STYLE SHIFTING IN SPANISH AND ENGLISH ACROSS THREE ENGLISH
PROFICIENCY LEVELS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF PUERTO RICO AT MAYAGÜEZ

By

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Resumen

Esta tesis examina aspectos fonéticos-fonológicos de estilo, tanto en inglés como en español, de doce estudiantes en la Universidad de Puerto Rico, Recinto de Mayagüez. Se usó como estrategia grupos de pares para ubicar estudiantes de tres niveles de destrezas en inglés. Para recolectar información acerca de los usos estilísticos en inglés y en español, preparamos dos cuestionarios, uno de uso del lenguaje y otro sobre el significado del estilo. Para recolectar información lingüística, llevamos a cabo entrevistas sociolingüísticas. Los resultados de los cuestionarios indican que todos los estudiantes saben utilizar el estilo formal e informal y que los estudiantes del nivel avanzado usan más inglés que los estudiantes del nivel pre-básico. Con respecto a la s>h>ø, los resultados indican que los estudiantes de todos los niveles de destrezas en inglés cambian de estilo en español. Por último, el estudio reveló, en cuanto a la simplificación de consonantes finales y a la eliminación de la g en inglés, que los estudiantes del nivel avanzado han adquirido las destrezas fonéticos-fonológicas para cambiar de estilo; que los estudiantes del nivel intermedio varían en el uso y que los estudiantes del nivel pre-básico no han adquirido las destrezas lingüísticas.

Abstract

This thesis examines the phonetic-phonological resources for style-shifting in English and Spanish of twelve students at the University of Puerto Rico, Mayagüez. It used social networks to locate students at three English proficiency levels. To collect data about uses of English and Spanish and views toward style, the researcher created language use and stylistic and social meaning questionnaires. To collect linguistic data, the researcher conducted socio-linguistic interviews. Results from the questionnaires showed that all students knew when to use informal and formal styles and that Advanced students had more uses for English than Pre-Basic students. With respect to s>h>ø, the results showed that students from all proficiency levels style-shifted in Spanish. With respect to Final Consonant Cluster Simplification and 'dropping the g,' Advanced students had acquired the phonetic-phonological resources to style shift in English; Intermediate students had variably acquired the resources, and Pre-Basic students had not acquired the linguistic resources.

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this thesis to students in public schools learning English

in Puerto Rico.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Within the World Englishes framework, English-using societies can be viewed as Inner Circle, Outer Circle, or Expanding Circle English-using societies (Melchers & Shaw, 2003). Inner Circle societies are countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, and Canada in which English is a native language for the vast majority of speakers. Outer Circle societies are countries such as India and Nigeria which are characterized by a relatively high degree of multilingualism and in which English has country internal functions both as a second language *lingua franca* and as an institutionalized variety in the fields of government, law, and education. Expanding Circle societies are countries such as Colombia and Japan in which English functions as a foreign or an international language used for communication with speakers outside the country.

In Puerto Rico, Spanish is a first language, which, according to Schnitzer (1997), differs from other dialects of Spanish and can be referred to as Puerto Rican Spanish (PRS). English is a second language, but the status of Puerto Rico as an English-using society is unclear. According to Blau and Dayton (1997), Puerto Rico has characteristics of both an Expanding Circle country and an Outer Circle country. Similar to speakers in an Outer Circle country, Puerto Ricans acquire English primarily through formal instruction in the classroom; however, similar to speakers in an Expanding Circle country, Puerto Ricans acquire a country internal variety of English (Dayton & Blau, 1999) through Puerto Rican English teachers educated primarily in Puerto Rico. As Puerto Rican English (PRE) is an acceptable non-native variety of English in Puerto Rico

(Dayton and Blau, 1999), Puerto Ricans have an endonormative target for English similar to Expanding Circle countries, not an exonormative target similar to Outer Circle countries. Puerto Rico differs from other Expanding Circle countries in that English does not function as a *lingua franca* on the island. However, even though English does not function as a *lingua franca* and even though Puerto Ricans learn English as a second language through the formal setting of schools, Puerto Ricans certainly have more input and exposure to English than speakers in Outer Circle countries such as Colombia, and by the time Puerto Ricans enter college, they have had at least 12 years of English as a subject in the Puerto Rican public schools.

Style, as a characteristic of the English of monolinguals, has been investigated in Inner Circle societies such as the United States. In 1959, Joos was one of the first linguists to write about style. According to Joos, (as cited in Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert & Leap, 2000) there are five styles, but two have relevance for this thesis. Casual style is informal speech between peers, which includes the use of slang and omission of certain grammatical elements; formal style is determined by the setting in which a person is interacting and is associated with school-based language. To examine style, this thesis focuses on casual and formal style but uses a definition of style put forth by Labov in the 1970s. According to Labov (as cited in Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert & Leap, 2000), style can be defined as the amount of attention paid to speech. The more attention paid to speech, the more formal the style; the less attention paid to speech, and the less audio monitoring, the more informal the style. Labov viewed casual speech as informal style and careful speech, including reading passages, word lists, and minimal pairs, as formal

style. To style-shift between informal and formal styles speakers pay less or more attention to speech.

It seems reasonable to assume that, similar to monolingual English speakers, both monolingual speakers of PRS and PRS speakers with English as a second language have both informal and formal styles of PRS and are able to style shift. They may acquire an informal style of Spanish in their daily lives through social interaction with their family, friends, and members of informal networks. They may acquire a formal style of Spanish in schools and universities with teachers and professors and through reading literature and newspapers.

According to Schnitzer (1997) PRS /s/ has one allophone [s] that can be used in all contexts. In syllable - final position, there are different alternatives to the [s] allophone. In post nuclear, syllable final contexts, speakers may use the allophone [h] as in los dos [loh doh]; they may delete the [s] completely as in [lo dos] or they may duplicate or lengthen the following consonant [lod dos] (Schnitzer 1997, p.56). In Spanish, a stylistic variable that speakers use for style – shifting is popularly referred to as "comiendo la s."[1] This stylistic variable involves the alternation between [s], [h] and [ø] in phrases such as *los muchachos* and *nosotros comíamos.* For this variable, the [s] variant signals formal style, and variants other than [s] signal informal style.

In contrast, it cannot be assumed that PRS speakers with English as a second language have both informal and formal styles of Puerto Rican English due to the way they acquire English and the availability of native speaker models for face-to-face interaction. Since PRS speakers with English as a second language learn a formal variety of Puerto Rican English through social interaction with teachers and professors in schools

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[1] Folk way to refer to the process of aspiration [h] and deletion [ø] of the *s* in Spanish.

and universities and through reading literature and not through social interaction in their daily lives, as they learn Spanish, it seems reasonable to assume that if they acquire English, they acquire a formal variety with a formal style. In addition, models of an informal variety and an informal style of English are practically nonexistent. Puerto Ricans who wish to learn informal English and an informal style can watch English TV reality shows, listen to music in English, travel to the United States or, in some cases, engage in social interaction with English–speaking tourists at tourist spots in Puerto Rico such as San Juan, Aguadilla and Rincón. Given the general difficulty of interacting informally in English on the island, Puerto Ricans with English as a second language may have a formal variety and style of English in their repertoire and lack an informal variety and style.

In fact, to style shift from formal to informal English, Puerto Ricans with English as second language need phonological–phonetic resources. Monolingual English speakers in Inner Circle English-using societies have phonological and phonetic resources in their linguistic repertoire which they used stylistically in English. One stylistic variable is referred to in the literature as "dropping the g." To "drop the g" in English, a speaker uses the alveolar nasal /n/ and the velar nasal /ŋ/. In informal style, a speaker de-velarizes the velar nasal and uses the alveolar nasal; in formal style the speaker uses the velar nasal. In addition, English speakers have two high front vowels in their repertoires, the tense /i/ and the lax /I/. To "drop the g" the speaker uses the high, front, lax vowel. The combination of the high, front, lax vowel with either the alveolar or the velar nasal produces the two variants of the variable (ng) which can be represented

orthographically as *in'* and i*ng*. The first signals informal style; the second signals formal style.

According to Schnitzer (1997), there are three nasal phonemes in PRS: /m/, /ñ/ and /n/. The /m/ and /ñ/ phonemes each have one allophone. The /n/ phoneme has two allophones, [n] and [ŋ], which are in free variation in word final position. The allophone [n] will occur in environments in which the phoneme /n/ is followed by an alveolar. The allophone [ŋ] will occur in environments where the phoneme /n/ is followed by a velar. According to Schnitzer (1997), there are five vowels in PRS: /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/ and /u/. The phonemes /i/, /e/, /a/, /o/ and /u/ have two allophones each. One is pronounced with the tongue in a higher position; the other is pronounced with the tongue in a lower position. The higher allophone is used in open syllables while the lower allophone is used in closed syllables. For example, the phoneme /i/, has the higher allophone [i] that occurs in words with open syllables such as *sí, vino, mira, pito* and *tigre*. The lower allophone [i̞] occurs in closed syllables such as *fin, tinto, mixto, pista* and *ignoran*. In order to use the variable (ng) and to style shift in English with the two variants *in'* and *ing,* the PRS speaker with English as a second language, who may not have fully acquired the needed phonological - phonetic resources in English, may substitute the lower allophone [i̞] of the Spanish vowel phoneme /i/ for the English allophone [I]. At the same time, the Spanish speaker may substitute the allophone [ŋ] of the phoneme /n/ for the English phoneme /ŋ/.

A second stylistic variable is referred to in the literature as Final Consonant Cluster Simplification (FCCS) or Word Final Consonant Cluster Reduction. According to Schnitzer (1997), English and Spanish differ in terms of their phonotactics, "the

restrictions on how the phonemes of a language are permitted to be arranged" (p. 81). This thesis focuses on the coda and the number of consonants that are permitted at the end of a word. According to Schnitzer, English permits up to four consonants in the coda. This thesis focuses on codas with two consonants such as the following: stop - fricative /ps/, fricative - stops /st/, stop-stop /pt/, fricative – fricative /vz/, etc.

In English, FCCS operates on words with two consonants in word final position. Word final consonant clusters that involve the production of both consonants as in words such as *last* [læst] signal formal style. Word final consonant clusters that involve the simplification or reduction of the second consonant as in words such as l*ast* [læs] signal informal style. A PRS speaker with English as a second language, who may not have fully acquired the phonotactic resources for codas with two consonants in word final position, may fail to pronounce the second consonant of words ending in a two consonant cluster. In other words, the speaker may tend to pronounce the English word *last* as /læs/ because of interference from Spanish phonotactic constraints, which permit only one consonant at the end of a word. This may make it difficult for a bilingual to pronounce two consonants together at the end of English words when speaking English. Thus, to be able to manipulate consonant cluster simplification as a stylistic variable, the PRS speaker with English as a second language must have first acquired the phonotactic rule of pronouncing two consonants together at the end of words.

There is a gap in research on the phonological–phonetic resources that PRS speakers of English as a second language may have available for stylistic manipulation. This research will focus on student learners of English as a second language at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayagüez. The research will focus on the linguistic

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repertoires and the phonological–phonetic resources for style-shifting of these students in order to know if they can use and are aware of informal and formal styles of PRS and informal and formal styles of Puerto Rican English. The research questions that will guide this thesis are as follows:

1. What do the participants (three main student participants and nine student friends) know about stylistic and social meanings and the linguistic resources to express them? Specifically, do they know that the different phonetic – phonological sounds carry social and stylistic meaning in Spanish and English?

2. Do the participants from each level, Pre-Basic English, Intermediate English, and Advanced English at the UPRM style shift in Spanish?

3. Do the participants from each level, Pre-Basic English, Intermediate English, and Advanced English at the UPRM style shift in English?

   A. Across the proficiency levels, do the participants who represent each proficiency level have the same phonetic – phonological resources to style shift?

   B. Does monitoring operate on a continuum increasing in formal contexts, and thereby producing a style shift toward monitored / formal variants?

4. Does the proficiency level, in terms of knowledge about stylistic and social meanings and the phonetic-phonological resources to express them; of the nine student friends match the proficiency level of the three main student participants?

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This thesis focuses on the phonetic and phonological resources that Spanish – English speakers at different proficiency levels have to express style, which has been investigated within two bodies of literature that are relevant for this thesis: 1) socio-linguistic literature and 2) literature for second language acquisition.

Style-shifting and sociolinguistics

According to Holmes (2001), Labov defined style, with respect to monolingual speech communities, as the amount of attention paid to speech (p. 236). The vernacular is the style in which the speaker gives minimal attention to the monitoring of speech. The vernacular is a speaker's most relaxed, casual, or informal style. As Holmes pointed out, the vernacular is "a person's most basic style..which…provides the sociolinguist with the most systematic and therefore the most valuable data for analysis" (p. 236). In a Labovian framework, style interacts with social class so that "a low frequency of vernacular [in] pronunciations or a higher frequency of standard [iŋ] pronunciations may therefore signal that the speaker belongs to a high social class, or reflect the fact that they are speaking in a more formal context, or both" (Holmes, 2001, p. 239). As Holmes pointed out, a linguistic feature such as *–ing* and *–in'* distinguish between speakers socially (inter-speaker variation) while within the speech of one speaker it distinguishes different styles (intra-speaker variation) (p. 238).

Two researchers who have examined, within a Labovian framework, the phonetic and phonological resources for style-shifting that will be investigated in this thesis,

consonant cluster simplification and the variation between *–ing* and *–in'* , are Wolfram and Fasold (1974) and Wolfram (1991).

Wolfram and Fasold (1974) discussed Final Consonant Cluster Simplification (FCSS) as a socially diagnostic phonological feature in standard and non-standard dialects of English. According to Wolfram and Fasold, in all dialects of English, words that end in a consonant cluster may have the cluster reduced, or simplified, by removing the final member of the cluster. The final member of the cluster may be removed in 1) words with clusters in which both members of the cluster are an inherent part of the word and the final member of the cluster is reduced such as *test > tes'* : *hand > han'*; *build > buil'* and 2) words with clusters resulting from the addition of the suffix *–ed* to a word and the final member of the cluster is reduced such as *messed* [mɛst] > [mɛs], *looked* [lUkt] > [lUk], *rubbed* [rəbd] > [rəb], and *rained* [rend] > [ren]. Even though all dialects of English undergo FCSS, there are differences on the conditions that affect simplification. Wolfram and Fasold reported that in Standard English simplification can take place only when the following word begins with a consonant whereas in Vernacular Black English simplification can take place not only when the following word begins with a consonant but also when the following word begins with a vowel.

As mentioned FCCS is a socially diagnostic phonological feature. Socially diagnostic features are linguistic features that have social significance. These linguistic features present a parallel behavior with a social class continuum and style continuum from less formal to more formal styles. This implies that if a feature is more common in the lower classes or in non-standard dialects than in the higher classes or in the higher

classes, it will be more common in less formal styles than in more formal styles for all speakers (p.85).

Wolfram and Fasold (1974) discussed "dropping the g" in some words ending in _–ing_ as a socially diagnostic feature. According to Wolfram and Fasold, for the _in'_ variant the [ŋ] pronunciation is replaced by [n]. The _in'_ pronunciation of _–ing_ occurs in all nonstandard and standard dialects, but it occurs at a higher frequency level in nonstandard dialects than in standard dialects. The _in'_ pronunciation is also very sensitive to stylistic context; it is favored in conversational style and disfavored in formal style. There are also some linguistic constraints on the pronunciation of _in'_. The _in'_ pronunciation is influenced by the stem of the syllable in which _–ing_ appears in four ways. First, in monosyllables that automatically receive primary word stress in English, _in'_ is not used, so *sing* is never *sin*. Second, in the words *anything* and *everything* _–ing_ ends in a syllable with an intermediate stress level. Under such stress conditions, _in'_ is disfavored. Third, when the syllable containing _–ing_ is unstressed as in the words *nothing* and *something,* the _in'_ pronunciation is common. Finally, when _–ing_ is added to a verb that ends in unstressed _en_ (*listen* or *open*), the _in'_ pronunciation of _–ing_ causes the verb to end in two identical syllables (*lissinin* or *opinin*). There is a tendency, haplology, for sequences of identical syllables to be reduced to one. This tendency can apply to words like *listening* and *opening* and leave *he was listen to it* or *he is open a car*.

Wolfram (1991) examined FCCS, re-named "word final consonant cluster reduction," within the context of a discussion on the linguistic constraints on variability, "the systematic effect of linguistic factors on the relative frequency of particular forms" (p.195). In the case of word final consonant cluster reduction, there are two constraints,

or factors, that have an effect on the frequency with which consonant cluster reduction takes place. The first is a phonological factor, whether the word following the consonant cluster begins with a consonant or a non-consonant. Reduction may take place in both linguistic environments, but it is favored in those environments where the word following the cluster begins with a consonant. The second is a grammatical factor, whether the cluster is an inherent part of the word or is formed through the addition of the –ed suffix. Clusters that are an inherent part of a word are more likely to undergo reduction than clusters that are formed through the addition of the –ed suffix. The two factors taken together provide four environments in which final consonant cluster reduction can occur.

Wolfram pointed out that in some dialects of English the phonological constraint is more important than the grammatical constraint; in other dialects of English the grammatical constraint is more important than the phonological constraint. To show the difference in the constraints, Wolfram compared the constraints on word final consonant cluster reduction for different dialects of English which included: Standard English, Northern white working class, Southern white working class, Appalachian working class, Northern black working class, Southern black working class, Chicano working class, Puerto Rican working class, Italian working class, American Indian Puebloan English and Vietnamese English. According to the comparison, in both Standard English and Puerto Rican working class English, the phonological constraint was more important than the grammatical constraint even though across the four environments Puerto Rican working class English speakers reduced clusters at a much higher rate than Standard English speakers. Puerto Rican working class English speakers and Chicano working class English speakers reduced clusters at a similar rate, but for Puerto Rican working

class English speakers the phonological constraint was more important than the grammatical constraint whereas for Chicano working class English speakers the grammatical constraint was more important than the phonological constraint.

Wolfram (1991) discussed the variation between *–ing* (representing [Iŋ] phonetically) and *in'* (representing [In] phonetically) in terms of inherent variability, or the fact that the variation is an internal part of a single linguistic system or dialect. In other words, "a single dialect system simply possesses two phonological variants of this ending, and the speaker sometimes uses one form and sometimes the other" (p. 193).

As Wolfram pointed out, dialects are sometimes differentiated not by the discrete or categorical use or non - use of forms but by the relative frequency with which different variants of a form occur. Although we cannot predict which variant might be used in a given instance, there are factors or constraints, that can increase or decrease the likelihood that certain variants will occur. The constraints are of two major types. First, there are social constraints such as social class which systematically increase or decrease the likelihood that a particular variant will occur. A speaker from the lower working class is more likely to use *in'* for *–ing* that a speaker from the upper class. There are also linguistic constraints on variation, which operate separate from the social factors, that correlate with variability.

In an English speaker's dialect, *ing* and *in'* may fluctuate in some words such as in *working* and *workin'*. However, *–ing* may also be used categorically with one set of lexical items such as the formal words *reciting* and *pursuing* while *in'* may be used categorically with another set of lexical items such as the informal words *somethin'* and *nothin'*.

