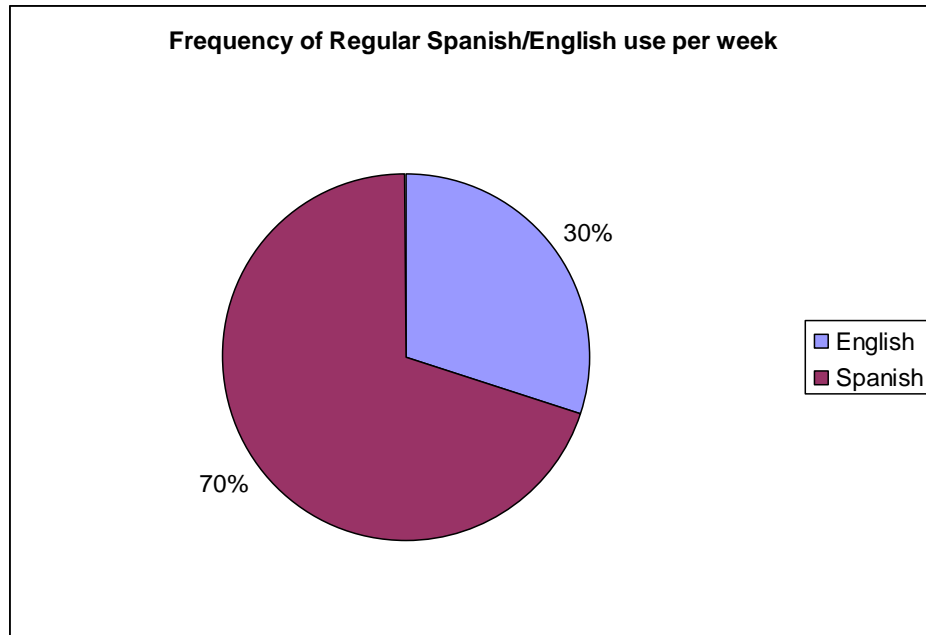
On one hand, English use by the students is explained as follows:

As table 4.1 shows VSHF3 did not need to use English at work because her business was with the Hispanic population, while the other four students were using English mostly at work, but not entirely because they wanted to use Spanish during breaks or lunch. In terms of hours, this means that English was spoken 8 hours a day by 4 students=32, by 5 days=160 hours, which may be minus the breaks (30hrs)= 130. Moreover, the VSHF5 said that part of her job was giving nutrition classes to Hispanic students regularly, where she did not need English at all, minus 25 hours= 105. It then goes up again because of the English classes, so plus 30 hrs, totaling at 135 hrs/ 4 students= 30 hrs average. The total may go up or down due to other details (e.g.,

interaction with English speaking friends, children's teachers, or they could have missed a day speaking English because of a day off, and so on). This average may be translated to 30% of the exposure and use of English.

On the other hand, Spanish use was observed in the following way: The 5 students had another 8 hrs per day to spend time with family and friends who spoke Spanish, then $8 \text{ by } 5 \text{ students} = 40 \text{ hrs by } 5 \text{ days (Monday through Friday)} = 200 \text{ hrs}$ in that period of time. However, for all of them more time had to be added because of the weekend, in which most of them did not work—that is, 16 hours for Saturday and Sunday were taken to use mostly Spanish, so $16 \text{ by } 2 = 32 \text{ hours by } 5 \text{ students} = 160 \text{ hours}$. This plus $200 \text{ hrs} = 360 \text{ hrs} / 5 \text{ students} = 72 \text{ hours}$ as average for using Spanish. This average may go down or up a little because different activities and language exposure. The time may then be translated to 70% of using Spanish. Therefore, this revealed that, on average, students used 70% Spanish and 30% English throughout the week as chart 4.2 shows.

Figure 4.2



Analysis of the data (observation, video recording) also showed that the students made a choice as to when they spoke Spanish, English and Spanglish, and that this choice was influenced by their domain. Chart 4.3 gives clarity regarding the use of Spanglish in the Spanish domain of Spanish/English bilinguals. In many cases the students interjected English words or Spanglish words in their speech especially when speaking in Spanish. In other words, these bilinguals code-switch more when they communicate in Spanish than when they communicate in English. Empirical research supports this observation. The following examples from the students can show these characteristics:

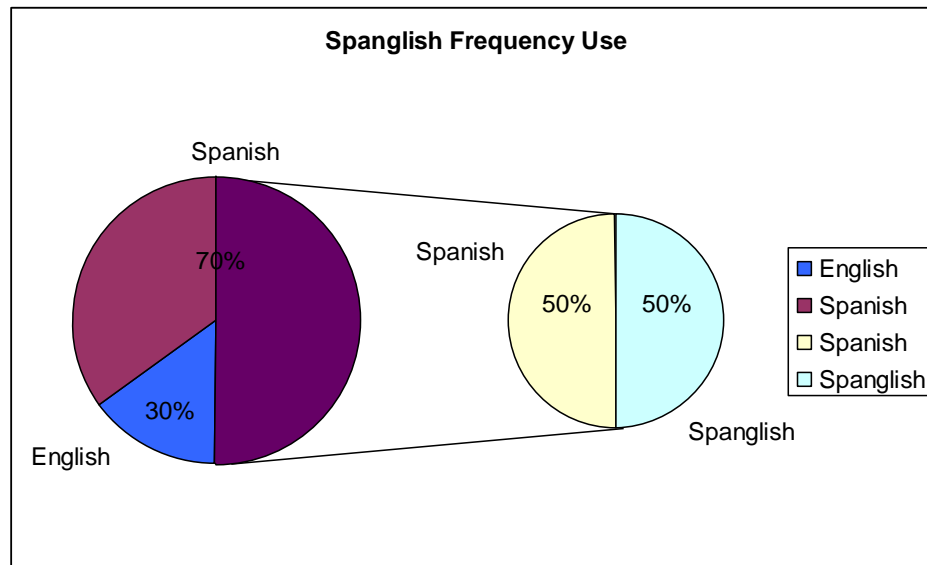
- “Mi esposo tiene una troka...” “Mi manager es muy buena...” “Yo voy al lonche a la 1:00” “Los niños usan el bus” (pronunciation in English), “yo