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Three studies examined the phonetic and phonological resources that speakers have for style shifting in English. Huspek (1986) examined the variation between in' and –ing in the speech of monolingual English speakers. Frazer (1996) examined several phonetic/phonological features of Chicano English in the speech of bilingual speakers of Chicano English, and Poplack (1978) examined how Spanish - English bilingual Puerto Ricans acquire the Philadelphia dialect.

Huspek (1986) analyzed *-ing/in'* variability in the monolingual speech of ten white males who averaged 29 years of age from a speech community in North America made up of urban, industrial, blue collar workers. Their formal work title was "lumber industrial worker," and their work was manual unskilled, dangerous and unfulfilling.

To collect data on *–ing* and *-in'*, Huspek took two approaches. The first approach stemmed from sociolinguistics and involved audio-taped interviews that he used to examine the linguistic and extra-linguistic constraints on the choice of *–ing* and *-in'*. The second approach stemmed from the ethnography of communication and involved the ethnographic observation of the workers and the workplace for twenty-eight months over a four year period. During this period, he examined the context and situation, speech events, and the speech acts in which *–ing* and *–in'* occurred. He focused his ethnographic interest on environments such as job layoffs, career ending workplace injuries, management-enforced policy of workers, and worker non- participation in important decisions.

Drawing from the work of Labov and Dittmar, Huspek was interested in finding out 1) the extent to which variability was related to meaning, 2) if variability merely represents alternative ways of "saying the same thing," and 3) if variability provides clues

that may lead to discoveries of the social and stylistic meaning of linguistic behavior. Specifically, Huspek wanted to find out what motivates selection of a low prestige variant such as *–in'* and why the selection of a low prestige variant such as *–in'* persists. His hypothesis was that the variation between *–ing* and *–in'* was intimately bound up with contrastive meanings that have social and stylistic relevance for members of the speech community.

Huspek found several linguistic and extralinguistic constraints on the variation of *-ing* and *–in'* when he analyzed the tape-recorded data. First, in verb constructions, the *-in'* variant was used 89% of the time while the *–ing* variant was used 10% of the time. Second, in adjective constructions, the *–in'* variant was used 55% of the time while the *–ing* variant was used 44% of the time. Finally, in noun constructions, the *–in'* variant was used only 8% of the time while the *–ing* variant was used 92% of the time. Thus, Huspek showed that there were grammatical constraints on the occurrence of *–ing* and *–in'*. He also found that *-in'* corresponded to a shift from a formal to an informal style and that *-ing* corresponded to a shift from an informal to a formal style.

Huspek had several findings based on his ethnographic field notes, particularly concerning variation between *–ing* and *–in'*. Speakers selected the low prestige *–in'* variant to express low estimation of self (and social peers) and to unify speech interlocutors within the speech community. In other words, selection of the low prestige variant bound together speech interlocutors while also reinforcing the workers' stigmatized social status both in their own eyes and in the eyes of high prestige or powerful others.

To conclude, Huspek proposed that variability does not always represent two ways of saying the same thing. In Huspek's view, variability is influenced by context and is tied to meaning, and the selection of one variant over another is may be a choice between contrastive meanings. For example if a worker states *He went joggin' last night after work* when referring to a workmate, and states *He went jogging last night after work* when referring to a high official in the workplace, the meanings of each utterance may differ radically.

Frazer (1996) examined the speech in tape-recorded oral history interviews of 11 bilingual Mexican–American residents in Sterling and Rock Falls, Illinois. Each interview included 40 minutes of free conversation with questions about community history and childhood. For each of the speakers, Frazer examined several phonetic – phonological features of Chicano English that had been documented in other studies. Even though the oral history format did not include reading passages or minimal pairs that allowed for the sociolinguistic analysis of style – shifting, Frazer examined two features of Chicano English that are relevant for this thesis: the tensing of /I/ in final –ing and consonant cluster deletion. Frazer did not give very much detail about these two phonetic/phonological features. However, if /I/ is tensed and if /ŋ/ is pronounced as /n/ as he suggests (p.82), this indicates that perhaps the speakers in his study had a variant of –ing that is pronounced as Spanish *ín* in words such as *boletín.* According to Frazer, there were some examples of consonant cluster reduction in his sample, but most of the examples involved the final *nt* of *didn't* and *don't* (p.76). The participants that used these features were women born between 1930-1945.

Frazer wanted to find out if the Chicano English used in Sterling and Rock Falls was a viable English dialect or simply a temporary kind of interference English that would not appear in the speech of monolinguals. He believed that, given the size of the Sterling and Rock Falls community, its distance from the Rio Grande, and its comparatively weak Spanish presence, if a variety of Chicano English did emerge in Sterling and Rock Falls, this variety would differ from varieties of Chicano English found in the Southwest (p.74).

Frazer found that the variety of Chicano English spoken in Sterling and Rock Falls was markedly different from the white vernacular. It was also different from some varieties of Chicano English from the Southwest. It had fewer Hispanic features and more closely resembled white norms. The men's speech showed variants that appear in the speech of non-Hispanic working class dialects, while the women's speech showed the phonetic–phonological variants investigated in the research. The most marked version of Chicano English was restricted to the women because women had fewer contacts with non-Hispanic varieties of English (p. 82). The strongest evidence for Chicano English appeared among older women because, unlike their daughters, they had less opportunity than the men to have contact with and to use other non-Hispanic varieties.

Finally, Frazer conducted a subjective reaction test to find out if the Chicano English spoken in Sterling and Rock Falls was recognized as different by white college students living in the area. This test showed that most of these students could distinguish between the speech of the Sterling/Rock Falls Anglos and Hispanics. With respect to phonetic/phonological variants in bilinguals, the main point was that bilinguals have English as a first language, but they have Spanish interference in their dialect of English.

Poplack (1978) investigated how Spanish-English bilingual Puerto Ricans acquired the Philadelphia dialect. The data for Poplack's study were collected at Saint Veronica's, a Catholic school located in the heart of the Puerto Rican community in North Philadelphia. The participants were sixth graders whose ages ranged from eleven to thirteen. They were nearing, or at the end of, the critical period for language acquisition, and they were at the "turning point" when bilingual children are supposed to stop speaking the language of their parents (Spanish) and start speaking the language of their peers (English).

To collect tape-recorded data, Poplack used an interview schedule designed to elicit casual speech by discussing topics which children enjoy. She also interviewed the children in groups of two or three after school and usually in their homes. She also interviewed one parent from each child network. In order to elicit formal speech, she asked the children to engage in role play. The children were asked to pretend they were people of different social statuses in various social situations such as their parents fighting and a principal yelling at students.

The interviews were conducted almost exclusively in English and all the children were dominant in English. Eighty percent of the children reported that their parents spoke Spanish to them; ninety percent reported that they spoke English to their siblings, and one hundred percent reported that they used English with Puerto Ricans and non - Puerto Rican friends. In other words, these children in the sixth grade preferred English over Spanish in domains other than the home.

The analysis was based on data from a subset of three friendship networks in the sixth grade consisting of five boys and five girls, all together, as well as one parent

associated with each network. Poplack examined the six phonological variables and their

Philadelphian, Black English Vernacular (BEV), and Puerto Rican Spanish (PRS)

variants shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Six phonological variables in the English of English-Spanish bilinguals

Variables	Variants
(ow) 'home'	Philadelphia - fronting in all environments except, before l.
	PRS – the monophthongized vowel [o].
	BEV – no specific variant existed for this variable.
(uw) 'boot'	Philadelphia - extreme fronting in all environments except before /l/.
	PRS - the monophthongized vowel [u]
	BEV - no specific variant existed for this variable.
(aw) 'house'	Philadelphia - any degree of raising and fronting.
	PRS - variant was [au].
	BEV - no specific variant existed for this variable.
(r#) 'hard car'	Philadelphia - any degree of r-constriction.
	PRS - variant was a flap [ɾ].
	BEV - variant was r-lessness.
(ay) 'fight'	Philadelphia - two very distinct allophones, a raised and centralized one before voiceless consonants and a lowered one before voiced consonants.
	PRS - variant was [aï].
	BEV - variants were [a], [aə] and, [a:]
(æh) 'bad'	Philadelphia – some variants were tensed, and the nucleus of tensed vowels may raise to the level of mid [e]. The lax variants remained at the level of lower - mid [æ].
	PRS - variant was the low front vowel [a].
	BEV - variant was [æ.I].

According to Poplack, the variables in Table 1 are representative of the Philadelphia speech community and help members of the speech community identify a Philadelphian accent. Each variable has a phonetic variant which can be correlated with PRS and three of the variables have phonetic variants which can be correlated with Black English vernacular (BEV) influence. In order to analyze the data from the tape-recorded interview, Poplack coded each variant of each of the variables in Table 1 in both careful and casual styles for a total of 6,700 tokens. The following topics distinguished the casual speech: narratives of personal experience, discussions of kids' games, tangents, where the subject went off in a different direction from the interviewer's first push, and group interaction. The following topics distinguished careful speech: direct response to the interviewer's questions, discussion of language and other formal institutions, and reading style. Poplack computed the percentages of occurrence of each variant for each style.

Poplack's results showed, first, that all of the variables were used in a stylistically sensitive way. Both boys and girls used more Philadelphian variants in careful style than in casual style, which indicated that Puerto Rican children accurately perceive the Philadelphia variants as more prestigeful in their society than the ones that are associated with BEV. In casual style, where less attention is paid to speech itself and where the speaker also wants to present himself as cool or "with it," the percentages of BEV variants increased dramatically. This is testimony that the BEV variants have covert prestige. Finally, the girls used more Philadelphia variants than the boys, and the boys used more BEV variants than the girls. According to the social network analysis that Poplack carried out, even though there were only two blacks in the sixth grade at Saint Veronica, one of the black students who spoke BEV was named by several Puerto Rican

boys as one of the five people they liked to hang out with the most. To conclude, Poplack said that this study provided sociolinguistic evidence that bilingual Puerto Rican speakers of English "show a remarkable level of linguistic sophistication in that they can socially classified linguistic variants from two competing system and used them appropriately with in the framework of their society" (p. 102).

Up to this point, this literature review has concerned phonetic and phonological variation as a stylistic feature in the English of monolinguals and English-Spanish bilinguals. By contrast, Kirschner (1984) examined variation in morphology and vocabulary as a stylistic feature in the Spanish of Spanish-English bilinguals. This study is included in this literature review because it is the only paper I have found that examines the interaction between style shifting and code switching.

Kirschner (1984) investigated style shifting and code switching in 19 Spanish-English bilingual university students in the New York metropolitan area. They were enrolled in a Spanish for native speakers course. Most of them were born and raised in the New York metro area where they had attended high school and had received some formal training in the Spanish language. Most of them spoke Spanish at home and both Spanish and English with friends.

Kirschner defined style shifting as an intra-language phenomenon and pointed out that it referred to the transition between styles available in one language in accordance with the function of the style shift and the conversational context. Style shifting should be intuitive and occurs fluidly among the varieties of one specific language. He defined code-switching as an inter-language phenomenon that "relates to the transition made between the codes (languages) available according to the function of the utterance or

conversation" (p. 274). According to Kirschner, bilinguals have native competence in two languages. For this reason, they should be able to code-switch between two languages and to style shift in both languages too. The research examined the potential of the Spanish-English bilinguals for performing both intra-language style-shifts and inter – language code switches between English and Spanish. The hypothesis of the research was that the true bilingual will be capable of doing both tasks and will be able to do so simultaneously. These two skills will distinguish the true bilingual from the 'near native' who is not capable of performing both tasks simultaneously.

Kirschner used a questionnaire to find out if bilinguals are able to code-switch between two languages and to style shift in both languages too. The questionnaire that he administered to the participants had three parts which he administered separately: Task A, Task B and Task C. The tasks tested morphology and vocabulary in bilinguals. Task A required the ability to perform a simultaneous style shift and code switch and asked the participants to translate a verbal idiom (verb + particle) in English to a one word verb equivalent in Spanish. The task represented a style shift in that Kirschner viewed verbal idioms such as *call off* as informal and one word verbs in English (and Spanish) such as *cancel* as formal. Task B required a style shift from a verb + particle to a formal synonym in English. The participants were asked to provide one word synonyms such as raise for verbal idioms such as *bring up*. Task C required a code switch from a sentence in English with a formal one word verb (for example, *cancel, deceive, surrender*, etc.) to a sentence in Spanish with the formal counterpart (for example, a switch from *deceive* to *engañar*).

Kirschner pointed out that movement across the hurdle from informal L2 to informal L1 or vice versa is very difficult. Despite this difficulty, he reported that the

bilingual participants were successful in all three tasks, which illustrated native speaker competence in Spanish and English. In his study, he built on a previous study in which the participants were English-speaking students of Spanish in their fourth year of study of Spanish as an L2. Similar to the bilinguals, the L2 students of Spanish did not have any difficulty with the style shift task in B. However, in contrast with the bilinguals, they were less successful with Task C, the code switch task, and they were unsuccessful with Task A, the style shift and code switch combination. Kirschner used the different performances of the bilinguals and the L2 students of Spanish to make his point that bilinguals have native speaker competence in both languages but L2 students have native speaker competence in only one language, their L1. Pedagogically, the teacher must be aware of these two different populations and teach to address their individual needs.

Finally, two studies examined, within a Labovian framework, the resources speakers have for style shifting in Spanish. Hochberg (1986) examined the process of /s/ aspiration/deletion in the speech of 10 monolingual women speakers of Puerto Rican Spanish. Amastae (1989) examined the process of /s/ aspiration/deletion in the speech of 14 monolingual speakers of Honduran Spanish.

Hochberg (1986) and Amastae (1989) examined the process of /s/ aspiration/deletion. As Amastae points out, under this process, syllable final /s/ is aspirated or deleted as in 1 (a-b). According to Amastae, the rule in 1 (b) is subject to a number of linguistic, social and stylistic constraints.

1.

    a.   las escuelas [las ehkwelah] / [las ekwela] – the schools (p. 170)

    b.   /s/ →[h ø] / { # } (p. 170)

$$\{C\}$$

Hochberg (1986) conducted an empirical study of /s/ deletion in Puerto Rican Spanish (PRS). According to Hochberg, in PRS speakers of all social classes variably aspirate and delete final /s/. This deletion is important because /s/ plays an important morphological role. It marks the plural on article, adjectives, and nouns in the NP, and it marks the 2 sg. form in the VP. If PRS speakers delete /s/, they must compensate for /s/ deletion or do without the information that /s/ carries in Standard Spanish.

The data for Hochberg's study came from one - on - one interviews with ten Puerto Rican women who were studying or working in Boston's South End. The women were in their twenties, born in Puerto Rico, and had moved to the United States in their teens or later. A native speaker of Puerto Rican Spanish (PRS) conducted all the interviews with the women. Each interview lasted approximately one half hour. The first part was formal, and the second part was informal. The formal part was about the topics of work and education, and the informal part was about the topics of religion, marriage, danger of death, crime and, drugs. Thus, the interviewer tried to elicit formal and informal styles through choice of topic.

Hochberg wanted to find out if individuals who drop more /s/'s use more pronouns. The main finding that Hochberg reported was that her data supported the hypothesized link between /s/ deletion and the use of subject pronouns. Of 3,897 underlying final /s/'s, 53% were dropped. She found that deletion of verbal /s/ was

especially frequent. Eighty four percent of the final /s/ on second singular forms was deleted, and, correspondingly, subject pronoun usage was high. Forty percent of the 3,019 verbs that could be used with the subject pronoun did, in fact, have a subject pronoun (p. 612). This finding supported the functional hypothesis, the idea that if speakers of PRS delete /s/, they must compensate for the deletion or do without the information that /s/ carries in Standard Spanish.

Finally, Hochberg reported a stylistic effect with the use of pronouns. The ten speakers showed some stylistic variation. They used more instances of *yo* and *ella* in the informal half of the interview than in the formal half of the interview and did not vary in the use of other pronouns. The findings of the research showed that the general tendency in Puerto Rican Spanish is to use pronouns functionally as well as stylistically.

As mentioned, Amastae (1989) also examined *s* aspiration /deletion. However, he examined how *s* aspiration and deletion intersected with spirantization in Honduran Spanish. The researcher had a native speaker of Spanish who interviewed 14 speakers of Honduran Spanish. These participants were students of the University of Texas at El Paso for a period of 18 months. They included 10 men and 4 women all of whom were in the lower middle class and whose ages ranged from 20 to 23. They were interviewed using a standard sociolinguistic format to elicit careful and casual styles and the interviews included conversation using techniques, designed to reduce speakers self awareness and monitoring, as well as extensive word list. One of the main topics of conversation was their program of study at the University of Texas and their experiences in the United States. The interviews included two parts: extensive conversation and an

extensive word list. The interviews were transcribed; the data was coded and prepared for variable rule analysis using VARBRUL 2s.

In addition to examining *s* aspiration / deletion, Amastae examined spirantization, the process by which voiced stops become spirants after vowels or other continuant segments such as *r, l, s* and glides. Amastae (1989) addressed the following research questions: What might happen in the intersection of the two processes, spirantization and deletion? What might happen in a dialect which aspirates or deletes preconsonantal *s* and which also does not spirantize after consonants such as *r, l*, or *s*? For example, words such as *esbelto, desde* and *rasgo* provide environment for the two rules and there are two general possibilities *esbelto* (*esßelto, ebelto*). *Esbelto, desde* and *rasgo* pronounced as *esßelto, desðe* and *rasɣo*, implies the ordering of *s* deletion first and spirantization second. *Esbelto, desde and rasgo* pronounced as *ebelto, dede* and *rago* implies spirantization first and *s* deletion second.

Amastae reported that there were not significant differences between the reduced and full variants of *s* in terms of the effect of spirantization as neither ø or *h* increased the probability of the application of spirantization. The environment for spirantization was not at a superficial level but at an abstract level where the preceding consonant plays it part whether phonetically present or not. In addition, the styles identified as careful or casual were not significantly different in terms of spirantization. Amastae attributes the lack of sensitivity to this distinction between careful and casual style to the fact that spirantization is not a socially marked rule of the same source as *s ~ h* aspiration ~ deletion.

In Honduran Spanish, *y* is the most likely of the group to be followed by a spirant and *l* the strongest inhibitor of spirantization, with glides and *s* in the middle. The order across dialects and segments is for glides to be most likely to favor spirantization, followed by *r*, and *s* and *l* are the strongest inhibitors. The *h* and *ø* variants are followed by stops in proportion equivalent to the *s* variant that forms the expected group with *r*, *l* and glides. The careful and casual styles were not significant in terms of contribution to spirantization. Regardless of the phonological justification where all consonants were combined except *l* and *r* in one factor, the research showed substantial differences in consonantal behavior with respect to spirantization.

Style-shifting and second language acquisition

Within the field of second language acquisition, style-shifting has been examined in relation to interlanguage, which is based on the assumption that learners create a language system based on elements from the native language and from the target language. Tarone (1979) and Beebe (1980) have examined style-shifting from the perspective of interlanguage. Both looked at the phonetic and phonological resources that second language learners have for style shifting. Tarone examined these resources in the context of Labov's Observer's Paradox and the interlanguage of second language learners. Beebe examined these resources in speakers who had Thai as a first language and English as a second language.

Tarone (1979) examined the five methodological axioms that led to Labov's Observer Paradox: "the aim of (applied) linguistic research is to describe the way people talk when they are not systematically observed yet such data can only be obtained by systematic observation" (p. 81). Axiom One focused on style shifting and the idea that

there are no single style speakers. In other words, every speaker style shifts, and linguistic and phonetic variables change as the social situation and topic change. Tarone concluded that interlanguage consists of many styles and that the linguistic and phonological characteristic of interlanguage change as the situation changes.

Axiom Two focused on attention. According to this axiom, it is possible to place the styles of speakers along a continuous dimension defined by the amount of attention paid to speech. Axiom Three focused on the vernacular. According to Tarone, similar to Labov, one will find the most regular and systematic phonological and grammatical patterns in the vernacular because the vernacular is where the minimum attention is paid to speech. Tarone recommended that second language acquisition researchers try to study the vernacular as it occurs in informal situations. She hypothesized that the vernacular is the most systematic interlanguage style and that it is the style that is the least permeable to invasion by target language or native language rules.

Axiom Four focused on formality. According to this axiom, a researcher systematically observing a speaker defines a formal context, and the speaker pays more than the minimum amount attention to speech. Tarone pointed out that if interlanguage is a natural language, speakers of interlanguage will style shift as they move from a testing situation such as a school to peer talk as it takes place in a tavern or at home.

Axiom Five focused on good data. According to this axiom, the best way to get data from any speaker is through an individual tape-recorded interview, which provides a formal context. This leads to a paradox. If the researcher gets good recorded data, she/he gets bad data. The data is bad because the speaker has paid attention to speech and has

style shifted away from the vernacular, which is the most systematic style and the one the researcher wants to study.

Beebe (1980) studied second language acquisition and style-shifting in nine adult Thais. Beebe used three subjects of each social class: upper class, middle class and lower class. All subjects had Bangkok Thai as their native language and English as a second language. These participants were living in New York. One male graduate student who was a native speaker of American English tape-recorded the interviews with the Thais; these interviews were approximately one hour long. He conducted all the interviews completely in English. The interviews consisted of the following parts: a conversation, the reading of a passage, the reading of a list of twenty-five words, and a listening perception test. The conversation represented informal speech; the reading of the passage and the reading of the word list represented formal speech. The twenty five words of the word list contained /r/ and /l/ in word initial, word final, word initial cluster, and word final cluster position. The data that is presented in the article is from the conversation and the reading of the list of words. The purpose of these two parts of the interview was to demonstrate style-shifting by eliciting a sharp contrast in styles.

The research questions included: "Does phonological transfer follow the sociolinguistic rules of the native language? Does monitoring operate on a continuum, increasing in formal contexts, and thereby producing a style shift?" (p. 433). Beebe was also interested in finding out if inter-language (IL) is "characterized in formal situations by a high level of both correct TL [target language] variants and transferred NL [native language] variants?"(p. 434). Finally, Beebe was interested in finding out whether the Monitor, the conscious application of grammatical rules, and monitoring, attention paid

to speech, are used on a "sliding scale" or an "on-off" basis (p. 434). The hypothesis of the study was that the pronunciation of the speakers reading the list of words would be closer to native English than the pronunciation of the speakers in interview conversation because the English in the reading of the list of words would have been permeated by the super-ordinate target language, English, system.

Beebe defined an R variable by pointing out that when the Thai speakers used English R, they produced different sounds. Some of these sounds, for example, /l/, sounded like an allophone of the English phoneme /l/. However, if the speakers made an attempt to realize /r/, Beebe considered the realization to be a variant of the R variable. She examined the R variable in two different speech styles, a word list and reading formal style and a conversational informal style. In Thai, speakers pronounce R in word initial position, but R does not exist in word final position. In English, the Thais pronounced final R correctly more often in the formal reading of the word list than in the informal conversation. They pronounced initial R correctly more often in the informal conversation than in the formal reading of the word list. According to Beebe, these findings support the view that "inter-language becomes more permeable in the formal context, and show that it is sometimes permeated by the TL, as in the case of the final R, and sometimes permeated by the NL, as in the case of the initial R" (p. 440)

The results of the Beebe's research suggested that the social value of the sounds in the NL may be an important factor in determining whether the NL acts as the super-ordinate system. The variation in the use of trilled /ř/ demonstrated both style-shifting and transfer of a socially appropriate variant based on NL rules and the transfer of a formal Thai variant in a socio-linguistically formal setting. The findings of this study

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suggested that both Monitoring, the conscious application of grammatical rules, and monitoring, attention paid to speech, occurred on a sliding scale. The evidence for this was that there was a higher rate of correct final Rs in the reading of the word list than in the conversation. These data showed that style-shifting occurs in all natural languages, including inter-languages.

According to Preston (1989), Tarone distinguished between style-shifting, amount of attention paid to speech, and register shifting, the "adjustment of the appropriateness of linguistic behavior by attending to the social relations among interlocutors" (p. 33). For Tarone, non-native speakers were monoregistral. Since they have only one register, their variability is exclusively determined by attention to form, in other words, by style-shifting. Preston criticized Tarone's view because he said that the "claim that NNSs [non-native speakers] only style-shift reduces the importance of sociolinguistic approaches to NNS variability, for it leaves exclusively linguistic reasons for variation" (p. 33). His first criticism was that Tarone was concerned with classroom learners who may have only one register. His second criticism was that although the stylistic continuum may be "operationalized" by reference to attention to form, the stylistic continuum has always been intended to reflect the social relations among interlocutors. According to Preston, "if the continuum of SLA variability reflects only attention to form and not the social and interactional properties suggested by the attention, it is a much less satisfactory parallel to NS [native speaker] variable behavior" (p. 34).

Sornig (2004) defines stylistic variation as "more than two or three alternatives in communicative actions" (p. 584), and examines stylistic effects that are produced, primarily, through stylistic choice at the level of syntax and/or through the lexicon.

Similar to Preston (1989), according to Sornig, stylistic choice depends on "whether both the interlocutor and their partner use and master at least similar codes of expression, especially as far as connotative elements are concerned" (p. 584). As Sornig points out, stylistic choice is "unavoidable" and "indispensable," and there is no such thing as stylistically unmarked texts or language. In discussing the pedagogical effects of an awareness of stylistic variation, Sornig asserts that beginners should be exposed to text examples that resemble communicative reality, but that these examples should not include communicative and associative elements, particularly elements with literary associations, that the beginner cannot cope with. Although Sornig's view is interesting, it holds for stylistic effects produced by choices in the lexicon or in syntax, and it is not clear if Sornig intends for his view to hold at the level of phonetics and phonology.

Blyth (2004), similar to both Preston and Sornig, defines sociolinguistic competence as "a speaker's (or writer's) knowledge of what constitutes an appropriate utterance according to a specific social context" (p. 553). He points out that sociolinguistic competence can be divided into two kinds of knowledge: knowledge about the appropriateness of form and knowledge about the appropriateness of meaning. For example, if a waiter addresses a table of customers at an expensive restaurant by saying, "OK, what'll it be," the waiter will sound rude because s/he has chosen a form that is inappropriately informal. If a waiter tells the customers what to eat instead of asking them what they want, the waiter will violate the conditions on appropriateness of meaning because in the social role of "waiter," a person does not tell someone in the social role of "customer" what to eat.

According to Blyth, even though language educators believe that it is important to develop students' sociolinguistic competence, is not given very much attention in language programs. One reason why it is not given much importance is that educators haven't decided how to teach sociolinguistic competence, or if it is teachable, in the classroom. Educators use authentic language texts, but "no written text, regardless of authenticity, can be expected to exemplify the sociolinguistic patterns governing the spoken language" (p. 554). In addition, due to a bias against orality within the profession, sociolinguistic patterns such as informal and formal style - shifting that govern the spoken language are not even mentioned in most textbooks.

To summarize, researchers who have examined the relationship between sociolinguistics and second language acquisition seem to have two views of style. On the one hand, researchers such as Tarone and Beebe, view style and style-shifting in terms of attention paid to speech. One the other hand, researchers such as Preston, Sorning, and Blyth have extended style beyond the amount of attention paid to speech and view style and style shifting in terms of the social and interactional relationships that hold between the interlocutors.

Objectives

The objectives that will guide this research are the following:

1. To analyze the stylistic and social meaning and the linguistic resources in English and in Spanish of different phonetic - phonological sounds.

2. To find out if Pre – Basic, Intermediate and Advanced students style shift in Spanish.

3. To find out if participants in each proficiency level have the same phonetic - phonological resources to style shift in English.

4. To analyze how monitoring operates on a continuum increasing in formal contexts and to find out if this produces style shifting toward monitored / formal variants.

5. To find out and analyze if the phonetic - phonological resources for style shifting of the members of a social network match the proficiency level of the main student participant at the center of the network.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This research, which focused on three individual language learners and three of their friends at different proficiency levels in classes at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayaguez (UPRM), used a social network approach and treated the groups of friends as three separate social networks.

Place and duration of the study

The research for this thesis was conducted at the UPRM during the months of October and November, Semester I 2005-2006.

Participants

Locating the participants

The students at the UPRM enter the university on one of four proficiency tracks in English depending on their scores on either the English as a Second Language Achievement Test (ESLAT) or the Advanced Placement (AP) English Examination. Students with scores of 4 or 5 on the AP enter on the Advanced English 3211-12 proficiency track. Students who have ESLAT scores of 570-800 enter on the Intermediate English 3103-04 proficiency track. Students who have ESLAT scores of 569-470 enter on the Basic English 3101-02 proficiency track. Freshmen who have ESLAT scores of 469 or lower enter on a Pre- Basic English 0066 proficiency track.

The participants for this thesis formed two groups. The first consisted of three students from UPRM, one from each of the following English courses from three proficiency levels: a. Pre-Basic English 0066, b. Intermediate English 3103, and c.

Advanced English 3211[2]; I will refer to those students as the main participants. The second group consisted of three friends of each participant, whom I will refer to as friends, for a total of twelve participants, three students and nine friends.[3] Table 2 shows the distribution of the participants across the three networks.

Table 2 Distribution of the participants

0066 Main student participant (MA)			3103 Main student participant (ME)			3211 Main student participant (MI)		
Friend (FB)	Friend (FC)	Friend (FD)	Friend (FF)	Friend (FG)	Friend (FH)	Friend (FJ)	Friend (FK)	Friend (FL)

I defined a friend as someone who was 1) named by the three main participants 2) a student at the UPRM. A friend did not have to be the same gender, in the same English class, or at the same proficiency level as the main participant, and the three friends of any one main participant did not have to know each other. The friend could have been a room-mate, a girlfriend, a boyfriend, or a classmate. To find the main participant from each of the three English courses, I contacted three instructors, each from a different proficiency level; I explained my research to them, and I then asked for permission to go to their classes to ask for volunteers.

I went to three different English courses: one Pre-Basic English 0066, one Intermediate English 3103 and, one Advanced English 3211. I went ten minutes before

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[2] I did not choose 3101 Basic English participants for this research because the range of proficiency in this level is a wide one. A 3101 Basic English course at the UPRM may have students that are at the level of 0066 Pre-Basic English students or students that are at the level of 3103 Intermediate English students. The 3101 Basic English course is between the 0066 Pre-Basic and the 3103 Intermediate English courses in terms of proficiency levels.

[3] The main participant will be preceded by an M and the participants who were friends will be preceded by an F.

the class ended, and I introduced myself to the students. Before I asked for a volunteer, I explained to the students what I was doing and the purpose and procedure for my research.

After I explained my research to the Advanced English class, four students approached me and said that they were friends in the class and would like to participate. A student from this group who had attended public schools became the main participant, and the other three students became the main participant's three friends. After I explained my research to the Intermediate English class, one student, who became the main participant, approached me and said that he would like to participate. He introduced me to one of his friends in the class, who became one of the main participant's three friends. It was relatively easy to find two main participants at the Intermediate and Advanced English levels. By contrast, after I explained my research to the Pre-Basic English class, the class had several questions about whether the research required English and whether they spoke English well enough to participate. They thought that I was going to evaluate their English or that the interview would be completely in English and seemed uncomfortable about participating. Finally, a student approached me and told me that she would be willing to participate and became the main participant. In the case of the Advanced English class, the four students from the class were the main participant and three friends for this study; in the case of the Intermediate English class, the main participant and the other friend from the class introduced me to two other friends, and in the case of the Pre-Basic English class, the main participant introduced me to three other friends. I contacted all of them, made an appointment with each of them, and kept in

touch with them by cell phone and email. All twelve participants signed a consent form that explained the purpose of my research (Appendix A).

Description of the participants' social networks

According to Holmes (2001), a sociolinguistic network is "the pattern of informal relationships people are involved in on a regular basis" (p. 184). In my view, the three main participants from the three proficiency levels, together with their three friends, formed three social networks. I compared these three social networks using two criteria: density and plexity. Density is the number of connections or links in a network. Plexity refers to by how many roles individuals in a social network are linked to each other (Milroy 1987). I defined a dense network as one in which the main participant knew the three friends, and the three friends knew each other. I defined a uniplex network as one in which the main participant was linked to the other three participants through only one role, such as the role of student, and a multiplex network as one in which the main participant was linked to the other three participants through more than one role such as the roles of both student at the UPRM and hang out partner outside of the UPRM. To describe the participants in terms of their social networks, I used the criteria of plexity and density.

By the criterion of density, both the Pre-Basic and Advanced networks were dense because the main participant knew the three friends and the three friends knew each other. The Intermediate network was less dense because the main participant knew the three friends, but the three friends did not all know each other. By the criterion of plexity, all three networks are multiplex because the members had the role of students

and the role of hang out partners. In summary, the three networks were not equally dense but they were equally plex.

Figures 1 – 3 show the participants in the three networks; in the figures the participants are connected by arrows which signal that the two participants connected by the arrow know each other. Figure 1 shows the Pre- Basic English social network. It had four participants, three females and one male. M*A,* a female, was the main participant at the center of the network. I met the three friends through M*A. MA* met FB, another female, in the Pre-Basic English. MA met FC, a male, through FB; both MA and FB met FD, another female, and a friend from FC's Biology class, through FC. FB and FC were from the same region of Puerto Rico and had played volleyball together since high school. All four members of the network spent time together and hung out together both at college and outside of college in their spare time. MA, FB and FC entered UPRM at the Pre-Basic English level; FD entered UPRM at the Intermediate English level. MA was studying Civil Engineering; she wanted to continue studying for her masters and her doctorate and go to the United States to work. FB and FC were studying Biology. After graduation, FB wanted to continue her studies at the Medical Science campus of the University of Puerto Rico and become an orthopedist. FC wanted to study medicine in Ponce or San Juan and become a therapist or a doctor. FD was studying Industrial Microbiology; she wanted to continue her graduate studies in New York or any other place that is not Puerto Rico. In other words, she wanted something different in terms of where she continued her studies.

Figure 1: 0066 Pre-Basic English social network
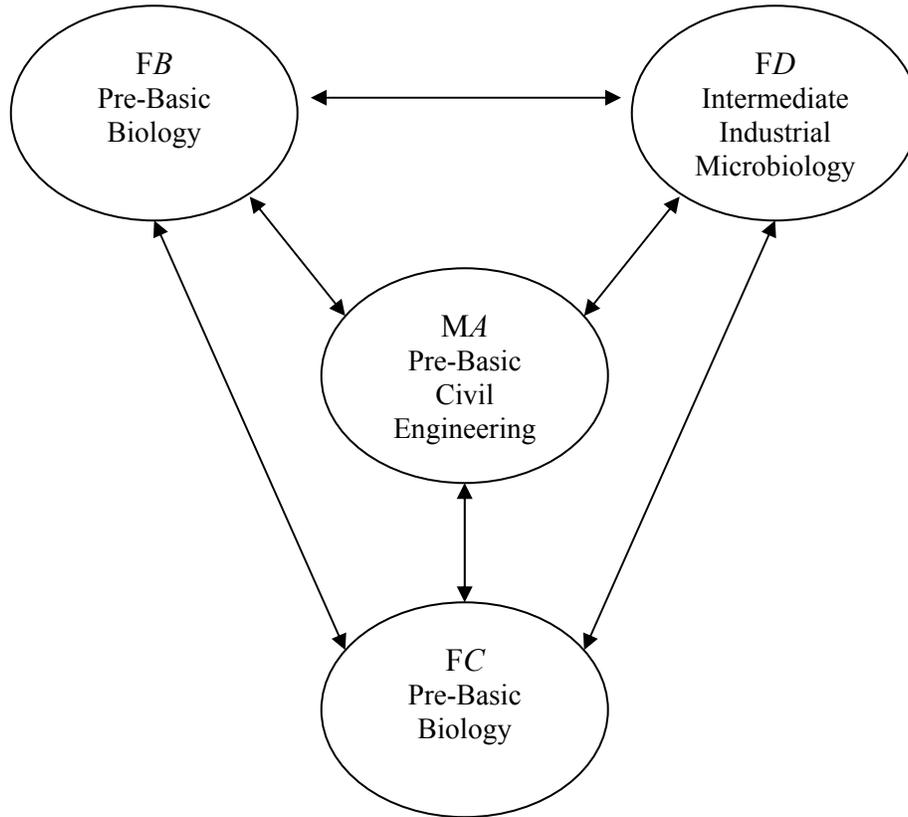
Figure 2 shows the Intermediate English social network. It had four participants, three males and one female. M*E*, a male, was the participant at the center of the network. I met the three friends through ME. M*E* met F*F*, a male, and F*H*, a female, in his Intermediate English class. ME, FF, and FH met during the Intermediate English and had become friendly enough to share during the English class and hang out together outside of it. M*E* met FG, another male, in one of his engineering classes and had become friendly enough with him to share during the class and hang out together outside of it. In other words, the main participant hung out together with FF and FH, on the one hand, and FG, on the other, but FF and FH had never met and did not know FG. All four participants of this social network entered the UPRM at the level of Intermediate English.

ME, FF and FH were studying Industrial Engineering. Both ME and FF wanted to continue their studies and receive their masters degrees and doctorates and work in either Puerto Rico or the United States. FH wanted to study international business in the United States. Finally, FG was studying Surveying and Topography and wanted to continue to earn his masters degree at the UPRM. .