manejo la van,” “cuando vamos por la highway,” “alla en Mexico las casas no tienen carpeta” VSHF4

- “El turquí se cocina así,” “cuando se come mucho sausage,” “tiene que ver como prepara el lonche,” VSHF5
- “Pues tengo que pagar los biles...” “También cada año nosotros pagamos los taxes” “Vamos al mall mi hijo,” “yo siempre llevo la troca,” “después del trabajo me pongo a hacer la yarda,” “estuve cortando los bushes” VSHM2
- “Nosotros nos movimos a una nueva casa el mes pasado...” “Yo fui a la tienda the carpetas ayer..” “Mi hija me dice you don’t speak good English,” “cuando nos movimos a Topeka” VSHM1
- “Ayudo a mi hijo a entrenar soccer,” “a Mike le gusta cocinar,” “Cuando Miky este en la High School..” VSHF3

The phenomenon was not manifested when the students switched to use English with English speakers. Likewise, some of them were not aware of using Spanglish, but all of them used it to different extents. So, as Spanglish was present in Spanish conversation, this interaction confirmed that the Spanish/Spanglish combination was 50% each when using Spanish on a general basis. So, it can be said that the amount of time dedicated to switching and the choice of using a blended language was notorious overall for the use of English language as the target language of the students. Thus, the sphere of knowledge and performance of English of the students may have been influenced because of this predominant activity.

Figure 4.3



Second Finding: The most common linguistic transfer that was due to the use of code-switching and code-mixing was the influence on grammatical and lexical cohesion.

Grammatical cohesion has to do with rules that govern the composition of clauses, phrases and words, reference, substitution, conjunction, repetition and punctuation (Castellanos 2009).

a) Clauses, Phrases and Words:

The major problem for the Spanish-speaking ESL learner is that there is no one-to-one correspondence in the use of the tenses (Coe and others 1987). There are 60 misspellings of words and 42 incorrect verb tenses identified. In many cases, the structure of Spanish was detected in English writing, especially at the beginning of the sentence. The following examples in the written test show this:

1. What would you have done if you were not in the USA?

Continue at my city close with my relatives. (VSHF3)

2. Describe your experience learning English.

first it was so difficult but later it was more easy. (VSHM2)

3. Write a paragraph about your typical day.

I woke up at 6:00 AM and have breakfast, take a shower and get ready to go work at 8:00 AM. I go and visiting my client for nutrition classes everyday I do three visit. (VSHF5)

4. Describe the places that you will never forget.

The place I don't forget is acuarian from Chicago. my family and I we went 2 years ago the was fun my daughter enjoy the trip.(VSHM1)

5. Describe what you like to do the most with your family

One of the things the I like most to do with my family is go out to places and specially take them to places that they enjoy, like go to movies or going shopping. (VSHF4)

In the first example, the verb tense of the answer does not agree with the question, something that is common in Spanish. A correct rendering could have been, "If I were not in the USA, I would have continued in my city close to my relatives." The second answer shows extra words to emphasize the adjectives that are not necessary in English (At first, learning English was difficult, but later it was easier), but may have

made sense in Spanish. The third example shows discord, using the past and present verb tenses in the same paragraph. The fourth and fifth reveal lack of the use of the past verb tense, the (-ing) form and misspelled words.

b) Reference

The identification of reference is very important in the comprehension of texts since reference is part of the information process (Castellanos 2009). The anaphoric references were missing in some of the written text. While the answers may have made sense in spoken language because the reference was in the question, the written language showed a clear influence of the spoken language. The following are some examples:

1. Describe your experience learning English.

Is really hard, because I think in Spanish and I want translate. (VSHF3)

2. Describe what you like to do the most with your family.

enjoy my son my buisnes because we attent spanic people,.....

(VSHF3)

3. Describe the places that you will never forget

My house in Mexico

My ranch (VSHM2)

Each response could not been understood if it were read alone. The written question is needed to form a complete sentence, since the response refers back the question. The first answer could be rendered “Learning English is really hard

because...” and the second could be “I like to enjoy my son, my business...”, while the third may be “I will never forget my house in Mexico...”

c) Substitution

The substitution of an element or expression is a mechanism that points out a semantic relationship between the substitute and the substituted element (Castellanos 2009). There were many misplacements and missing substitution elements. Again, it would have made sense in the Spanish-speaking context, but it does not in the written language. Here are some examples:

1. Describe your experience learning English.

My experience learning English it was kind of difficult for because my Dad he always nagged at me.... I have been curious about learning new words and everytime I heard one I look up in the dictionary to know the meaning. (VSHF5)

2. Tell about your memories about your hometown.

Around the garden is to many people selling tamales and Mexican foods. is fun. (VSHM1)

3. Describe the places that you will never forget.

The place I don't forget is acuarian from Chicago my family and I we went 2 years ago the was fun.....(VSHM1)

4. Describe your experience learning English.

Learn English is to hard. Is not as easy as I think.....(VSHM1)

5. Describe the places that you will never forget.

The first and most important my hometown were I grew up. is a very small town but is so beautiful is a place.....(VSHF4)

In most of the cases above the pronoun “it” can substitute the references, but it was not used, which shows another form of conversational use of the language in written language.

d) Conjunctions

Conjunctions express relationship or transition. They are used to establish a logical relationship between sentences in a text, and lead the reader to understand the next idea. The lack and the misuse of many conjunctions was found, most of them being related to the contact of Spanish with English. This included adverbs, prepositions, and different kinds of conjunctions and conjunctive phrases. The following examples demonstrate the absence and misuse of conjunctions:

1. Describe memorable days in the USA.

.....The move at Topeka and realize.....enjoy my son my buisnes....My housband is all the time connect with ours. (VSHF3)

2. Describe what you like to do the most with your family.

I like to play with my family and to spend most the time with them.
(VSHM2)

3. Write a paragraph about your typical day.

I have two breaks of 15 minutes each and one hour lunch.....(VSHF5)

4. Describe memorable days in the USA.

...the fireworks remind me Christmas in Colombia, because all the fireworks....(VSHF5)

I like play on my backyard with my kids...(VSHM1)

The underlined parts of the sentences show examples of missing conjunctions or erroneous conjunctions used. In the first, “at” is used, which can be used for location, but the preposition needed is “to” which indicates direction, so the sentence may be “The move to Topeka...”. The second sentence is missing the preposition, which makes sense in Spanish, where “of” does not seem necessary (Me gusta jugar con mi familia y pasar mas tiempo con ellos), but “of” is generally used in English grammatical construction, so it may be “I like to play with my family and spend most of the time with them.” The third example is missing the preposition “for,” and should be rendered “I have two breaks of 15 minutes each and one hour for lunch”. In this case, the spoken language influence is notorious. The fourth example is missing the preposition “of.” In Spanish, it is not necessary (los juegos artificiales me recuerdan navidad en Colombia), but in English it should be “...the fireworks remind me of Christmas in Colombia...”.

e) Repetition

This kind of cohesion gives balance between the new information and the information already known. Excessive use would make the sentence redundant

(Castellanos 2009). Some unnecessary repetition took place, which is common in spoken language. We see examples of this in the following:

1. Describe the places that you never forget.

My city where I live more the 25 year is a city with wonderful weather.

(VSHF4)

2. Write a paragraph about what things we usually pay for with money

I pay all my bills.

I pay for the food.

Gasoline for the cars. For my mower to....(VSHM1)

The first example (city) is repeated in the second part of the sentence. This comes from spoken language, where repetition is common, but the noun may be replaced by the pronoun “it” or just omitted, so it should be “My city, where I lived more than 25 years, has wonderful weather.” In the second example, the word “pay” shows the spoken language influence on the written too, where repetition could have been avoided by a difference in structure (e.g., “I use money to pay my bills, food and gasoline...”).

f) Punctuation

Punctuation is considered difficult to learn which is why many students acknowledge being unable to use it correctly. Although no one knows all the rules, there are many publications. The use of punctuation helps to eliminate ambiguity and rules the

composition of the text (Castellanos 2009). The data showed one of the most common lacking cohesive mechanisms was punctuation:

1. Write a paragraph about your typical day.

... I have two breaks of 15 minutes each and one hour lunch sometimes I have a hectic schedule but I really likes to help people in my office everybody is very nice we work as a teamplayer. (VSHF5)

2. Describe your experience learning English.

My experience learning English it was kind of difficult for because my Dad he always nagged at me. One day that I wet to live by myself I encourage myself to learn the language because I taught being a bilingual person could have more opportunities to be a successful, I have been curious about learning new words and everytime I heard one I look up in the dictionary to know the meaning. (VSHF5)

3. Write a paragraph about what people usually buy for their home.

There is many things that people can buy, here are some of the things. I usually buy supplies for when I do laundry, cleaning products, furniture if I needed Dishes for my kitchen, towels for my bathroom, other are garden equipment for when we clean are yard many more this are only a few. (VSHF4)

The preceding examples were all missing or using unnecessary periods, commas, and semicolons.

Some authors argue that code-switching may have to do with identity and transformational meaning, which are played out by both linguistic and paralinguistic means. Poey (2002) states that language choices, syntax, and interlingual as well as intralingual communication are the most consistent and most obvious sites of self-representation and self-formation. Furthermore, with respect to transfer analysis, there may be no equivalents in Spanish that transfer to English, which creates difficulties. Finally, Cuza and Frank (2011) quote Ivanov, who concludes that the interface structures may be problematic until intermediate stages, but that they are completely acquired and target-like for younger students (children, teenagers) in advanced levels. These arguments may make sense from a sociolinguistic perspective, where the immigrants demonstrate their own identity, but they do not make sense from the applied linguistic perspective, where a student who is getting training in L2 is asked to perform a standard written assignment. Also, the interface structure may be true for those younger ESL students that have the more time and opportunity, but it does not necessarily apply for adults.

Third Finding: Spoken language influences the coherence of English writing in ESL students.