Figure 2: 3103 Intermediate English social network
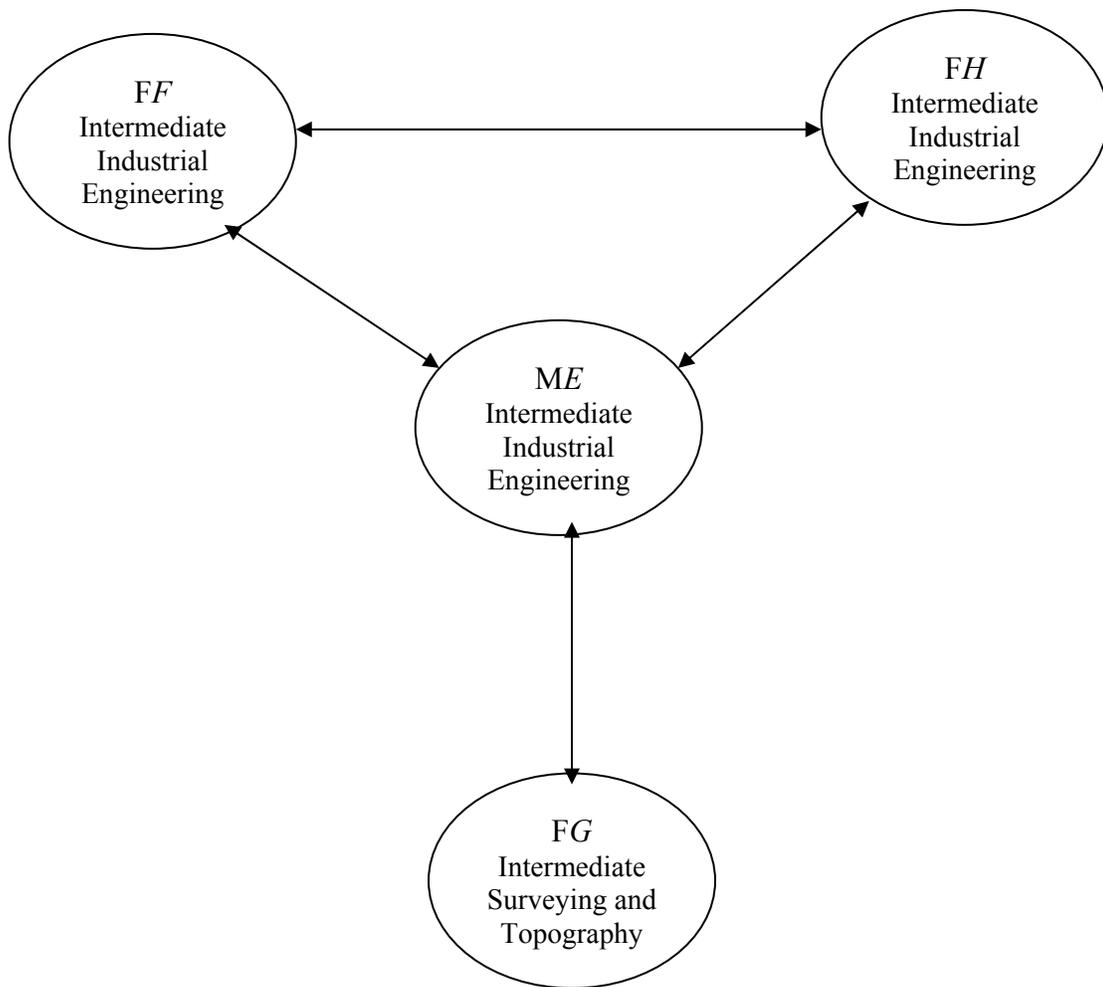
Figure 3 shows the Advanced English social network. It had four participants, three males and one female. M*I*, a male, was the participant at the center of the network. I met the three friends through MI. MI had met the two males, FJ and FK, and the female, FL, in the Advanced English class. All four were friends when I met them and used to hang out together in the Student Center and outside college. All four participants met in the Advanced English class. All four participants entered the UPRM at the level of Advanced English. MI was doing his major in Psychology, but he wanted to change his concentration to English and earn a masters degree and a doctorate in English. FJ was studying Geology, but he wanted to change his major to biotechnology and continue his studies in genetic engineering outside of Puerto Rico. FK was studying Computer Engineering; he wanted to continue his studies and work in Puerto Rico. Finally, FL was doing her major in Pre-Medicine, but she wanted to change her major and study Psychology with a specialization in clinical psychology.

Figure 3: 3211 Advanced English social network
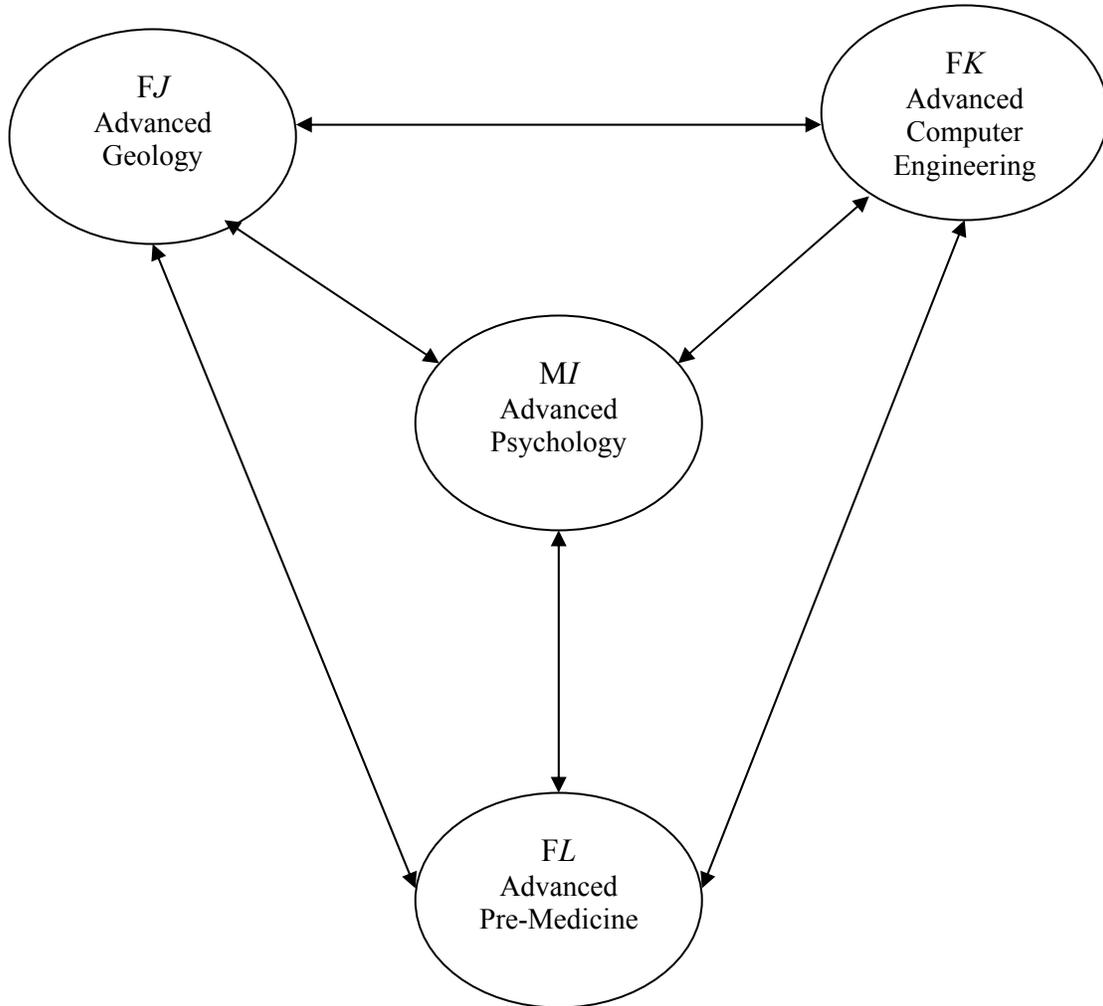
Data Collection

    Instruments and administration of the instruments

        The instruments that I developed to conduct my research included two written questionnaires and an interview schedule that I used to carry out tape-recorded interviews. The two questionnaires were the Social-demographic and Language use Questionnaire (SDLUQ) (Appendix B) and the Stylistic and Social Meaning

Questionnaire (SSMQ) (Appendix C). The purpose of the SDLUQ was to gather socio-demographic and language use information from the participants. The items that asked for socio-demographic information included items: #3, #4, #5, #6, #7, #8a, #8b, #9 and #10. All the rest of the items asked for information about language use. There were four types of items for a total of 29 items: 1) fill in the blanks, 2) multiple choice with 2 to 5 options, 3) yes/no questions and 4) open-ended questions. I piloted the SDLUQ with a group of 23 students of Basic English at the UPRM during the month of September, 2005. The purpose of the SSMQ was to find out what the participants knew about style and the interaction of stylistic and social meaning in Spanish and English, with a focus on English. The SSMQ had three parts. The first part was a conceptual organizer which was designed to elicit information from the participants about where they would use formal and informal Spanish and English. The second part was a multiple choice section in which the participants could chose one or more answers based on their general views of English and Spanish on the island. The last part of the SSMQ was a table in which the participants checked which language or languages they used when they were in different domains determined by settings, participants, topic and, function. I piloted the SSMQ with a group of 27 students of Intermediate English at the UPRM during the month of September, 2005. After I piloted the questionnaire, I made changes and re-organized the questionnaire.

The tape – recorded interview had three parts: a) an interview which followed an interview schedule, (Appendix D, Part 1) b) two reading passages, (Appendix D, Part 2) and c) three word lists (Appendix D, Part 2). The purpose of the tape-recorded interview was to gather tokens, or productions, of two linguistic variables in English and one in

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Spanish. The two linguistic variables in English were 1) the *–ing* variable, with the variation between alveolar and velar nasals in words such as *working* and 2) final consonant cluster simplification, the variation between the production and the absence of the second consonant in word final consonant clusters in words such as *last*. The linguistic variable in Spanish, popularly know as "comiendo la s," was the variation between word and syllable final position *s>h>ø* in words such as *muchachos* and *escuela*. The first part of the tape-recorded interview followed an Interview Schedule which included questions designed to elicit between a half an hour and forty-five minutes of speech in both English and Spanish and informal and formal styles of speech in both English and in Spanish. To formulate the questions, I consulted Labov (1984). I piloted the Interview Schedule with one student of Basic English at the UPRM during the month of September, 2005. Since the Interview Schedule elicited a lot of speech from the student, I didn't make any changes to it. The second part of the tape-recorded interview consisted of two reading passages, one in English and one in Spanish. The English reading passage (Appendix D, Part 2) came from Wolfram (1991)[4]. It contained words with final consonant clusters and words of more than one syllable with a word final velar nasal, such as *working* and *playing*; it did not contain monosyllabic words with a word final velar nasal, such as *bring*. The Spanish reading passage (Appendix D, Part 2)came from Legorburú (1970)[5]. It contained many words that gave the context for s> h> ø, such as *costado* and *mares*. The third part of the tape-recorded interview consisted of three word lists, two in English and one in Spanish. The first word list had two parts. The A

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[4] From "Dialects in American English" Walt Wolfram, (1991), New Jersey: Prentice Hall. Copyright 1991 by the name of Walt Wolfram. Reprinted by permission.

[5]Despite the efforts I did, I could not find who held the copyright for the Spanish reading passage.

part contained English words of more than one syllable with a word final velar nasal, such as *sailing*; the B part contained monosyllabic words with a word final velar nasal, such as *sing*. The second word list had two parts. The A part contained monomorphemic English words in which both members of the consonant cluster are an inherent part of the word, such as t*est* and *post*. The B part contained bimorphemic English words in which the consonant cluster results from the addition of the –ed suffix, such as *missed* and *dressed*. The third list contained Spanish words which provided a context for s>h>ø in both syllable final and word final position, such as *estudiante* and *ambos*.

According to Labov (as cited in Mesthrie, Swann, Deumert & Leap, 2000) one definition of style is amount of attention paid to speech. The less attention paid to speech, the more informal the speech; the more attention paid to speech, the more formal the speech. It is well know that to elicit informal speech, one has to try to overcome the Observer's Paradox (Labov, 1984) so that participants feel comfortable and speak informally. In my opinion, I overcame the Observer's Paradox because even though, at the beginning of their interviews, the participants produced formal speech, as the interviews continued, they started to feel comfortable and talked more informally. Even though I think that I overcame the Observer's Paradox during the tape-recorded interview, I did not analyze the interview speech as either formal or informal because I think that most of the speech from the interview was more informal than formal, even the speech in response to language questions. Instead, in terms of attention paid to speech, I analyzed the tape-recorded interview speech as more informal than either the reading passage speech or the word list speech and the word list speech as more formal than either the reading passage speech or the tape-recorded interview speech. In summary,

style was defined as attention paid to speech. The tape-recorded interview speech was the most informal style; the word list speech was the most formal style, and the reading passage speech was between the two.

The participants had two options: the first one was to complete the three parts of the research, the two questionnaires and the tape-recorded interview, in one single session of approximately two hours. The second option was to complete the three parts of the research in two sessions. The participants from the Pre-Basic network completed the three parts of the research in one single session. Some participants from the Intermediate English and the Advanced English social networks completed the three parts of the research in one session; others completed it in two sessions.

Data Analysis

To address Research Question #1 I used the two questionnaires: 1) the SDLUQ and 2) the SSMQ. For the SDLUQ, I tallied the responses to the questions involving language use. For the SSMQ, I tallied all the questions from all three parts of the questionnaire. I then analyzed the results from the questionnaires, and I compared and contrasted the responses of the twelve participants. Finally, I also used the participants' words from the tape-recorded interviews.

To address Research Question # 2, I transcribed the tape-recorded interviews. I then examined the results from the part of the tape-recorded interview in Spanish together with the reading passage and the word list, and I counted all variants of the (s) variable – [s], [h], and [ø] - in syllable and word final position. I then compared and contrasted the data of the participants across the three proficiency levels. To establish reliability, I asked

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two monolingual Spanish speakers and three bilingual Spanish-English speakers to listen to the speech of three speakers, one each from Pre-Basic, Intermediate, and Advanced, producing the reading passage and the word list. I put the relevant words from the reading passage and the word list on a list, and I asked them to check if they heard an [s], an [h], or a [ø]. In general, they agreed with my judgments of a production as [s], [h], or [ø].

To address Research Questions # 3A and #3B, I transcribed the tape-recorded interviews. I then examined the results from the part of the tape-recorded interview in English together with the reading passage and word lists #1 and #2. In the interview speech, for the *-ing* variable, I counted all productions of words of more than one syllable with word final velar or alveolar nasals. I did not count monosyllabic words with word final velars. For final consonant cluster simplification, I counted all monomorphemic and bimorphemic words with word final consonant clusters. In the reading passage speech, for the *–ing* variable, I counted all productions of words of more than one syllable with word final velar or alveolar nasals; I did not count any monosyllabic words because the reading passage did not contain any. For final consonant cluster simplification, I counted the presence and absence of the second consonant of a final consonant cluster in both monomorphemic and bimorphemic words. In the word list speech, for the *–ing* variable, I counted all productions of velar and the alveolar nasal variants for the words of more than one syllable in List #1A and all productions of velar and alveolar variants for monosyllabic words in List #1B. For final consonant cluster simplification, I counted presence and absence of the second consonant of a final consonant cluster in monomorphemic words (List #2A) and in bimorphemic words (List #2B).

To establish reliability, I asked two monolingual English speakers and three bilinguals to listen to the speech of three speakers, one each from Pre-Basic, Intermediate, and Advanced, producing the reading passage and the word lists. I put the relevant words from the reading passage and the word lists on a list, and I asked them to check if they heard an –*ing* with an alveolar or a velar nasal and final consonant cluster simplification with the presence of absence of the second consonant of a final consonant cluster. In general, they agreed with my judgments of the productions of the participant from the Advanced English proficiency level. For example, they agreed with my judgments of the presence or absence of the second consonant of a consonant cluster in both bimorphemic and monomorphemic words and the use of an alveolar or a velar nasal in the production of –*ing* in both monosyllabic words and in words of more than one syllable. They disagreed with some of my judgments of the productions of the participants from the Intermediate and the Pre-Basic proficiency levels. For example, overall, they agreed with my judgments of the presence or absence of the second consonant of a consonant cluster in bimorphemic words, but they disagreed with my judgments of the presence or absence of the second consonant of a consonant cluster in a monomorphemic word, particularly in the pronunciation of the six words *grasp, mind, cleft, post, wild*, and *cold*. They also disagreed with some of my judgments of the production of –*ing* in words of more than one syllable such as *eating, sailing, shocking, boxing, asking, punching, repeating,* and *hunting*, and they disagreed with some of my judgments of the production of –*ing* in monosyllabic words such as *bring, king*, and *sing*. In the cases of disagreement, I went back and listened to the tapes again and in the case of one or two items changed my judgment, but, overall, I stayed with my original

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judgments. In addition, the outside judges confirmed my impression that the Pre-Basic participant used a third variant of –*ing,* which is composed of a high tense front vowel and an alveolar nasal as in the word *boletín.*

For the –*ing* variable, the only linguistic constraint I examined was whether the variable occurred in a monosyllabic word or in words of more than one syllable. For final consonant cluster simplification, I did not look at the phonological constraints on the presence or absence of the second consonant of a consonant cluster in word final position; I did examine the grammatical constraints in bimorphemic words formed with a past tense or a past participle morpheme. I then compared and contrasted the data of the participants across the three proficiency levels.

To address Research Question #4, I compared and contrasted the questionnaire results that I used to address RQ # 1 from the language use part of the SDLUQ and the SSMQ (RQ #1) and the Spanish and English linguistic data that I used to address RQ #2 and RQ #3.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Description of the participants' social-demographic characteristics

According to the answers to the questions on the socio-demographic and language use questionnaire (SDLUQ) (Appendix B) that asked for socio-demographic information items #3, #4, #5, #6, #7, #8a, #8b, #9 and #10, the main participants in all three networks were 18 years old; they were raised in Puerto Rico (PR), and they had attended public schools from grades K-12. The main participants of the Pre - Basic and the Intermediate networks were born and raised in PR and had mothers and fathers that spoke Spanish as a first language. By contrast, the main participant of the Advanced network was born in the United States (US) and raised in PR and had a mother whose first language was English and a father whose first language was Spanish. The main participant from the Pre -Basic network was female; the main participants of the Intermediate and the Advanced networks were males.

As mentioned, the main participant of the Pre - Basic network was a female. Two out of three of the friends in the Pre - Basic network were also females. The main participants of the Intermediate and the Advanced networks were males, and two out of three of the friends in each network were males. All three main participants were 18 years old, and two out of three of the participants in all of the networks were 18 years old or older. As we can see, in general, the friends of each one of the networks matched the main participants in terms of age and gender, for a total of five females and seven males.

Except for one friend in the Pre - Basic network, who was born in the Dominican Republic, the friends in the Pre - Basic and Intermediate network were born and raised in

Puerto Rico and had mothers and fathers who spoke Spanish as a first language. By contrast, even though all of the friends in the Advanced network were raised in Puerto Rico, two of the friends, similar to the main participant, were born in the US while only one was born in Puerto Rico; also similar to the main participant, one of the friends in the Advanced network had a mother whose first language was English. The other friends had mothers whose first language was Spanish, and all of the friends in the Advanced network had fathers whose first language was Spanish.

While all of the main participants had been educated in public schools, the friends in all three networks had an educational background that involved a mixture of public and private and bilingual and non-bilingual schools in both PR and the US. For example, in the Pre - Basic network, FB and FC attended non-bilingual private schools from grades K-12. FD attended public schools from grades K-6 and grades 10-12 and a non bilingual private school during grades 7-9. In the Intermediate network, FF attended a public school from grades K-12. FG attended bilingual private schools from grades K-12, and FH attended non bilingual private schools from grades K-12. In the Advanced network, FL attended public schools from grades K-12. FJ attended non-bilingual private schools in PR from grades K-5, a public school in the US in the state of Connecticut from grades 6-7, a non bilingual private school in PR from grades 8-9, and a public school in PR from 10-12. FK attended a non bilingual private school from K-6 and a public school from 7-12 in PR.