Coherence is seen as the semantic quality in a text, or the information that maintains the unity and the organization of a communicative structure. Coherent discourse or text must have cultural significance for those who create or comprehend it; discourse in which the cultural significance is not apparent will be perceived as incoherent (Henze 1886). Lack of coherence was found in the data:

1. Describe memorable days in the USA

are a lot memories 10 year in USA, but the principal is when my son Mikey born. The move at Topeka and realize together with my husband evrey dream what I think. (VSHF3)

2. Write a paragraph about your typical day.

Today I went to work, I star 7:30 to 4:00 pm then I get bak to my house and work in my yard then I get rest and raudy to go to take a chauguer and go to bed. (VSHM2)

3. Write a paragraph about your typical day

I woke up at 6:00 AM and have breakfast, take a shower and get ready to go work at 8:00 AM. I go and visiting my client for nutrition classes everyday I do three visit. (VSHF5)

4. Write a paragraph about your typical day.

I wake up at 6:20. I brush my teet. Then take my lunch. on drove to the job like 10 minutes. I use a protect clotes, because my job is dirty so at ate my lunch a noon. I get out of my job at 3:30 back to my house. (VSHM1)

5. What would you have done if you were not in the USA

are not went I came to this country I was 16 years old so at the time I never thing on my future. (VSHM1)

The examples shown above are lacking prepositions that can help the text make sense. The first example is missing verbs, articles, pronouns and punctuation. The author is talking about memories in the past but starts to refer to the dreams in the present. In the second, third, fourth and fifth examples, the denotation of past and present are mixed with the lack of punctuation, which disconnects the understanding of the whole text. A special aspect in the fifth example is that the writer introduces an uncommon structure at the beginning, which does not make sense, and after that he answers the question.

Fourth Finding: The spoken language use of ESL students influences their English pragmatic writing.

The transmission of meaning depends not only on the linguistic knowledge (e.g. grammar, lexicon etc.) of the writer and reader, but also on the context of the utterance. Pragmatics explains how language users are able to overcome apparent ambiguity which is present in verbal circumstances (Castellanos 2009). Data proved that the background of Spanish/English bilinguals show some interesting influences in writing, which we see in the following examples:

1. Write a paragraph about what things we usually pay for with money.

I pay all my bills.

I pay for the food.

Gasoline for the cars. For my mower to. I buy some clothes for me and for my family. (VSHM1)

2. What would you have done if you were not in the USA?

Continue at my city close with my relatives. (VSHF3)

The characteristics of the examples show us that, even though the questions were asking for a paragraph, the writer embedded characteristics of sentences and statements from spoken language of L1 on L2, which is implied by the things that are communicated. Even though they are not expressed, the intention was to communicate what one could buy with money using English words. Additionally, answers were stated using characteristics of

Spanish conversation: “continue...” implies the subject, without a parallel verb from the question, as is seen in the second example.

In the data presented in this chapter, I was able to observe how the frequency of language use can influence writing performance. This may depend on language dominance or which language the bilingual uses the most. The idea concurs with that of Heredia (1997), who states that code-switching may be indicative of difficulties in retrieval (access) affected by a combination of closely related factors such as language use and word frequency.

The result of this study may be summarized as follows: (1) domain influences language choice; (2) the most common transfer due to the use of code-switching and code-mixing was the influence on grammatical cohesion; (3) spoken language influences coherence in the English writing of the ESL students (4) the spoken language use of ESL students influences English pragmatic writing.

In this chapter, I presented the results of my data collection. In chapter five I will discuss my major findings and conclusions, and their implications, as well as making suggestions for further research based on what I learned from this journey.

PART V

5.1. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMENDATIONS

5.1.1. Introduction

In chapter four, I presented the data collected from the research. In this chapter I will discuss my major findings, the limitations and implications of the study, and what suggestions I have for future research. I will explain what I learned from my findings, what other insights I gained that I was not expecting, and what conclusions I drew. In this research project, I attempted to determine the extent to which Spanglish is found to be, or not, a negative influence in learning written English.

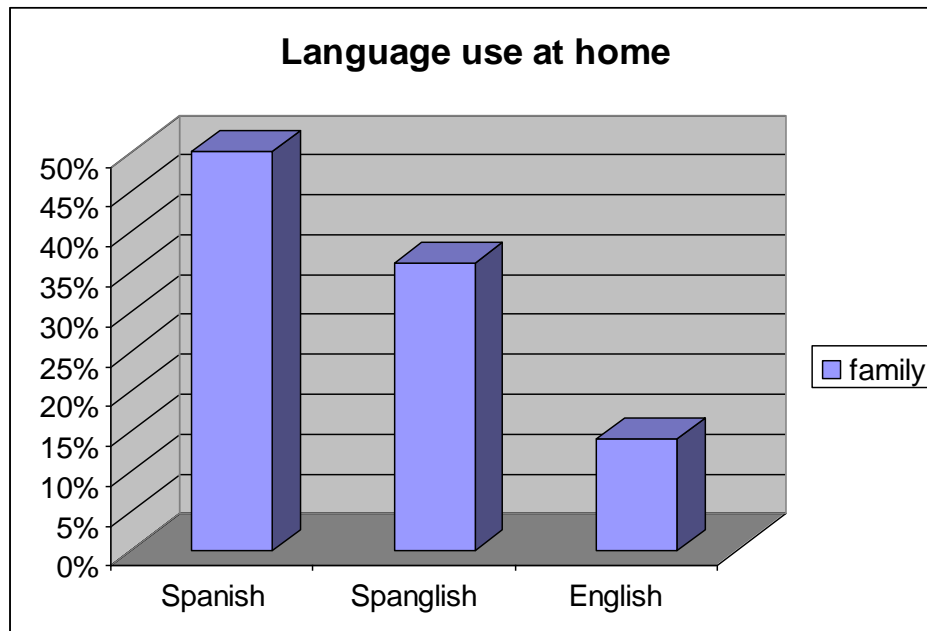
5.1.2. Conclusions

5.1.2.1. Influence of the Frequency of Spoken Language Use

The demographic information, observations and interviews shed light upon the assumption that spoken language influences the written language of ESL adult students. Zhu Xuandong (2002) points this out when he said that speaking has a great influence and impact on the processes of formulating ideas for writing and getting structure for our writing. In this case, the combination of Spanish and English gave rise to Spanglish. Thus, it can be said that code-switching, code-mixing, and borrowing, as part of the reality of these students, were influencing the written performance of the students' English.

The following example taken from table 4.2 represents the main domain of influence (Home) where the linguistic breakdown is 20%=English, 80%= Spanish. When one considers the analysis offered by observation and interviews, however, one discovers the linguistic reality of first- and second-generation immigrants from Latin America who arrived as teenagers or young adults to the USA and grew up in Spanish-speaking countries with the challenges of learning English as a second language. So, from the 100% of language used at home it reflected the fact that Spanish is used 50% of the time, Spanglish is used 36% of the time, and English 14% of the time, which demonstrates that certain domains such as that of the family seem to be more resistant to displacement than other domains (Fishman 2000). This is true in Spanish-speaking adult immigrants where English, as the occupational domain, is mostly restricted to the workplace in order for the host language (English) to have influence in that place. But after the ESL learner leaves work, a switch occurs. Spanish and Spanglish operate again, as do their influences. (See table 4.2, figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3 and 5.1.)

Figure 5.1



The five participants used Spanish combined with Spanglish when communicating with their children. The small portion of English was said to be used mostly with their children, who were being educated in English. Even though there was no specific question in this study regarding the use of language in relation to friends, the students implied in the interviews that they used more Spanish and Spanglish with other adult relatives and friends. According to the interview answers, I could conclude that Spanish is more resistant to displacement among older members of the community, because they are the ones primarily who maintain the language and cultural background to pass on to the next generation.

The degree of Spanish/English overlap was such that I was able to observe that bilingual students fostered Spanglish in different instances of code-switching, code-

mixing and borrowing, just as Liliana Orsi (2008) concluded. These instances were given mostly while speaking Spanish in a natural conversation with family, relatives and friends. Heredia (1997) suggests in the topic of language dominance (e.g., which language is used more frequently) that Spanish/English bilinguals report more code-switching when they communicate in Spanish, their first language, and little or no code-switching when they communicate in English, their second language.

Thus, I can conclude that the ESL Hispanic students' level of exposure to Spanish and Spanglish was high when it influenced their writing of the English language. This finding then accomplished the goal of one of the objectives, which was to determine the level of exposure of adult ESL learners to code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing.

5.1.2.2 Spanglish Influences on English Cohesion, Coherence and Pragmatic Writing of the Students

In the following discussion, I will account for the applied linguistic situations of the participants of my study. I found it interesting that all the students were able to communicate in English as a spoken language, even though Spanish words were used to substitute for lack of vocabulary in English (Spanglish), but that such was not the case in writing for all of them. Although most of the participants could hold a conversation in English, they were not sure about their proficiency in writing.

All the participants in this study had misused and missing cohesive ties on their English writing in the area of grammatical and lexical cohesion (the composition of

clauses, phrases and words; reference, substitution, conjunction, repetition and punctuation). I had observed that the influence of Spanish/English code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing, which was used mostly in relationships between friends and family, was transmitted into the English writing design. In this case, students tended to transfer the grammatical structure of Spanish (L1) into their English (L2) writing. Thomason and Kaufman (1988) point this out, claiming that second-language learners who do not master the new language will make language changes. As non-native speakers, they will consciously use the new vocabulary but keep the grammar of their L1 (native language).

The fact that students maintain L1 structure in their L2 is called negative transfer. The influence of negative transfer in writing English was confirmed by the results not only in the vocabulary and the grammar, but also in the syntax. This affirms what Thomason (2001), Mougeon and Benicak (1991), and Coe, Swan & Smith (1987) maintain: interference is the transfer of a structure of one language into another language in which it is not permissible. Likewise, interference can occur at any level of language structure or function. For example, the level of vocabulary interference usually manifests itself by a failure to choose correctly between related words, so the grammatical structures of one language interfere with those of another at the syntactical level. When a student attempts to learn another language, he or she unknowingly continues to make such changes when using the L2. That is negative transfer, because doing so creates a situation in which the L2 is not being spoken or written as though it were by a native, which is precisely because those rules from the L1 are transferring across to the L2. So,

negative transfer may result in non-standard syntax when Spanish learners speak or write English.