The main participants of the Pre - Basic and the Intermediate networks reported that they were not the first generation that has gone to college. By contrast, the main participant of the Advanced network reported that he was the first in his family to go to

college. Two of the friends of the Pre-Basic and Intermediate network were similar to the main participants and were not members of the first generation to go to college. In the Advanced network none of the friends were similar to the main participant since they were not the members of the first generation to go to college. In summary, three of the participants in each of the networks reported that they were not members of the first generation to go to college, for a total of twelve participants, and one participant from each of the networks reported that s/he was a member of the first generation to go to college for a total of three participants. Across all three networks, some participants had parents who had attended college.[6]

RESEARCH QUESTION #1

Research Questions #1 read as follows: what do the participants (three main student participants and nine student friends) know about stylistic and social meanings and the linguistic resources to express them in Spanish and in English? Specifically, do they know that the different phonological – phonetic sounds carry social and stylistic meaning in Spanish and English?

To address Research Question #1, I asked the students to reflect on their own use of Spanish and English in Daily Life, which corresponds to informal language use, and in the Classroom, which corresponds to formal language use. I asked them to reflect on their own language use through the SDLUQ, the SSMQ, and questions from the tape-recorded interview.

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[6] The question asked the participants if they were the first generation in their family to go to college. Because of the way the question was written, I do not know if one or both of their parents had attended college or if they completed college.

Language use information from the SDLUQ

The first instrument used to address Research Question #1, the SDLUQ, consisted of 29 items that were grouped under five categories: socio-demographic information (items #3, #4, #5, #6, #7, #8a, #8b, #9, and #10), self evaluation of English and Spanish across the skill areas and English language contact (items #11, #27, #28,and #29), exposure to TV (items #12, #13, #14, #15, #16, #17, #18, #19 and #20), music and radio preferences (items # 21, #22 and #23), and exposure to print media (newspapers) (items #24, #25 and # 26). To examine and analyze the results of the SDLUQ, I will: 1) describe the answers of the main participant in each network, 2) compare the main participant's answers with the answers of the friends in the same network, and 3) compare the three networks with each other.

Since the results of the questions that asked for socio-demographic information, were presented at the beginning of this chapter, I will begin this section by reporting the results of the questions of the SDLUQ that involved self evaluation of English and Spanish across the skill areas and English language contact (items #11, #27, #28 and #29). Participants were asked to evaluate their English and Spanish across the skill areas in item # 11. The main participant of the Pre -Basic network reported that she was able to read and write in Spanish and English. The two main participants of the Intermediate and the Advanced network reported that they were able to read, write, speak, and understand Spanish and English. All the friends of the Intermediate and Advanced social networks reported that they were able to read, write, speak, and understand Spanish and English. By contrast, only two of the friends of the Pre-Basic network reported that they were able to read, write, speak, and understand Spanish and English, and one friend

reported that she was able to translate from English to Spanish or from Spanish to English.

For item #27, participants were asked if they have an English-speaking friend who speaks English as a native, or first, language, and for item #29, participants were asked if they speak English to their English-speaking friend. The two main participants of the Intermediate and Advanced network reported that they have an English-speaking friend. By contrast, the main participant of the Pre-Basic network did not have an English-speaking friend. Across the three networks, all the friends reported that they had an English-speaking friend. The main participants of the Intermediate and Advanced networks, as well as the friends in these two networks, reported that they talk in English with their English-speaking friend all the time. By contrast, the friends of the Pre-Basic network did not speak English with their English-speaking friend. Item # 28 was an open-ended question that asked the participants how they became friends with an English-speaker. Across the three networks, participants answered using the following phrases: *a neighbor (n=1), in a camp in the U.S. (n=1), in my high school (n=2), in New York (n=1), in Rincón (n=1), by other friends (n=4),* and*, online in the internet (n=1).* The main participant of the Intermediate network reported that he met his English-speaking friend in New York. The main participant of the Advanced network reported that he met his friend through other friends. In the Pre-Basic network, FB reported that her friend is her neighbor; FC met his friend in a camp, and FD met her friend in high school. In the Intermediate network, FF met his friend in Rincón; FG met his friend in high school, and FH met her friend through other friends. In the Advanced network,

similar to the main participant, FJ and FL met their friends through other friends. FK met his friend online on the internet.

The following section presents the results of the participants' answers to the items that had to do with exposure to TV in English and Spanish. For item #12 the participants were asked if they had cable TV and/or a satellite dish. Across the three networks, all main participants and friends reported that they had either Cable TV and/or a satellite dish. Since non-cable TV has only Spanish programming while cable TV and/or a satellite dish has both Spanish and English programming, we can conclude that all participants had access to programming in both languages. Question #13 was an open question that asked participants when they started to watch TV in English. Some participants answered this question by giving an age; other participants answered by using a phrase to refer to a time span, for example: *recently, long time ago, I was a child, I was a toddler*. The main participant of the Pre -Basic network reported that she had started watching Cable TV and / or a satellite dish recently. The main participants of the Intermediate and Advanced network reported that they had started watching Cable TV and / or a satellite dish a long time ago and "when I was a child," respectively. All the friends from the Intermediate and the Advanced networks reported that they had started watching TV in English when they were eight years old or younger. The answers the friends in the Intermediate network gave included: *long time ago, 7 years old, and 7-8 years old, 8 years old*; the answers the friends in the Advanced network gave included: I *was a child, I was a toddler, 5 years old, and 7 years old.* By contrast, only two of the friends of the Pre-Basic network reported that they had started watching TV in English when they were eight years old or younger. Their answers included: *recently, 12 years*

old, 7 years old, and 4 years old. In general, the participants from the Pre-Basic network started watching TV in English at an older age than the participants in the Intermediate and the Advanced networks.

For question #14, participants were asked how many hours of TV they watched in English per week. The options they could choose as answers included: (a) *15 hours or more*, (b) *from 11-14 hours*, (c) *from 5-10 hours*, and (d) *no hours*. Given that all of the participants reported that they had cable TV and/or a satellite dish, it's not surprising that they all reported that they watched some hours of TV in English per week; in other words, none of the participants chose option (d) and reported that s/he didn't spend any time watching TV in English per week. The main participant of the Pre- Basic and the Advanced network reported that they watched from 5-10 hours of English television per week. By contrast, the main participant of the Intermediate network reported that he watched 15 hours or more of English television per week. Two of the friends of the Pre-Basic network reported that they watched from 11-14 hours of English television per week, and one reported that she watched 15 hours or more of English television per week. All of the friends in the Intermediate network reported that they watched from 5-10 hours of English television per week. Two friends in the Advanced network reported that they watched 11-14 hours of English television per week, and one reported that he watched 5-10 hours of English television per week.

Interestingly, the participants from the Pre-Basic network also seemed to watch more hours of TV in English than the participants from the other two networks. If we add up the number of hours that participants in the three networks reported that they spent watching TV in English per week, we find that the Pre-Basic participants watch 53 hours

per week (1 chose option (a); 2 option (b); 1 option (c) = 15 hours + 14 hours + 14 hours + 10 hours) while the participants in the Intermediate network watch 45 hours per week (1 chose option (a); 3 option (c) = 15 hours + 10 hours + 10 hours + 10 hours), and the participants in the Advanced network watch 48 hours per week (2 chose option (b); 2 chose option (c) = 14 hours + 14 hours + 10 hours + 10 hours). In general, the participants from the Intermediate and the Advanced networks not only started watching TV in English at a younger age than the participants of the Pre-Basic network, but they also now watch fewer hours of TV in English than the participants of the Pre-Basic network.

For question # 15, the participants were asked how often they watched English language TV programs from Cable TV and /or satellite dish per week. The options they could choose from were (a) *everyday*, (b) *three or fours days per week*, (c) *just on weekends*, (d) *sometimes (on a neighbor's or friend's Cable TV)*. It is not surprising that for this question the participants from the Pre - Basic network also seemed to watch English language TV programs more often than the participants from the other two networks. The main participant of the Pre - Basic network chose option (c) *just on weekends*. The main participant of the Intermediate network chose option (a) *everyday*, and the main participant of the Advanced network chose option (b) *three or four days per week*. In the Pre-Basic network FD chose option (a) *everyday* and FB and FC chose option (b) *three or fours days per week*. All of the friends in the Intermediate network (FF, FG, FH) and Advanced network (FJ, FK, FL) chose option (c) *just on weekends*.

For question # 16 participants were asked how much of their English they learned watching Cable TV and/or a satellite dish during the grades K-12. The options they

could choose were (a) *much*, (b) *some*, (c) *none*, and (d) *I don't like TV programs in English*. The main participants of the Pre -Basic and Intermediate networks chose option (b) *some*. The main participant of the Advanced network chose option (a) *much*. In the Pre- Basic network, FB and FC gave the same answer as the main participant and chose option (b) *some*. FD chose option (a) *much*. In the Intermediate network FF and FG gave the same answer as the main participant and chose option (b) *some*. FH chose option (a) *much*. In the Advanced network FJ and FK gave the same answer as the main participant and chose option (a) *much*. FL chose option (b) *some*. In general, it seems that during the grades K-12 the participants of the Advanced network got their English from Cable TV and / or a satellite dish. Across the three networks, the participants reported that they had learned much or some English watching Cable TV and / or a satellite dish. In other words, they had learned English and liked TV programs in English.

Question # 17 was an open – ended question that asked the participants how much TV in English they understand now. Across the three networks, participants answered using the following phrases: *most of it (n=3), almost everything (n=3), all of it (n=3), a lot (n=2), I fully understand (n=1)*. The main participant of the Pre - Basic network said *a lot*. The main participants of the Intermediate and Advanced networks said *almost everything*. Two of the friends of the Pre - Basic network FB and FC gave the same answer as the main participant and reported *a lot*. FD answered using the phrase *most of it*. In the Intermediate network, FF answered *a lot* while FG and FL answered using the phrase *most of it*. In the Advanced network the three friends used different phrases FJ *a lot*, FK *all of it* and FL *most of it*. Participants of the three networks seemed to

understand the English that they heard on the programs of Cable TV and/or a satellite dish.

For question # 18, the participants were asked to give reasons why they did not watch TV in English. The options they could choose were (a) *I am in the university all the time*, (b) *I do not like TV in English* and, (c) *I watch TV in Spanish*. Across the three networks, none of the participants chose options (b) or (c). In this question the main participants of the Pre -Basic and Intermediate networks chose option (a) *I am in the university all the time*. The main participant of the Advanced network left the question blank. One friend of the Pre-Basic (FC) and three of the Intermediate (FF, FG, FH) network gave the same answer as the main participant. Two friends (FB and FD) of the Pre -Basic network left the question blank. The three friends in the Advanced network chose option (a) *I am in the university all the time*.

For question # 19, participants were asked how many hours they spent watching TV in Spanish per week. The options they could choose were (a) *15 hours or more*, (b) *from 11-14 hours*, (c) *from 5 – 10 hours*, and (d) *no hours*. The main participants of the Pre -Basic and Intermediate network chose option (c) *from 5-10 hours*. The main participant of the Advanced network chose option (d) *no hours*. One friend in the Pre-Basic FB network chose option (b) *from 11-14 hours*. Two of the friends FC, FD chose option (c) *from 5-10 hours* giving the same answer as the main participant. Two friends in the Intermediate network FF, FH chose option (c) *from 5-10 hours* giving the same answer as the main participant. One friend FG in the Intermediate network chose option (d) *no hours*. Two of the friends FK, FL in the Advanced network chose option (c) *from 5-10 hours*. One friend FJ of the Advanced network chose option (d) giving the same

answer as the main participant. The participants from the Pre-Basic network seemed to watch more hours of TV in Spanish than the participants from the other two networks. If we add up the number of hours from the upper limit of the options that participants in the three networks reported that they spent watching TV in Spanish per week, we find that the Pre Basic participants watched 44 hours per week (1 chose option (b); 3 chose option (c) = 14 hours + 10 hours + 10 hours + 10 hours) while the participants in the Intermediate network watched 30 hours per week (3 chose option (c) and 1 chose option (d) = 10 hours + 10 hours + 10 hours + 0 hours). The participants in the Advanced network watched 20 hours per week (2 chose option (c); 2 chose option (d) = 10 hours + 10 hours + 0 hours + 0 hours). In general, the participants from the Pre - Basic network are watching more TV in English and Spanish than the members of the Intermediate and the Advanced networks.

Question # 20, was an open - ended question that asked the participants which programs they liked to watch in English. The main participant of the Pre - Basic network mentioned *The Real World*. The main participant of the Intermediate network mentioned *Room Raiders*. The main participant of the Advanced network mentioned *Will and Grace*. In the Pre- Basic network, FB mentioned *The Real World* giving the same answer as the main participant. FC and FD mentioned another reality show, *Laguna Beach*. In the Intermediate network, FF mentioned *The Simpsons,* FG *Pimp my Ride,* and FH *movies*. In the Advanced network FJ mentioned *Cartoon Network;* FK mentioned *movies*, and FL mentioned *Friends* and *Seinfeld*. Across the three networks, the participants' favorite shows were: (Pre - Basic) *The Real World (n=2), Laguna Beach (n=2);* (Intermediate) *Room Raiders (n=1), Pimp my Ride (n=1), The Simpsons (n=1),*

movies (n=1); (Advanced) *Cartoon Network (n=1), Will and Grace (n=1), Seinfeld (n=1), Friends (n=1)* and *movies (n=1).* As we see, the participants of the three networks watch MTV, reality shows, cartoons, comedies, and situation comedies, which implies that they hear everyday, casual English. They do not watch or listen to any educational programs on channels such as The Discovery Channel, The History Channel, or various news channels. As we can see, the participants are not listening to classroom or formal English while watching TV.

The SDLUQ included questions about the participants' musical preferences in items # 22 to # 23. For item #22 participants were asked if they listened to music in English; all participants reported that they listened to music in English. For question # 23, the participants were asked what kind of music they listened to in English. For this question, the participants could choose more than one option. The options they could choose were (a) *Hip Hop/Rap/R & B*, (b) *Reggae,* (c) *Reggaeton*, and (d) *Rock/Pop/Alternative*. The main participants of the Pre -Basic and Intermediate network chose the options (a) and (d). The main participant of the Advanced network chose option (d). The participants in the Pre - Basic network gave seven responses; FB chose option (a), FC chose option (a) and (d), and FD chose option (b) and (d). The responses from the Pre -Basic network included three for Hip Hop/Rap/R & B, one for Reggae, and three for Rock/Pop/Alternative. None of the participants in this network chose option (c) Reggaeton. The Intermediate network gave twelve responses. In the Intermediate network FF and FH chose options (a), (b), and (d). FG chose options (a), (b), (c) and, (d). The responses from the Intermediate network included four for Hip Hop/Rap/R & B, three for Reggae, one for Reggaeton and four for Rock/Pop/alternative. Perhaps we can

infer that the participants of the Pre-Basic and Intermediate networks chose Hip Hop/Rap/R & B because it is the closest musical genre in English to what is Reggaeton in Spanish. The Advanced network gave five responses. In the Advanced network, FJ and FL chose option (d) and FK chose options (a) and (d). The responses from the Advanced network included one for Hip Hop/Rap/R & B and four for Rock/Pop/alternative. Perhaps, we can infer that the participants of the Advanced network chose Pop/Rock/alternative because three of them were born in the states. Another possible reason is that the members of this network started watching Cable TV/and or a satellite dish at an earlier age than members of the other two networks. As we can see, across the three social networks only one participant reported that s/he listens to Reggaeton, and eleven participants reported that they listen to Rock/Pop/alternative. This result is surprising because today Reggaeton is one of the most popular musical genres in Puerto Rico. There are three possible reasons for this result. First, the participants may have chosen the Rock/Pop/Alternative option because they relate this genre to the middle class while they relate Reggaeton to the lower class or, as Maldonado (2006) points out, to people who live in the public residential areas (*caseríos*) in Puerto Rico, and they want to present themselves as middle class. Second, I, the interviewer, was a white middle class female, and they might have thought that I didn't listen to Reggaeton or found Reggaeton offensive in some way, and they did not want to offend me. Third, Reggaeton music is primarily in Spanish and the question asked them which kind of music they listened to in English.

Question # 21 was also an open ended question that asked the participants who their favorite artist was. The participants in the Pre-Basic and Intermediate networks

answered with names from the English speaking world: (Pre-Basic) *Angelina Jolie (n=1)*, (Intermediate) *Eminem (n=1), Celine Dion (n=1), Al Pacino (n=1),* and *50 Cent (n=1)* and with names from the Spanish speaking world: (Pre-Basic) *Daddy Yankee (n=1)*, *Alejandro Sanz (n=2)*, (Intermediate) *Los Cafres (n=1)*, and *Los Enanitos Verdes (n=1)*. The participants from the Advanced network answered with names from the English speaking world: *Enya/Christina (n=1), Scabbia Cristina (n=1),* and *Linkin Park (n=2)*.The main participant of the Pre-Basic network mentioned as her favorite artist Alejandro Sanz. The main participant of the Intermediate network reported that his favorite artist was Eminem. The main participant of the Advanced network mentioned that his favorite artist was Linkin Park. In the Pre -Basic network FB mentioned that her favorite artist was Daddy Yankee, and FC mentioned that his favorite artist was Angelina Jolie. FD mentioned that her favorite artist was Alejandro Sanz giving the same answer as the main participant. In the Intermediate network FF mentioned that his favorite artist was Los Cafres. FG mentioned three names as his favorite artists: Los Enanitos Verdes, 50 Cent and Celine Dion. FH mentioned as her favorite artist Al Pacino. In the Advanced network FJ mentioned that his favorite artist was Enya/Christina. FK mentioned that his favorite artist was Linkin Park giving the same answer as the main participant. FL mentioned that her favorite artist was Scabbia Cristina. As we see, the members from the Pre -Basic and the Intermediate networks mentioned Spanish-speaking artists, while the members from the Advanced network focused their answers on English speakers artists. Across the three networks, there was a match between musical and artistic preferences. The names of favorite artists that the participants of the Pre-Basic and Intermediate networks mentioned matched with their musical preferences. They

preferred Hip Hop/Rap/R & B and they mentioned *Daddy Yankee, 50 Cent* and *Eminem*. The participants of the Advanced network preferred Rock/Pop/alternative and this matched with their favorite artists: *Enya/Christina, Scabbia/Cristina* and *Linkin Park*.

The last part of the SDLUQ involved the participants' preferences with respect to print media. For question # 24, participants were asked if they read newspapers. All the participants from the Pre -Basic and Intermediate networks reported that they read newspapers while only three out of four of the participants in the Advanced network reported that they read newspapers. FJ was the only participant that reported that he did not read newspapers.

For question # 25, participants were asked how often they read newspapers. The options they could choose were (a) *everyday*, (b) *three or four days per week*, and (c) *just on weekends*. The main participants of the three networks chose option (c). In the Pre - Basic network FB chose option (c) giving the same answer as the main participant. FC and FD chose option (b). In the Intermediate network FF chose option (b), FG chose option (a), and FH chose option (c) giving the same answer as the main participant. In the Advanced network FK and FL chose option (b).