Some texts demonstrated that students' knowledge of the English language was not enough to write coherently. Rosemary Henze states, "When discourse in which the cultural significance is not apparent it will be perceived as incoherent" (1986: 404). On the other hand, Dilin Liu (2000) points out that incoherence may not only result from an absence of connective words, but from a want of content in lexical ties. Furthermore, the lack or misuse of functional connectiveness is frequently compounded by just such a want of content in lexical ties. So, deficient content in lexical ties in ESL students' writing, like other problems that cause incoherence, often leads to confusion or misunderstanding. Also, lack of knowledge about cultural norms and idiomatic expressions appears to lead to lower written performance in the students. The University of Salerno's portal about pragmatics in English points out that the natural tendency for language learners is to fall back on what they know to be appropriate in their first language.

The use of both the demographic information and the interviews shed light on the educational background of the students. Two had graduated from high school, one was getting his GED (General Education Degree), one had studied until fifth grade, and one had a bachelor's degree in her country. Even though they had been in the USA between ten and fourteen years, they had not been learning English this entire time—they had been studying English between four and seven years. Also, three of the students did not feel confident calling themselves bilinguals, whereas the other two (the ones who

had graduated from high school) did. These differences in educational background show how bilingual students use their own strategies to communicate in English; the language choice and switching coincide with their level of general knowledge. That said, code-switching and code-mixing are not entirely universal. There are also individual strategies for communicating in an L2. In fact, most of these strategies should be considered individual strategies, just as Orsi (2008) concludes. Be that as it may, it can be said that the educational background may influence the level of Spanglish on writing.

Zamel (1983) found that unskilled L2 writers wrote like unskilled L1 writers, and that the lack of competence in composition was separate from oral proficiency. Lack of L1 cognitive academic development, a somewhat broader concept, decreased writing competence and affected the L2 learner's composition skills. It may be argued that students' lack of cohesion, coherence and pragmatics in writing may have to do only with their educational background, but it is necessary to point out that there are also other areas of language (such as culture, traditions, etc.) that may have an influence as well.

So, one can conclude that the use of code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing influence negatively the cohesion, coherence and pragmatic English writing of ESL Hispanic students, which can be described as negative transfer from Spanish L1 to English L2, as the students switch back and forth between these two languages. This conclusion helps to reach the goal of one of the objectives, which was to determine the influence of Spanglish upon cohesion, coherence and pragmatics in written English language skills of adult ESL students.

Based on the discussion given above, my findings can be summarized as follows: (1) The frequency of spoken language use influences the English writing of ESL students (2) Spanglish influences English cohesion, coherence and pragmatic writing, which is manifested through negative transfer from the L1 to L2. Moreover, this is influenced by educational and cultural background. Thus, when Spanglish is used to compensate for a language difficulty, it may be considered interference, which is a negative influence for learning Standard English writing, which is the goal of the students from the perspective of applied linguistics.

5.2.3. Limitations of the Research

Certainly, the entire scope of Spanglish and its influences are too broad to be covered in this study. I have attempted to provide a description of the influences in my data. For example, I demonstrated that there are influences on the writing of ESL students.

Because this study only included a small group over a short period of time in a given context, I am unable to make generalizations regarding the influence of Spanglish on the writing of adult ESL students. To be able to accomplish this task, a longer, more comprehensive study is needed, which would take into account more varied data and participants during a much longer period of time, and consist of a larger corpus of data.

5.2.4. Implications of the Research

Discoveries in this research are important for educators and the community in general, allowing them to better understand the implications of code-switching, code-

mixing and borrowing in English writing of ESL students. I hope it will inspire other students and educators to pursue further research regarding the situation of ESL students.

It may be concluded that, at the macro level of sociolinguistics and applied linguistics, English proficiency in writing is uncertain. These adults may either assimilate or stay in a certain level of bilingualism because of the high level of code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing (Spanglish), and the preference for Spanish, which may be associated with maintenance vs. shift situations (Thomason and Kaufman, 1988).

While conducting this research I learned about the undeniable impact of the host culture and language on Spanish in the United States. I also learned how important it is for adult immigrants to learn English as a second language. There may be places where English is not a necessity even in the USA, but in the place of this research, it was extremely important. Adults had to face the disadvantages and advantages related to their ability to learn not just spoken English, but also written English.

5.2.5. Recommendations

Since writing is a skill that generally is taught by a teacher in a classroom, some recommendations for the institution of VIDA Ministries are in order. This section is offered as a starting point for the administration of VIDA Ministries, so that the ESL teachers may begin discussing how to develop or strengthen formal support systems that encourage students to seek continuing education at VIDA Ministries. Such discussions

may also include key personnel within the staff at VIDA. Developing strong support systems is particularly important for students who desire to bridge the gap that so often presents multiple barriers and negative influences to improving their level of English. Without such a system, many students may drop out of the English class, because they find difficulties or barriers to be insurmountable. I hope that the following suggestions and recommendations will be helpful for the students.

1. Strengthen the recruitment and orientation systems. Put someone in charge of nontraditional student recruitment and orientation activities. One of the things this research brought to light was that many of the students did not realize the necessity of learning English until they had been in the country for many years. Moreover, this kind of orientation could include a check for influences that may be affecting the student such as educational background.
2. Provide more options for obtaining intensive English language practice. Students frequently stated that they would like more opportunities to practice English with native speakers. Some suggested additional classes; a convenient schedule for using VIDA's computer lab would also be helpful.
3. Provide for goal-setting discussions. Include goal-setting activities in the preliminary sessions of each class so that both students and teachers continually plan purposeful academic responses to students needs. Since the teachers are bilingual, the communication of the goals would be a success.

4. Offer or make possible a degree or certification program to encourage students to reach goals in the different areas of skill (speaking, writing, listening, reading).
5. Clarify information regarding tutoring services with volunteers so that ESL students can practice the different skills involved in speaking the English language with a native speaker outside of regular sessions of ESL classes at VIDA.
6. Involve members of other institutions, such as the city's public library, where the use of material for ESL is free. At the same time, make connections with other institutions that are available to students.
7. Provide recognition for teachers and administration who provide personal support and professional assistance above and beyond what is required; likewise, for especially hardworking students. Create a positive learning environment and atmosphere for class before the students arrive.
8. Brainstorm to help students with childcare and particular family situations that might impede learning. Facilitate tours, and provide maps to build trust with the students.
9. Evaluate required textbooks and materials on a regular basis. Textbooks and materials required for each course should be useful to students. Some of the students desired something significant for their studies.

10. Willingness, predisposition and commitment are required from the students.

The target of this last recommendation is the students themselves, because support cannot be provided if there is not a serious commitment from them.

The comments and suggestions listed here are not intended to be an exclusive nor exhaustive checklist that will guarantee success for adult Hispanic ESL students of VIDA Ministries. Only as administrators and teachers participate in evaluating, revising, and implementing policies and procedures that work with their own students can significant changes be expected to happen. Some of the ideas may not be useful, practical, or affordable in the context of the current institution. However, they may very well serve as a starting point for serious conversations among administration and teachers. Whatever the outcome, the purpose is to use these comments and recommendations to begin a dialogue that will lead to a more effective student support system.

5.2.6. Further Research

A further study regarding the influence of Spanglish on the Spanish of native Spanish speakers would be helpful, because many adults are using Spanglish words instead of Spanish words in their native spoken language. The Spanglish phenomenon has become a manifestation of change in the lives of Latinos living in the United States. This could be related to what Pavlenko said: “the L2 influences L1 phonology where research of L1 phonology of late bilinguals has documented both converge and shift effects in production of morphosyntax as well” (2000: 52) Does Spanglish affect

speaking performance of Spanish speakers? One may wonder how Spanglish is influencing Spanish (L1). One example is that, when two students were asked about the meaning of some Spanglish words in their vocabulary (e.g. “carpeta”), they did not know or remember the meaning of these words in Spanish (“alfombra”). The answer they gave to the question “Why do you use it?” was “Because I learned it so.” This answer leads me to wonder whether Spanish is at risk in the USA in the coming generations? Is the affect of Spanglish upon Spanish a sign of linguistic decay? How do Spanglish users perceive their reasons for choosing Spanglish instead of Spanish?

I encountered other questions and topics that were outside the specific focus of the research. Language dominance may be a topic for future research. Mougeon and Beniak (1991) indicate that language dominance occurs in those cases where the bilingual is not absolutely balanced. If one language is said to be dominant, then the dominance of one language should not be thought of as in any way unhealthy or unusual, because manifestation of dominance is the bilingual’s preference for one language. How does English dominate over Spanish writing? In many cases, the subordinate language struggles for survival; it has to adapt and blend in. It becomes contaminated and new patterns of similar development or assimilation emerge. What are the characteristics of English/Spanish blend? What are the effects of language assimilation?

Some other questions that I could have addressed but fell beyond the scope of this investigation include: What is Spanglish? Is it a dialect? Is it an interlanguage? Is it a language? Or just a manifestation of uneducated immigrants who are under the

influence of English? Is it part of a determined group or bilinguals in general? What are the economic and sociological sanctions for people who use Spanglish? What are the morphological, phonological, semantic, syntactic, and grammatical characteristics of Spanglish? Is the use of Spanglish just for immigrants in the USA? What are the reasons bilinguals use Spanglish? Is Spanglish a cultural identity? How is Spanglish promoted to other generations?

5.2.7. Summary of the research

ESL students at VIDA Ministries and other institutions are becoming more diverse. This diversity takes various forms, including culture, race, language, gender, age, socioeconomic background, and level of previous education. Because of such diversity, it becomes apparent that nontraditional students are adults. Many of these nontraditional students are older than the traditional students, many times under-prepared for educational endeavors, and are involved in learning English as a second language (ESL). In this process, many of the students have been demonstrating a singular phenomenon, Spanglish, when communicating. This research project addressed the overarching problem using a qualitative interview designed to provide answers to the following question:

To what extent is Spanglish is found to be, or not, a negative influence in learning written English?

The research was informed by a demographic survey of the students, individual qualitative interviews, and observations (including field notes). I focused on

understanding characteristics of adult language use in written language. In my study I was able to determine the frequency of language use, which, based on the theory, is influencing English writing skills manifested as negative transfer from code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing. Perhaps the identification of Spanglish influence was not as significant in spoken language as in written language because spoken language tends to change more than written language. Written language calls for standard use with all the requisite rules and norms. Finally, to determine that Spanglish is a negative influence on the English writing of adult ESL students was not easy. It was not possible to make conclusive generalizations with respect to other adult ESL students. Frequency of language usage (Spanish/Spanglish) was reflected more at home and in some other domains (at work, shopping and in the street) on a daily basis. Also the influence of Spanglish that was determined to be negative transfer emerged in the written English language with respect to cohesion, coherence and pragmatics, demonstrating missing clauses, phrases and words, and problems with reference, substitution, conjunctions, repetition and punctuation. (It should be mentioned that the influence of Spanglish on Spanish was not the purpose of this research, but is mentioned because of the clear manifestation in the data.)