For question # 26, participants were asked which newspapers they read. For this question, the participants could choose more than one option. The options they could choose were (a) El Nuevo Día, (b) Primera Hora, (c) El Vocero, and (d) The San Juan Star. Options (a), (b), and (c) are newspapers written in Spanish while option (d) is a newspaper written in English. El Nuevo Día is a newspaper that almost the whole text is written in formal Spanish. Primera Hora is written in a mix of formal and informal Spanish, but at the same time it presents a woman in bikini on the first page everyday. El

Vocero is a sensationalist newspaper primarily written in informal Spanish. It uses words such as *chillo, cuernos* and *pasto*; the informal Spanish words for lover, infidelity and marihuana. No participant chose the English language newspaper, the *San Juan Star;* only one participant, a member of the Advanced network chose *El Vocero.* Across all three networks, participants chose both *El Nuevo Día* and *Primera Hora*. We can conclude that participants read newspapers in Spanish. Across the three networks, participants seemed to prefer to read El Nuevo Día y Primera Hora instead of El Vocero. As a group, they are getting exposure to and reading formal Spanish in El Nuevo Día and a mix of formal and informal Spanish in Primera Hora. They are not reading the gossip and bloody titles of El Vocero.

The next question asked the participants if they liked to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish. The Pre-Basic participants and the Advanced participants differed in terms of liking to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish. Half of the Intermediate participants had the same opinion as the Pre-Basic participants; half had the same opinion as the Advanced participants.

All four of the Pre-Basic participants said that they liked to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish. MA and FC said that the subtitles helped them understand the movie. "*Si las entiendo mucho mejor.*" FB said that the subtitles helped her pay attention to understanding the English in the movie, "*porque las puedo ver en inglés solamente pero me da mas trabajo entenderla. Tengo que estar mas pendiente.*" FD said that she didn't like to watch movies that were dubbed into Spanish and that her desire to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish depended on how difficult the

movie was and how fast the actors were speaking English, "*todo depende de si la película es bastante compleja si hablan muy rápido así si necesito los subtitulo.*"

        In the Intermediate group, ME reported that he liked to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish. ME reported that he was not getting the English input that he used to get from an English-speaking girlfriend and that even though he has regular stateside experience, he recognizes that he is not completely bilingual and that he finds that the Spanish subtitles help him to understand movies in English, "*yo entiendo el inglés pero siempre hay unas palabritas que no entendemos como todo yo no soy bilingüe, bilingüe totalmente, yo no nací allá afuera. El inglés que yo aprendí lo aprendí aquí y parte fue con una novia una ex – novia que yo tuve que era provino de allá y ella me enseñó bastante. Si pero ahora mismo estoy fuera de práctica llevo par de tiempo sin hablar peo ahora si voy a practicar cuando vaya pa Nueva York estas navidades.*" FF reported that students learn more English from television and movies than from school; he uses subtitles in Spanish for comprehension, and he uses subtitles in English for comprehension and working on his English pronunciation and accent, "*porque así yo escucho lo que ellos dicen y se lo que significa. Igual cuando le pongo subtitulo en inglés para poder okay cuando ello están hablando okay asi se escribe pues perfecto ya yo se como decirlo y uno va tomando ejemplo. En realidad ahí es que uno aprende. Uno aprende mas inglés en las película y en la televisión que en la misma escuela.*" In the Intermediate network, FF, FG and FH, did not like to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish. FG felt that it was confusing to listen to English and read Spanish at the same time, "*no me gusta ver películas en inglés con subtitulo en inglés...porque así yo escucho lo que ellos dicen y se lo que significa. Igual cuando le pongo subtitulo en*

inglés para poder okay cuando ello están hablando okay asi se escribe pues perfecto ya yo se como decirlo y uno va tomando ejemplo. En realidad ahí es que uno aprende. Uno aprende más inglés en las película y en la televisión que en la misma escuela. Porque si leo español cuando estoy oyendo inglés me confundo y casi siempre no es lo mismo." FH thought that it was a waste of time to read subtitles in Spanish and then translate from Spanish to English and English to Spanish; she thought it was easier to read subtitles in English and to listen to the movie in English, "*a veces casi siempre las veo con subtitulo en inglés. No se porque voy a estar leyendo los subtitulo entonces como que voy a tener que "translate" del español al inglés y del inglés al español y al tener los subtitulo en inglés ya estoy escuchando el inglés y leyendo el inglés y se me hace mas fácil.*"

  In contrast to the participants in the Pre-Basic network, three of the Advanced participants said that they did not like to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish. MI, FJ and, FL found the subtitles to be distracting and annoying, and they couldn't keep track of the sequence of events in the movie, "*no me gusta por que los subtitulo en español tienen a distraerme mientras estoy viendo la película...porque me distraen y me molestan...porque pierdo como la secuencia de la película. Me gusta verla con captions con subtítulos por así en inglés.*" FK liked to watch movies in English with subtitles in Spanish because it helped him to be sure of what was happening in the movie and it helped him understand if the movie had words that he didn't know or if the actors were using accents that were hard to understand, "*pero para estar confiado siempre sale una palabra rara que uno nunca entiende y por el acento del personaje o algo seria bueno leerlos.*"

The Stylistic and Social Meaning Questionnaire

The second instrument used to address Research Question #1 was the stylistic and social meaning questionnaire (SSMQ); which consisted of three parts (Appendix C). The first part was a conceptual organizer which was designed to elicit information from the participants about where they would use formal Spanish and English and informal Spanish and English. The second part was a multiple choice section about student views of English and Spanish in Puerto Rico, and the third part was a table of social situations for reporting the use of English and Spanish and daily and classroom varieties of English and Spanish.

Conceptual Organizer

The conceptual organizer asked the participants to write down definitions of formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish, and informal English and to write down the topics, settings, and participants with which they would use formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish, and informal English.

Table 3 Definition of languages across the three networks

Definition	Pre- Basic	Intermediate	Advanced
Formal Spanish Definition	Talk with an important person. Talk with an older person.	When I am talking with a professor or someone more intelligent. Be with adults Spanish used in formal and cultural situations. Serious activities.	It involves words that are not commonly used by everybody. Talking with professors or someone who I don't know.
Formal English Definition	Talk with someone that has authority. Something serious. When you are in an important activity.	When talking to the professor and the class. English used in a formal scenario, using selective vocabulary. Serious situation.	Talking with older persons, high class persons, professors and politicians. Discussing something important. Talk with persons who are not from Puerto Rico.
Informal Spanish Definition	Talking with my friends. Daily situations.	Talking with my friends. You do not need to use selective language. Non serious.	Shortening words. Talking with friends When I am with people who I trust.
Informal English Definition	Talking with my friends. Talking everyday. Everyday life.	Talking with my friends or family. English used in everyday life. Situations with people that you know where you can be comfortable and your own.	English that you talk with friends who know English. Use of slang. Talking in lunch. Talking with MSN, and chats. Talking with friends.

Table 3 displays the definitions that the participants of the three networks gave for

formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish and, informal English. Participants in

all three networks defined the varieties of English and Spanish in terms of the

interlocutor. The Pre-Basic network participants defined formal Spanish and formal

English in terms of talk with important people, older people, and someone with authority

and informal Spanish and informal English in terms of talk with friends. The

Intermediate network defined formal Spanish and formal English in terms of talk with a

professor or someone more intelligent or an adult and informal Spanish and informal

English in terms of talk with friends and family. The Advanced network defined formal

Spanish and formal English in terms of talk with professors, somebody they don't know,

older people, people from a high class, professors, and politicians and informal Spanish

and informal English in terms of talk with friends, trusted people, and chat room

participants. Participants from all three proficiency levels defined formal Spanish and formal English in terms of formal, important, and serious situations and activities and informal Spanish and English with everyday life and comfortable situations. Participants from the Intermediate and the Advanced networks defined formal Spanish and informal English in terms of a linguistic variety as a variety that involves words that are not commonly used by everybody and selective vocabulary; participants of Advanced network defined informal Spanish and informal English in terms of a linguistic variety as a variety that involves shortening words and using slang. The participants from the Advanced network were the only participants who included an international context in their definitions of formal English when they mentioned: talk with persons who are not from Puerto Rico.

Table 4 Responses of the participants for topic choice

Topics	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced
Formal Spanish Topics	Job interview	Poems, Stories, Politics, Opinions	Literature, Research, Doubts
Formal English Topics	Oral presentation, Religion, Politics, College achievement	Essay, Politics, discussion, Class grades	Poetry, History, meet new friends, Class topics
Informal Spanish Topics	College, Sports, Dogs, Hanging out	Sports, music, jokes, week plans	Gossip, daily life, daily happenings
Informal English Topics	College stuff, food, buy a ticket	Sports, about girls, music, parties	Movies, music, daily life, TV program

Table 4 displays the topics that the participants of the three networks would talk about using formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish and, informal English. The members of the three social networks wrote the following words for formal Spanish: *jobs, literature,* and *politics*. They mentioned the following places for formal Spanish: job interviews, classrooms, and, offices in Puerto Rico. The members of the three social

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networks wrote the following words for formal English: *religion, politics,* and *college stuff in Puerto Rico or in the United States.* They mentioned the following places for formal English: classroom, church, library and movie theaters in Puerto Rico or in the United States. The members of the three social networks wrote the following words for informal Spanish: *sports, daily life, hanging out* and *music.* They mentioned the following places for informal Spanish: parties, college, pubs, cafeteria, student center and their apartments in Puerto Rico. The members of the three social networks wrote the following words for informal English: *music, movies* and *daily life.* They mentioned the following places for informal English: the subway, their homes, college, pubs, parties and internet in Puerto Rico or in the United States. As we can see, the participants of the three networks know where and when to use each one of the four varieties in accordance with the topics the interlocutors are talking about. The participants recognize which topics are appropriate for formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish and, informal English.

Table 5 Responses to setting and participants across the three networks

	Setting	Participants
Formal Spanish	Jobs' interviews, classrooms and, offices in Puerto Rico	Boss, professor, students, politicians, adults.
Formal English	Classroom, church, library and movie theaters in Puerto Rico or in the United States	Professors, politicians, students, priest, major, friends from other countries.
Informal Spanish	Parties, college, pubs, cafeteria, student center and their apartments in Puerto Rico	Friends, family members.
Informal English	The subway, their homes, college, pubs, parties and internet in Puerto Rico or in the United States	Friends, family members, foreigner friends.

Table 5 shows the participants and the settings with whom and where the participants from the three networks would use formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish, and informal English. The table does not distinguish the Pre-Basic,

Intermediate, and Advanced networks because the members of these three networks all gave the same answers and there was no difference between the three networks. The members of the three networks mentioned the following settings for formal Spanish: job interviews, classrooms, and offices in Puerto Rico. They mentioned the following settings for formal English: classroom, church, library, and movie theaters in Puerto Rico or in the United States. They mentioned the following settings for informal Spanish: parties, college, pubs, cafeteria, the student center, and their apartments in Puerto Rico. They mentioned the following settings for informal English: the subway, their homes, at college, pubs, parties, and internet in Puerto Rico or in the United States. Across the three networks, the participants associated formal Spanish with the following participants: bosses, professors, students, politicians and adults. These participants associated formal English with the following participants: professors, politicians, students, town mayors, priests and friends from other countries. They associated informal Spanish and informal English with: friends and family members. In the case of informal English they also mentioned foreign friends. All participants know with whom and where to use each one of the four varieties based on the speech situations they are. It is clearly noticed that they know about the existence of formal and informal speech in particular settings and with particulars speakers or interlocutors.

In summary, we can see that the participants of the Pre-Basic network gave shorter and simpler definitions for the four terms formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish and, informal English in comparison with the other two networks. The participants of the Intermediate and Advanced network gave longer and complex definitions for these four terms. At the same time these participants used not common

and selective vocabulary in their definitions of formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish and, informal English. The participants of the three networks use formal Spanish for topics that involve: job interviews, politics and literature. These participants use formal English for topics that involve: religion, politics, class stuff and, meet new friends. The members of the three networks used formal Spanish for the same topics. At the same time the three networks mentioned the same topic for formal English, with the exception of the topic meet new friends, that was only mentioned in the Advanced network. Across the three networks the topics for informal Spanish were the same: sports, music, hanging out and, daily life. By contrast, the informal English topics were different in the three networks. The Pre-Basic network mentioned as topics college stuff and food. The Intermediate network participants mentioned: sports, parties and music and, the Advanced network mentioned: movies daily life and music as topics. The Intermediate and Advanced networks mentioned the same topic music for informal English.

The answers for the setting and participant part of the conceptual organizer were similar across the three networks. Across the three networks, no differences were reported in the use of formal Spanish, formal English, informal Spanish and, informal English in terms of settings and participants. We can conclude that the participants of these three networks have differences in their understandings of the definitions and the topics they used for the four varieties. These participants of these three networks have a similarity in their understanding of with whom and where to use the four varieties, as mentioned before.

Views of English and Spanish in Puerto Rico

The second part of the SSMQ was a multiple choice section in which the participants answered questions about their general views of English and Spanish on the island (Appendix C). Tables 6 to 11 report the responses of the participants to the multiple choice section. In this section, the participants could choose more than one answer in response to the questions.

Table 6 What the participants think of their own speech in English and in Spanish

Question *1*. What do you think of your own speech in English and in Spanish?	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced	Total N=18
A. I do not speak very good Spanish or English.	0%	0%	0%	0
B. I think I am average in both languages.	10%	0%	0%	1
C. I speak very well in Spanish and I can defend myself in English.	**40%**	**29%**	20%	5
D. I am better in Spanish, but I can speak English well too.	**50%**	**42%**	0%	6
E. I have command of both languages.	0%	**29%**	**40%**	4
F. I speak both languages very well.	0%	0%	**40%**	2

For question #1, 90% of the Pre-Basic participants reported that they speak well in Spanish and can defend themselves in English (letter C) or that they are better in Spanish but that they can speak English well too (letter D). Seventy-one percent of the Intermediate students reported that they are better in Spanish and can defend themselves in English (letter C) or that they are better in Spanish but can speak English well too (letter D). Twenty-nine percent of the Intermediate participants reported that they have command of both languages (letter E). Eighty percent of the Advanced participants reported that they have command of both languages (letter E) or that they speak both languages very well (letter F).

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Table 7 Have the participants ever tried to change their speech in English or in Spanish. What particular things have the participants tried to change in English or in Spanish.

Question 2. Have you ever tried to change your speech in English or in Spanish? What particular things have you tried to change in English or in Spanish?	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced	Total N=19
A. Nothing	0%	0%	17%	1
B. Yes, in English the accent.	**20%**	**25%**	0%	3
C. Yes in English my pronunciation.	**80%**	**38%**	17%	8
D. Yes, in Spanish different words.	0%	**12%**	0%	1
E. Yes, in Spanish I have tried shortening words. (para-pa')	0%	**25%**	**33%**	4
F. Yes, in Spanish better pronunciation.	0%	0%	**33%**	2

For question # 2, 80% of the Pre-Basic participants reported that they had tried to change their pronunciation in English (letter C) and 20% reported that they had tried to change their accent in English (letter B). Sixty-three percent of the Intermediate participants reported that they had tried to change their accent and their pronunciation in English (letters C and B). In the same question, 37% of the Intermediate participants reported that they had tried to change different words in Spanish and to stop shortening words (eg. *para – pa'*) (letters D and E). Sixty-six percent of the Advanced participants reported that they had tried to change in Spanish shortening words and the pronunciation (letters E and F).

Table 8 Have the participants ever had a teacher correct their speech in English or Spanish.

Question 3. Have you ever had a teacher correct your speech in English or Spanish?	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced	Total (N=26)
A. Yes, the tone and some words.	0%	0%	0%	0
B Yes, spelling errors.	**30%**	10%	17%	5
C. Yes, in English the pronunciation.	**30%**	**30%**	0%	6
D. Yes, in English verb tenses.	**20%**	**30%**	17%	6
E. Yes, my grammar.	**20%**	**30%**	**66%**	9

For question # 3, 60% of the Pre-Basic participants reported that a teacher had corrected their pronunciation and spelling errors in English (letters C and B). In the same

question, 40% of the Pre Basic participants reported that a teacher had corrected verb tenses and grammar in English (letters D and E). Ninety percent of the Intermediate participants reported that a teacher had corrected their pronunciation, verb tenses, and grammar in English (letters D, C, and E). Eighty percent of the Advanced participants reported that teachers had corrected their grammatical errors in English (letter E).

Table 9 What the participants think of the speech in their towns.

Question	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced	Total (N=18)
4. What do you think of the speech in your town?				
A. Everybody talks the same way.	**50%**	0%	0%	3
B. It is street language.	**17%**	**33%**	**33%**	5
C. It is regular, normal.	**17%**	**33%**	**33%**	5
D. Only a few speak English well	0%	17%	**33%**	3
E. The way people speak in my town is different from other towns.	17%	17%	0%	2

For question # 4, 84% of the Pre-Basic participants reported that in their towns everybody talked the same way, that the speech of their towns was street language, and that the speech in their towns was regular or normal (letters A, B and C). Eighty-three percent of the Intermediate participants reported that the speech of their towns was street language and regular or normal and that only a few spoke English well (letters B, C and D). All of the Advanced participants reported that the speech of their towns was street language and regular or normal and that only a few spoke English well (letters B, C and D).

Table 10 What the participants think of the way people from Puerto Rico speak.

Question *5* What do you think of the way people from Puerto Rico speak?	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced	Total (N=27)
A. Puerto Ricans mix a lot of Spanish and English words.	**57%**	**40%**	**30%**	11
B. We don't pronounce the letter *R* and we "eat" the *S*.	**14%**	**20%**	**30%**	6
C. Other Latin countries talk better than us.	**14%**	**20%**	**20%**	5
D. People say we talk as if we were *singing*.	14%	0%	10%	2
E. We do not care about Spanish.	0%	20%	0%	2
F. People don't pay attention to grammar.	0%	0%	10%	1

For question # **5,** roughly 80% of the participants from all three proficiencies reported that Puerto Ricans mix a lot of Spanish and English words, that Puerto Ricans do not pronounce the letter *R,* that Puerto Ricans "eat" the *S,* and that speakers in other Latin countries talk better than Puerto Ricans (letters A, B and C). Participants from both Pre-Basic and the Advanced groups reported that Puerto Ricans talk as if they are singing (letter D) while only participants from the Intermediate group reported that Puerto Ricans do not care about Spanish (letter E) and only participants from the Advanced group reported that Puerto Ricans do not pay attention to grammar (letter F).

Table 11 What the participants think of the way people from Puerto Rico speak English.

Question *6*. What do you think of the way people from Puerto Rico speak English?	Pre-Basic	Intermediate	Advanced	Total (N=24)
A. Puerto Ricans have a bad English accent.	**33%**	11%	11%	4
B. Puerto Ricans have their own English accent.	**33%**	22%	**11%**	5
C. Puerto Ricans speak better English than other Latinos.	17%	**22%**	**33%**	6
D. Puerto Ricans' English pronunciation affects the understanding.	17%	**22%**	0%	3
E. Puerto Ricans' English is different from North Americans' English.	0%	**22%**	**33%**	5
F. We can improve our English.	0%	0%	11%	1

For question # 6, 66% of the Pre-Basic participants reported that Puerto Ricans have a bad English accent or that Puerto Ricans have their own English accent (letters A and B). Eighty eight percent of the Intermediate participants reported that Puerto Ricans have their own English accent, that Puerto Ricans speak better English than other Latinos, that Puerto Ricans' English pronunciation affects understanding, and that Puerto Ricans' English is different from North Americans' English (letters B, C, D and E). Seventy seven percent of the Advanced participants reported that Puerto Ricans have their own accent, that Puerto Ricans' English is different from North Americans' English, and that Puerto Ricans speak better English than other Latinos (letters B, C and E).