Perhaps code-switching may be used as a tool for teaching ESL, as some authors like Skiba (1997) have suggests. Also the switching patterns may indicate language proficiency, as Orsi (2008) concludes, examining spoken language in teenagers. These views could be particularly interesting when applied to research upon adult immigrants, and may help to elucidate how adult immigrants perceive the sociological, linguistic and

cultural value of their English writing, which keeps Spanish (L1) under the dominance of English (L2).

This research project was designed to contribute to ESL program development rather than to detract from it. From the outset, analysis was conducted in an effort to understand students' performance in written English and to determine whether the influence of Spanglish was evident. As with all perceptions, the truth or accuracy of each may vary from the perspective of the reader; however, the honesty and cooperative willingness within which the information was shared warrant careful consideration by other students. A proper consideration of the results may allow for these findings to equip both those teaching English as a second language to Hispanic adults and their students to perceive influences in the students' English that might be negative. If this information is used to fulfill the intent for which it was collected, then the whole institution of VIDA Ministries, including teachers and students, can benefit. Overall, this study was a rewarding, though challenging, instance of personal and professional growth. I hope it has provided the framework for other researchers to look for answers to the many remaining questions about Spanglish, or to inquire into the influence of Spanglish/Anglicism in other contexts such as Bolivia.

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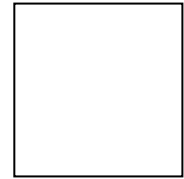
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APPENDIX A

Demographic Information



Choose the appropriate answer for you. Encircle it or complete it.

Male

Female

1. How old are you?
 - a. 15-20 years
 - b. 20-25 years
 - c. 25-30 years
 - d. Other _____

2. What is your native language?
 - a. English
 - b. Spanish
 - c. Other _____

3. What is your level of education?
 - a. 1st-5th grade
 - b. 6-8 grade
 - c. 8-12 grade
 - d. Other _____

4. How long have you been in the USA?
 - a. 1-12 months
 - b. 1-5 years
 - c. 5-10 years
 - d. Other _____

5. How long have you been learning English?
 - a. 1-5 months
 - b. 5-10 months
 - c. 1-5 years
 - d. Other _____

6. Do you consider yourself a bilingual person?

Yes

No

7. If you answered yes, why do you consider yourself bilingual?

8. Which language do you use more frequently?

a. Spanish

b. English

c. Both

Now put it in the percentage.

| | English % | Spanish% |
|---------------------|-----------|----------|
| -At home..... | _____ | _____ |
| -At work..... | _____ | _____ |
| -For shopping..... | _____ | _____ |
| -On the street..... | _____ | _____ |

9. Check the level or ability of your English in the following areas

Beginner/

Intermediate/

Advanced/

a. Listening _____

b. Reading _____

c. Speaking _____

d. Writing _____

APPENDIX B

Writing Questionnaire

Write the following paragraphs using English.

A. Write a paragraph about your typical day.

B. Write a paragraph about what things people usually buy for their home.

C. Write a paragraph about what things we usually use money to buy.

APPENDIX C

Questions for Interview

Date.....Time.....

Place.....

Interviewer.....

Interviewed.....F/M.....age.....

Introduction

The selected adult students from VIDA Ministries ESL classes will provide information about code-switching and code-mixing (Spanglish) on a daily basis, which will lead to conclusions regarding whether or not the exposure to it has influences upon spoken English.

Questions

1. How long have you been learning English?
2. What has the experience of learning English been like for you?
3. What are the most challenging things in your experience of learning English?
4. What are the most exciting things about your experience of learning English?
5. How do you feel about learning English?

6. At what times of the day, with whom, and in what situations do you speak English during the day?
7. At what times of the day, with whom, and in what situations do you speak Spanish during the day?
8. I would like to do a role-play with you. Do you know what role-play is? (Explain if necessary). Let's pretend you're at your house in the morning. You can be you and I can be someone in your family. Who would you like me to be? Speak to me as you would to that person, and we'll see how far we get in the day. Please speak in whatever language you usually use with a member of your family. If you mix English and Spanish sometimes when you speak, please do that too. Use the language that comes naturally to you.
9. Are you aware of it when you mix English and Spanish when you're speaking? If so, why do you do it? What are you thinking when you do it?
10. Are there any words you use that are not really English or Spanish words, but rather a combination of the two languages? Please tell me about some of those words and explain situations in which you use them.
11. I'd like to talk a little about your daily routine. Please tell me about it. (Information to look for: What time do you wake up in the morning? Who is at home at that time? What language do you speak during that time? How does the daily routine begin? Who takes your children to school? What time do they leave? What time do you leave for work? Where do you work? What

do you do at your work? What responsibilities do you have at work? What language do you speak while you're at work? Do you speak English, Spanish, or a little of both with your supervisor? What about with your co-workers? How much time are you given for lunch? Do you eat lunch at work, or go somewhere with friends? What time do you get home? Do you or your family watch TV or listen to music during the day? If so, in what language? What do you and your family do after you get home? Do you eat dinner together? What language do you speak during that time? Who is present? What time do your children go to bed? What is their bedtime routine? What time do you go to bed? Who are the people with whom you have regular contact at different times throughout the day? What are your responsibilities at home? What are your spouse's responsibilities at home?)

12. What do you do on the weekends?