In summary, the Pre-Basic participants consider themselves to be better in their first language, Spanish. These Pre-Basic participants reported different levels of difficulties in speaking, writing and listening in their second language, English. Their general view of Spanish and English on the island is that Puerto Ricans in their towns speak informal varieties of Spanish and English. Their general view with respect to how Puerto Ricans speak Spanish is that while Puerto Ricans talk, they mix Spanish and English words; they eat letters, and they do not speak as well as speakers in other Latin American countries do. They have a negative view of how Puerto Ricans speak English; and they classify a Puerto Rican accent as a bad accent.

The Intermediate participants believe that even though they have command of both English and Spanish, they are better in their first language, Spanish. These Intermediate participants reported different levels of difficulties in speaking and writing in their second language, English. At the same time, they reported that they have tried to

improve their oral skills in Spanish. Their general view of Spanish and English on the island is that Puerto Ricans in their towns speak informal varieties of Spanish and English. Their general view with respect to how Puerto Ricans speak Spanish is that while Puerto Ricans talk, they mix Spanish and English words; they eat letters, and they do not speak as well as speakers in other Latin American countries do. They have a positive view with respect to Puerto Ricans speaking English. They believe that only a few Puerto Ricans speak English and that they speak English with an accent. They also believe that Puerto Rican English is different from North American English.

The Advanced participants consider that they have command of both English and Spanish. These Advanced participants reported difficulties in trying to improve their oral skills in Spanish. Their general view of Spanish and English on the island is that Puerto Ricans in their towns speak informal varieties of Spanish and English. They share the same general view of how Puerto Ricans speak Spanish as the Pre-Basic and Intermediate participants. These Advanced participants have a positive view with respect to Puerto Ricans speaking English. They have the opinion that the few Puerto Ricans who speak English speak English with an accent, but they speak better English than other Latin Americans.

Social Situations Table

Table 12 Choice of Spanish and English across four domains for all participants (n=12)

Situation	Spanish	English	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=11 **85%**	N=2 15%	N=13
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=12 **85%**	N=2 15%	N=14
4. When you are playing with children.	N=12 **85%**	N=3 20%	N=15
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=13 **81%**	N=3 19%	N=16
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=13 **72%**	N=5 28%	N=18
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=14 **70%**	N=6 30%	N=20
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=13 **68%**	N=6 32%	N=19
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=11 **65%**	N=6 35%	N=17
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=12 **63%**	N=7 37%	N=19
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=11 **61%**	N=7 39%	N=18
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=12 **60%**	N=8 40%	N=20
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=12 **57%**	N=9 43%	N=21
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=9 **56%**	N=7 44%	N=16
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=7 44%	N=9 **56%**	N=16
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=9 43%	N=12 **57%**	N=21
Total	N=171 **65%**	N=92 35%	N=263

In the third part of the social and stylistic meaning questionnaire (SSMQ), the participants were asked about language choice for fifteen items representing four domains and a combination of interlocutors, settings, and functions within each domain. (Appendix C). The domain of home included items # 1, 4, 12, 13, 14, and 15. The domain of *pueblo* (hometown) included items #10 and 11. The domain of shopping included items #5 and 6, and the domain of higher education included items #2, 3, 7, 8,

and 9. For each item, the participants could choose English, Spanish, or both English and Spanish, which means that the total number of responses for each item may be different. Table 12 shows the responses, in terms of language choice, from the 12 participants in the three networks. The table shows the organization of the responses to the fifteen items from the highest to the lowest percent of choice of Spanish. [7] As shown in the table, overall, 65% of the responses supported Spanish while 35% supported English. As also shown in the table, for all but two items (#5, #8), 50% or more of the responses supported Spanish as the language of choice across the four domains of home, shopping, higher education and, *pueblo* (hometown). Taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that the majority of the participants chose Spanish for all items except for #5 and #8. Item #5 is from the domain of shopping and item #8 is from the domain of higher education. The participants chose English for these two items because they involve a foreign interlocutor who could be a professor or a store owner, and the participants might have English as the only option of communication with these foreign interlocutors.

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[7] All tables in this section organized the fifteen items in the same way.

Table 13 Choice of Spanish and English across four domains for participants in the Advanced English network (n=4)

Situation	Spanish	English	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=3 **60%**	N=2 40%	N=5
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
4. When you are playing with children.	N=4 **57%**	N=3 43%	N=7
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=5 **62%**	N=3 38%	N=8
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=5 **55%**	N=4 44%	N=9
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=5 **62%**	N=3 38%	N=8
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=3 **50%**	N=3 **50%**	N=6
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=4 **50%**	N=4 **50%**	N=8
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=3 43%	N=4 **57%**	N=7
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=4 44%	N=5 **55%**	N=9
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=4 44%	N=5 **55%**	N=9
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=1 17%	N=5 **83%**	N=6
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=3 43%	N=4 **57%**	N=7
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=4 **50%**	N=4 50%	N=8
Total	N=56 51%	N=53 **49%**	N=109

Table 13 shows the results of the language choice questions across the Advanced

network. As shown in the table, the Advanced network chose Spanish for items #1, 6, 4,

7, 10, 15, and 11 and English for items # 14, 3, 9, 13, and 8 and showed variation

between Spanish and English for items #12, 2 and 5. As shown in the table, the

participants chose Spanish for both items in the domain of the *pueblo* (#10 and #11) and

Spanish for items #1, 4, and 15 in the domain of the home. They chose English for items

#14 and 13, and they showed variation in their choice of both English and Spanish for

item #12 in the domain of home. This result could be due to the fact that these Advanced participants might have friends who speak English when they are in a church or in a wedding (#14 and #13). The participants chose Spanish for item #6 for the domain of shopping while they varied between Spanish and English for #5. Maybe they chose English a higher percent of the time (50%) when they talk to foreign owners of stores than when they talk to Puerto Rican owners of stores (33%) because more foreigners than Puerto Ricans speak English. In the domain of education, the participants chose Spanish for item #7; they varied between Spanish and English for item #2, and they chose English for items #3, 8 and 9. This means that they chose English to talk to a professor outside of the university and to talk to a foreign professor; perhaps, they know professors who speak English and perhaps foreign professors do not speak Spanish. They vary between English and Spanish when they study with both women and men; perhaps this reflects their individual study partners. As the table shows, only seven items reflected more than 50% percent choice of Spanish. In summary, the Advanced English participants, in general, varied between their choice of English (49%) and Spanish (51%) with their choice of Spanish determined by domains such as the pueblo and the home and their choice of English determined by their interlocutors, such as foreign store owners and foreign professors, and English-speaking personal friends.

Table 14 Choice of Spanish and English across four domains for all participants in the Intermediate English network (n=4)

Situation	Spanish	English	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
4. When you are playing with children.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=5 **71%**	N=2 29%	N=7
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=4 **57%**	N=3 43%	N=7
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=4 **57%**	N=3 43%	N=7
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=4 **57%**	N=3 43%	N=7
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=4 **57%**	N=3 43%	N=7
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=2 40%	N=3 **60%**	N=5
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=4 **50%**	N=4 **50%**	N=8
Total	N=60 **67%**	N=30 33%	N=90

Table 14 shows the results of the language choice questions across the Intermediate network. As shown in the table, participants in the Intermediate network chose Spanish for items #1, 6, 4, 7, 10, 15, 11, 12, 2, 14, 3, 9 and 13. They chose English for item #8 and varied between Spanish and English for item #5. Item #8 and item #5 involved interlocutors who might not speak Spanish, a professor from a foreign country and a non-Puerto Rican store-owner. Overall, they chose Spanish 67% of the time and English 33% of the time. Spanish was the choice of language across the four domains

and the choice of English for only two items seemed to be determined by individual

interlocutors in the domains of shopping and higher education.

Table 15 Choice of Spanish and English across four domains for all participants in the Pre- Basic English network (n=4)

Situation	Spanish	English	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
4. When you are playing with children.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=4 **80%**	N=1 20%	N=5
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=4 **80%**	N=1 20%	N=5
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=4 **80%**	N=1 20%	N=5
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=2 **50%**	N=2 **50%**	N=4
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=1 20%	N=4 **80%**	N=5
Total	N=55 **86%**	N=9 14%	N=64

Table 15 shows the results of the language choice questions across the Pre-Basic

network. As shown in the table, similar to the participants in the Intermediate network,

the participants in the Pre-Basic network chose Spanish for items #1, 6, 4, 7, 10, 15, 11,

12, 2, 14, 3, 9 and 13. They chose English for item #5 and varied between Spanish and

English for item #8. Item #8 and item #5 involved interlocutors who might not speak

Spanish, a professor from a foreign country and a non-Puerto Rican store-owner.

Overall, they chose Spanish 86% of the time and English 14% of the time. Spanish was

the choice of language across the four domains and the choice of English for only two

items seemed to be determined by individual interlocutors in the domains of shopping

and higher education. The only difference between the participants in the Pre-Basic

network and the participants in the Intermediate network is that the participants in the

Pre-Basic network chose Spanish for the items a higher percent of the time (86%) than

the participants in the Intermediate network (67%).

Table 16 Distribution of responses divided by networks and domains

	All		*Advanced*		*Intermediate*		*Pre Basic*	
Domain	*Spanish*	*English*	*Spanish*	*English*	*Spanish*	*English*	*Spanish*	*English*
Higher Education 2, 3, 7, 9	N=49 64%	N=27 36%	N=16 50%	N=16 **50%**	N=17 68%	N=8 **32%**	N=16 84%	N=3 **16%**
Home 1, 4, 12, 13, 14, 15	N=68 69%	N=31 31%	N=19 49%	N=20 **51%**	N=25 71%	N=10 **29%**	N=24 100%	N=0 **0%**
Pueblo 10, 11	N=26 70%	N=11 30%	N=10 63%	N=6 **37%**	N=8 62%	N=5 **38%**	N=8 100%	N=0 **0%**
Shopping 6	N=12 86%	N=2 14%	N=4 67%	N=2 **33%**	N=4 100%	N=0 **0%**	N=4 100%	N=0 **0%**
Total	N=155 69%	N=71 31%	N=49 53%	**N=44 47%**	N=54 70%	**N=23 30%**	N=52 95%	**N=3 5%**

Table 16 displays the results of the Spanish and English choice by networks and

domains. This table does not include items #5 and #8 which involved non Puerto Rican,

foreign interlocutors. The table shows that the domain of higher education has been

permeated by English for all three proficiency levels with the Advanced English network

showing the highest percent of English (50%) and the Pre-Basic network showing the

lowest (16%). The domain of home has been permeated by English for the Advanced

and the Intermediate networks but not for the Pre-Basic network with the Advanced

English network showing a higher percent of English (51%) than the Intermediate

network (29%). The domain of *pueblo* has been permeated by English for the Advanced

and the Intermediate networks but not for the Pre-Basic network with the Advanced

English (37%) and the Intermediate networks (38%) showing similar percents of English.

Finally, the domain of shopping has been permeated by English for only the Advanced

network (33%). In summary, the higher the network, the more domains not involve

Puerto Rican interlocutors have been permeated by English.

Table 17 Choice of Spanish and English across four domains for gender - men (n=7)

Situation	Spanish	English	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=6 **75%**	N=2 25%	N=8
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=7 **88%**	N=1 12%	N=8
4. When you are playing with children.	N=7 **78%**	N=2 22%	N=9
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=8 **80%**	N=2 20%	N=10
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=9 **64%**	N=5 36%	N=14
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=9 **69%**	N=4 31%	N=13
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=8 **62%**	N=5 38%	N=13
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=6 **67%**	N=3 33%	N=9
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=7 **64%**	N=4 36%	N=11
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=6 **55%**	N=5 45%	N=11
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=7 **58%**	N=5 42%	N=12
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=7 **54%**	N=6 46%	N=13
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=3 38%	N=5 **62%**	N=8
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=4 40%	N=6 **60%**	N=10
5. When you are buying something at store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=6 46%	N=7 **54%**	N=13
Total	N=100 **62%**	N=62 38%	N=162

Table 18 Choice of Spanish and English across four domains for gender - women (n=5)

Situation	Spanish	English	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=5 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=5
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
4. When you are playing with children.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=5 **71%**	N=2 29%	N=7
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=5 **71%**	N=2 29%	N=7
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=5 **63%**	N=3 37%	N=8
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=5 **71%**	N=2 29%	N=7
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=5 **63%**	N=3 37%	N=8
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=5 **63%**	N=3 37%	N=8
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=5 **71%**	N=2 29%	N=7
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=3 **50%**	N=3 **50%**	N=6
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=3 38%	N=5 **62%**	N=8
Total	N=71 **70%**	N=30 30%	N=101

Tables 17 and 18 show the results of the language choice questions for gender. Across the three networks, the males showed a slightly higher percent of English choice than the females. As the total percents show, the females chose English 30% of the time for the 15 items while the males chose of English 38% percent of the time. Both males and females chose Spanish for all items except #8 and #5 which involved foreign non-Puerto Rican interlocutors. The males also chose English for item #13 which involved friends at a wedding and may reflect their individual personal networks. Overall, even

though males chose English at a slightly higher percent than females, which may reflect the fact that there were more males than females in the Advanced and Intermediate networks and more females than males in the Pre-Basic network, the choice of Spanish or English across the four domains does not seem to be determined by gender.

In summary, there are five important points in the analysis of the choice of Spanish and English across the 15 items. The first point is that a higher proficiency level, as reflected in the Advanced network, results in a higher percent of English as the language of choice in the four domains. At the same time, this results in a lower percent of Spanish for the Advanced network as the language of choice in the four domains. Second, a lower proficiency level, as reflected in the Intermediate and Pre-Basic networks, results in a lower percent of English as the language of choice in the four domains. At the same time, this results in a higher percent of Spanish for the Intermediate and Pre -Basic networks as the language of choice in the four domains. Third, there is a domain effect that means that certain domains as *pueblo* (hometown), home and shopping (item#6) are always Spanish for most of the participants. Fourth, there is an interlocutor effect that means that participants chose English for foreign interlocutors who might speak only English (items #5 and #8). Finally, the choice of English or Spanish did not seem to be determined by gender.

Table 19 Choice of daily and classroom language for all participants (n=12)

Situation	Daily	Classroom	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=13 **100%**	N=0	N=13
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=15 **94%**	N=1 6%	N=16
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=12 **85%**	N=2 15%	N=14
4. When you are playing with children.	N=13 **87%**	N=2 13%	N=15
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=14 **70%**	N=6 30%	N=20
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=9 45%	N=11 **55%**	N=20
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=8 43%	N=11 **57%**	N=19
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=8 38%	N=13 **62%**	N=21
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=6 29%	N=15 **71%**	N=21
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=3 19%	N=13 **81%**	N=16
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=3 17%	N=15 **83%**	N=18
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=2 11%	N=16 **89%**	N=18
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=2 10%	N=17 **90%**	N=19
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=1 6%	N=15 **94%**	N=16
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=0	N=17 **100%**	N=17
Total	N=109 41%	**N=154** **59%**	N=263

Table 19 shows the results in terms of language choice in daily language (informal) and classroom language (formal) from the 12 participants in the three networks. The table shows the organization of the responses to the fifteen items from the highest to the lowest percent of choice of daily language. As shown in the table, overall, 41% of the responses supported daily language while 59% of the responses supported classroom language. The domain of home included items # 1, 4, 15, 12, 14, and 13. The domain of *pueblo* (hometown) included items #10 and 11. The domain of shopping included items #6 and 5, and the domain of higher education included items #7, 2, 8, 9,

and 3. Taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that 50% or more of the responses supported daily language choice for only five items, three of which involved the domain of home (#1, 4, 13), one of which involved the domain of shopping (#6), and one of which involved the domain of higher education (#3). In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to talk to family members at home, to talk to friends at a wedding, and to play with children. In the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to buy something in the *pueblo* from a Puerto Rican shop-owner, and in the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to study with a man.

Again, taking 50% as a cut off point, we see that 50% or more of the responses supported classroom language for the remaining ten items. For eight of these items, the vast majority of the responses, between 62% and 100%, supported the use of classroom language. In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language at a wedding during the toast or ceremony (#12) and at a church, funeral or sanctuary (#14). In the domain of the *pueblo,* the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to the mayor of the town at either a party/mall (#10) or at a public meeting (#11). In other words, the mayor receives classroom language regardless of the setting. In the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to a professor, foreign (#8) or Puerto Rican (#7), inside a classroom (#7) or outside a classroom (#9). Finally, in the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to buy something at a store owned by a foreign owner. For two of

these items, the responses varied between classroom and daily language. For example, in the domain of the home, 45% of the responses supported daily language while 55% of the responses supported classroom language to give orders to young people (#15). In the domain of higher education, 43% of the responses supported daily language while 57% of the responses supported classroom language to study with a woman (#2). The participants seemed to agree that they would use daily language to play with children (#4) but did not agree that they would use daily language to give orders to young people (#15). Similarly, the participants seemed to agree that they would use daily language to study with a man (#3) but did not agree that they would use daily language to study with a woman (#2).

Table 20 Choice of daily and classroom language in the Advanced English network (n=4)

Situation	Daily	Classroom	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=5 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=5
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=6 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=6
4. When you are playing with children.	N=6 **86%**	N=1 14%	N=7
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=6 **67%**	N=3 33%	N=9
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=5 **55%**	N=4 45%	N=9
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=4 45%	N=5 **55%**	N=9
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=2 25%	N=6 **75%**	N=8
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=2 25%	N=6 **75%**	N=8
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=2 25%	N=6 **75%**	N=8
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=2 25%	N=6 **75%**	N=8
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=1 14%	N=6 **86%**	N=7
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor..	N=0 0%	N=6 **100%**	N=6
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=0 0%	N=7 **100%**	N=7
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=0 0%	N=6 **100%**	N=6
Total	N=46 42%	N=63 **58%**	N=109

Table 20 shows the results of the choice of daily language and classroom language for the Advanced network. As shown in the table, overall, 42% of the responses supported daily language while 58% of the responses supported classroom language. Taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that 50% or more of the responses supported daily language choice for only five items, three of which involved the domain of home (#1, 4, 13), one of which involved the domain of shopping (#6), and one of which involved the domain of higher education (#3). In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to talk to family

members at home, to talk to friends at a wedding, and to play with children. In the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to buy something in the *pueblo* from a Puerto Rican shop-owner, and in the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to study with a man (#3).

Again, taking 50% as a cut off point, we see that 50% or more of the responses supported classroom language for the remaining ten items. For eight of these items, the vast majority of the responses, between 75% and 100%, supported the use of classroom language. In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language at a wedding during the toast or ceremony (#12) and at a church, funeral or sanctuary (#14). In the domain of the *pueblo,* the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to the mayor of the town at either a party/mall (#10) or at a public meeting (#11). In other words, the mayor receives classroom language regardless of the setting. In the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to a professor, both foreign (#8) and Puerto Rican (#7) and to study with a woman (#2). Finally, in the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to buy something a store owned by a foreign owner (#5). For two of these items, the responses varied between classroom and daily language. For example, in the domain of the home, 55% of the responses supported daily language while 45% of the responses supported classroom language to give orders to young people (#15). In the domain of higher education, 45% of the responses supported daily language while 55% of the responses supported classroom language to talk to a professor outside the college

environment (#9). The participants seemed to agree that they would use daily language to play with children (#4) but did not agree that they would use daily language to give orders to young people (#15). Similarly, the participants seemed to agree that they would use classroom language to talk to a professor at college (#7) but did not agree that they would use classroom language to talk to a professor outside of the college (#9).

Table 21 Choice of daily and classroom language in the Intermediate English network (n=4)

Situation	Daily	Classroom	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=6 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=6
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=6 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=6
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=3 **75%**	N=1 25%	N=4
4. When you are playing with children.	N=3 **75%**	N=1 25%	N=4
2. When you are studying with a woman	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor	N=2 33%	N=4 **67%**	N=6
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=2 29%	N=5 **71%**	N=7
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=1 17%	N=5 **83%**	N=6
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=1 20%	N=4 **80%**	N=5
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=1 14%	N=6 **86%**	N=7
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=1 14%	N=6 **86%**	N=7
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=1 12%	N=7 **88%**	N=8
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=0 0%	N=7 **100%**	N=7
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=0 0%	N=7 **100%**	N=7
Total	N=35 39%	N=55 **61%**	N=90

Table 21 shows the results of the choice of daily language and classroom language for the Intermediate network. As shown in the table, overall, 39% of the

responses supported daily language while 61% of the responses supported classroom language. Taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that 50% or more of the responses supported daily language choice for only five items, three of which involved the domain of home (#1, 4, 13), one of which involved the domain of shopping (#6), and two of which involved the domain of higher education (#2 and 3). In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to talk to family members at home, to talk to friends at a wedding, and to play with children. In the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to buy something in the *pueblo* from a Puerto Rican shop-owner, and in the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to study with both a man (#3) and a woman (#2).

Again, taking 50% as a cut off point, table 21 shows that 50% or more of the responses supported classroom language for the remaining nine items. For all nine of these items, the vast majority of the responses, between 67% and 100%, supported the use of classroom language. In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to give orders to young people (#15), for use at a wedding during the toast or ceremony (#12), and for use at a church, funeral or sanctuary (#14). In the domain of the *pueblo,* the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to the mayor of the town at either a party/mall (#10) or at a public meeting (#11). In other words, the mayor receives classroom language regardless of the setting. In the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to a professor, both foreign (#8) and Puerto Rican (#7) and both inside the classroom (#7) and outside

the classroom (#9). Finally, in the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to buy something at a store owned by a foreign owner (#5).

Table 22 Choice of daily and classroom use in the Pre-Basic English network (n=4)

Situation	Daily	Classroom	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
4. When you are playing with children.	N=4 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=4
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=3 **75%**	N=1 25%	N=4
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=3 **75%**	N=1 25%	N=4
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=3 **60%**	N=2 40%	N=5
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=2 40%	N=3 **60%**	N=5
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=2 40%	N=3 **60%**	N=5
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=2 40%	N=3 **60%**	N=5
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=1 25%	N=3 **75%**	N=4
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=0 0%	N=4 **100%**	N=4
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=0 0%	N=4 **100%**	N=4
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=0 0%	N=4 **100%**	N=4
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=0 0%	N=4 **100%**	N=4
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=0 0%	N=4 **100%**	N=4
Total	N=28 44%	N=36 **56%**	N=64

Table 22 shows the results of the choice of daily language and classroom language for the Pre-Basic network. As shown in the table, overall, 44% of the responses supported daily language while 56% of the responses supported classroom language. Taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that 50% or more of the responses supported daily language choice for six items, four of which involved the domain of

home (#1, 4, 13, 15) and two of which involved the domain of shopping (#5 and 6). In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to talk to family members at home, to talk to friends at a wedding, and to play with children and to give orders to young people. In the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to buy something in the *pueblo* from both Puerto Rican and non-Puerto Rican shop-owners.

Again, taking 50% as a cut off point, table 22 shows that 50% or more of the responses supported classroom language for the remaining nine items. For all of these items, the majority of the responses, between 60% and 100%, supported the use of classroom language. In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language for use at a wedding during the toast or ceremony (#12), and for use at a church, funeral or sanctuary (#14). In the domain of the *pueblo,* the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to the mayor of the town at either a party/mall (#10) or at a public meeting (#11). In other words, the mayor receives classroom language regardless of the setting. In the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of classroom language to talk to a professor, both foreign (#8) and Puerto Rican (#7) and both inside the classroom (#7) and outside the classroom (#9).

Across the three networks, domain determined language so that the domains of pueblo (hometown) and home lead to the choice of Spanish. Although domain is important in determining choice of language, a combination of function and interlocutor seem to be more important in determining classroom or daily language, in other words, formal and informal style. For example, it does not matter in which domain the

participant talks to the mayor or to a professor he / she is going to be more formal in his/ her speech.

Table 23 Distribution of responses divided by networks and domains

Domain	*All*		*Advanced*		*Intermediate*		*Pre- Basic*	
	Daily	*Classroom*	*Daily*	*Classroom*	*Daily*	*Classroom*	*Daily*	*Classroom*
Higher Education 2, 3, 7, 8, 9	N=34 37%	N=58 63%	N=12 31%	N=27 **69%**	N=15 **50%**	N=15 **50%**	N=7 30%	N=16 **70%**
Home 1, 4, 12, 13, 14, 15	N=52 53%	N=47 47%	N=22 **55%**	N=18 45%	N=15 43%	N=20 **57%**	N=15 **63%**	N=9 37%
Pueblo 10, 11	N=5 14%	N=32 86%	N=4 25%	N=12 **75%**	N=1 8%	N=12 **92%**	N=0 0%	N=8 **100%**
Shopping 5, 6	N=18 51%	N=17 49%	N=8 57%	N=6 43%	N=4 33%	N=8 **67%**	N=6 **67%**	N=3 33%
Total	N=109 41%	N=154 59%	N=46 42%	**N=63** **58%**	N=35 39%	**N=55** **61%**	N=28 44%	**N=36** **56%**

Table 23 shows the results of the daily and classroom choice by networks and domains. The table shows that participants across the three proficiency levels show strong agreement in their percents of daily language and classroom language. The choice of daily language ranges from 39% to 44% and the choice of classroom language ranges from 56% to 61%. The Advanced and the Pre- Basic networks supported the use of classroom language for the domain of higher education. The Intermediate network showed a 50% of variation between daily and classroom languages for the domain of higher education. The Advanced and the Pre-Basic networks supported the use of daily languages for the domains of home and shopping. By contrast, the Intermediate network supported classroom language for the domains of home and shopping. All three networks supported the use of classroom language for the domain of hometown (*pueblo*). However, despite these variations across the proficiency levels within the four domains,

the three networks show agreement for the choice of daily and classroom language for the

fifteen items.

Table 24 Choice of daily and classroom language for gender men (N=7)

Situation	Daily	Classroom	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=8 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=8
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican	N=8 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=8
4. When you are playing with children.	N=8 **89%**	N=1 11%	N=9
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=7 **88%**	N=1 12%	N=8
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=9 **75%**	N=3 25%	N=12
2. When you are studying with a woman	N=5 45%	N=6 **55%**	N=11
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=5 38%	N=8 **62%**	N=13
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=5 38%	N=8 **62%**	N=13
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=4 31%	N=5 **69%**	N=13
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=3 30%	N=7 **70%**	N=10
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.	N=3 21%	N=11 **79%**	N=14
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=2 15%	N=11 **85%**	N=13
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=1 11%	N=8 **89%**	N=9
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=1 10%	N=9 **90%**	N=10
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary..	N=1 9%	N=10 **91%**	N=11
Total	N=70 43%	N=92 **57%**	N=162

Table 25 Choice of daily and classroom language for gender women (n=5)

Situation	Daily	Classroom	Total
1. In your home with family members.	N=5 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=5
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.	N=7 **100%**	N=0 0%	N=7
4. When you are playing with children	N=5 **83%**	N=1 17%	N=6
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.	N=4 **67%**	N=2 33%	N=6
3. When you are studying with a man.	N=5 **63%**	N=3 37%	N=8
15. When you are giving orders to young people.	N=3 43%	N=4 **57%**	N=7
2. When you are studying with a woman.	N=3 37%	N=5 **63%**	N=8
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.	N=3 37%	N=5 **63%**	N=8
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. Chinese, an American).	N=2 25%	N=6 **75%**	N=8
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.	N=1 14%	N=6 **86%**	N=7
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.	N=0 0%	N=6 **100%**	N=6
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor	N=0 0%	N=6 **100%**	N=6
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.	N=0 0%	N=6 **100%**	N=6
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China).	N=0 0%	N=6 **100%**	N=6
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.	N=0 0%	N=7 **100%**	N=7
Total	N=38 38%	N=63 **62%**	N=101

Tables 24 and 25 show the results of the choice of daily language and classroom language for males and females. As shown in Table 24, overall, 43% of the responses given by the males supported daily language while 57% of the responses given by the males supported classroom language. As shown in Table 25, overall, 38% of the responses given by the females supported daily language use while 62% of the responses given by the females supported classroom language use. Both males and females gave a higher percent of responses that supported classroom language use than daily language

use, but females gave a higher percent of responses that supported classroom language use than males.

Taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that for both males and females, 50% or more of the responses supported daily language choice for five items, three of which involved the domain of home (#1, 4, 13), one of which involved the domain of shopping (#6), and one of which involved the domain of higher education (#3). In the domain of the home, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to talk to family members at home, to talk to friends at a wedding, and to play with children and to give orders to young people. In the domain of shopping, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to buy something in the *pueblo* from Puerto Rican shop-owners, and in the domain of higher education, the vast majority of the responses supported the use of daily language to study with a man.

Again, taking fifty percent as a cut off point, we see that for both males and females, 50% or more of the responses supported classroom language choice for the remaining ten items. For eight of these items the vast majority of responses from both male and female participants supported the use of classroom language in the domain of the home at a wedding during the church ceremony or toast (#12) and at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary (#14) and in the domain of the *pueblo* for talking to the mayor in both formal (#11) and informal (#10) settings. The vast majority of the responses from both male and female participants also supported the use of classroom language in the domain of shopping when buying something from a non-Puerto Rican shop owner (#5) and in the domain of higher education when talking to either a foreign (#8) or Puerto Rican (#7) professor inside the classroom or when talking to a professor outside of the

classroom (#9). Both males and females show variation in daily and classroom language choice for two items. Although both males and females supported the choice of daily language to play with children, they showed variation in their choice of language for giving orders to young people (#15). Although both males and females supported the choice of classroom language to give orders to young people; the males supported this choice at a slightly higher percent (62%) than females (57%). Although both males and females supported the choice of daily language to study with a man (#3), they showed variation in daily and classroom language choice for studying with a woman (#2). Although both males and females supported the choice of classroom language for studying with woman, the females supported the choice at a slightly higher percent (63%) than the males (55%).

In summary, overall, the three networks showed agreement in their choice of classroom and daily language across the 15 items. In other words, proficiency level did not have an effect on decisions of classroom (formal) or daily (informal) language use. The 12 participants across the three networks showed agreement in terms of the use of formal or informal style for the fifteen items. In addition, males and females showed agreement in their choice of classroom and daily language across the 15 items. Gender did not have an effect on decisions of classroom and daily language use, and the 12 participants showed agreement in terms of the use of formal or informal style regardless of gender. To conclude the judgments of stylistic appropriateness that the participants made toward the 15 items on the questionnaire were not affected by either the proficiency level or the gender of the participant.

The tape-recorded interview

The third instrument used to address Research Question #1 was the tape-recorded interview. The participants were asked whether they had the opportunity to learn English during their years in school and whether English has been a necessity in their lives. In the Pre-Basic network, MA and FD reported that they did not learn English during their years at school. FB and FC reported that they learned English during their years in school. All four members of the pre-basic network reported that they use English only, or primarily, in the English class. FC mentioned using English when traveling outside of PR, and FD mentioned using English with friends who just speak English. In the Pre- Basic network, FB and FC reported that English has been a necessity in their lives because it is an international language which is used around the world. FD reported she uses English sometimes when she goes to foreign countries. MA reported that English has not been a necessity in her life because she talks in Spanish in all the places except in the English class.

In the Intermediate network, all the participants reported that they learned English during their years in school. ME and FF complained about how tough the English class had been and about the English teachers' work inside the classrooms. FH reported that she only had two really good English teachers with whom she learned English. FG reported that he really learned English in the four bilingual schools he attended. In discussing whether English has been a necessity in his life, ME reported that he used English primarily in the English class; FH reported that she used English talking to foreigners who don't speak Spanish inside or outside of PR. FF and FG reported that they used English with friends. The four participants of the Intermediate network agreed

that English has been a necessity in their lives. They reported that English is necessary in college, at work, and as a medium of communication with others.

In the Advanced network, three participants reported that although the English classes were not what they expected, they had learned English during their years in school. In discussing whether English had been a necessity in their lives, all four participants reported that their uses of English were wider than just the English class. In other words, they reported that they used English regularly when talking to family and friends.

The participants also answered a series of other questions about language during the tape-recorded interview. For one question, they discussed whether English speakers in the United States and in Puerto Rico used the same variety of English and if the two groups of speakers sounded the same or different. The participants in the Pre- Basic network reported that the English spoken in Puerto Rico is different from the English spoken in the United States. MA, FB and FC reported that Puerto Ricans speak English as a second language and that in the United States speakers have English as a native language. FD reported that the sound of Puerto Ricans speaking English is different from the sound of Americans speaking English in different parts of the United States. In the Intermediate network, ME and FF reported that the English spoken in the United States is more informal in comparison with the English people speak in Puerto Rico, and FG and FH reported that in Puerto Rico and in the United States people speak the same language but they differ in terms of accent and pronunciation. In the Advanced network MI and FJ reported that how people speak English depends on the place you go in the United States and Puerto Rico or on the people who have raised you. FK and FL reported that the

accent and pronunciation of the English in Puerto Rico is different from the English in the United States, and FL pointed out that English is a second language in Puerto Rico.

For another question about language, the participants reported which sounds they noticed when they listen to the English of people on TV reality shows or of people speaking English with family and friends. They also reported which sounds they noticed when the listen to the English of their professors or to the English of TV newscasters. In the Pre-Basic English network, FB reported that she does not identify any particular sound. MA reported that she noticed that the English on TV reality shows is informal English, but could not identify any particular sound. FC reported that he identifies the pronunciation of the [s]. FD reported that the pronunciation depends on where the people are. All the participants of the Pre-Basic network reported that the people in the news and their professors speak formal English with a good pronunciation. In the Intermediate network, ME reported that he has not noticed any particular feature and FG reported that the English in TV shows is formal. FF and FH reported that they have noticed that on reality shows speakers talk "loosely" or as if they are singing. ME, FG and, FH reported that their professors and newscasters take care of their pronunciation and have a better word choice than other speakers. FF reported that students can understand the English of the professors because they talk slowly. In the Advanced network, MI, FK, and FL reported that they could identify certain pronunciations and certain words as particular features of the English of people in reality shows. One participant reported that he does not notice any particular feature in the English of newscasters and professors. MI, FK, and FL reported that newscasters and professors have better English pronunciation and good diction.

For another question, the participants were asked if there were any sounds that they do not like in English and if there were any sounds that they do like in English. In the Pre-Basic network, FC reported that he does not like the *ch* sound, and FD reported that she does not like complicated sounds such as the *th*. FB and FC said that there were not any sounds in English that they liked. MA reported that she likes the pronunciation of professors, and FD reported that she likes the easy sound of the –ing. In the Intermediate network ME reported that the sounds do not make any difference to him. FG responded that he does not like it when people mispronounce words. FF and FH reported that they do not like the accent of Puerto Ricans when they speak English because they try to imitate Americans, and they do not have a good accent. FF reported that he likes the way people from England speak, but ME, FG. And FH reported that there were not any sounds in English that they particularly like. In the Advanced network, MI reported that he does not like it when people mispronounce words. FJ and FK reported that they do not like the *th* sound or when people cannot pronounce the *th*. MI reported that he likes the rhyme and flow of English when people are talking, and FK reported that he likes the accent and pronunciation of the people from England. FJ reported that he likes the sound of the *k*.

The participants were also asked if they can tell where a person is from by the way s/he talks or sounds. In the Pre-Basic network, the participants reported that they can identify the accent and pronunciation of people from other countries such as Colombia, Argentina, the Dominican Republic, and the United States. In the Intermediate network, the participants reported that they can identify persons from the Northern and Southern parts of the United States, Colombia, Peru, Mexico, and England. In the Advanced

network, the participants reported that they can tell where a person is from by the way s/he talks and by his/her accent and intonation. MI reported that he can tell where a person has been raised by the way s/he speaks.

The participants were also what sounds distinguish Puerto Rican Spanish when Puerto Ricans are talking to friends and family and what sounds distinguish Puerto Rican Spanish when politicians or government officials are talking in a TV interview or in a speech. In the Pre- Basic network, MA, FC, and FD reported that the sounds that distinguish Puerto Rican Spanish are the "eating" of the [s] or other sounds and the substitution of [l] for [r]. FB and FC reported that politicians and government officials talk with more formality, and they do not speak the same way as they do when they are with family and friends. MA reported that politicians and government officials talk perfect all the time; FD reported that they speak slowly so that all the words can be understood, and they have a marked pronunciation. In the Intermediate network, FG and FH reported that Puerto Ricans speaking Spanish tend to "eat" the [s], have bad pronunciation, "eat" words, use bad words, and like to shorten words. ME reported that the tone and sound of Puerto Ricans speaking Spanish is different with family and friends because they are relaxed. FF reported that there are some words, particularly bad words, that identify Puerto Ricans speaking Spanish. He also reported that Puerto Ricans like to make funny conversations. FG reported that formality and a particular pronunciation distinguish the speech of politicians. FF reported that politicians and government officials use a wide vocabulary so they can portray themselves as refined persons. ME also reported that vocabulary is a characteristic that distinguishes politicians and government officials. He also reported that politicians and government officials talk loudly so that

people can hear them better. FH reported that government officials talk in complete sentences and use complex words. In the Advanced network, FK and FL reported that the Spanish of Puerto Ricans can be distinguished by the pronunciation of the *r*, the shortening of words, and the deletion of sounds. MI reported that Puerto Ricans speak Spanish loudly; they are always happy, and they talk as if they are on a baseball field. FK reported that politicians use a more formal Spanish than the one everybody speaks. MI reported that politicians have better diction and a wider vocabulary than other people. FJ and FL reported that politicians and government officers have better pronunciation, are more eloquent, and take care of the words they choose.

The participants were also asked if they could tell what social class a person is from by the way he or she speaks. In the Pre-Basic network, MA reported that she could not tell because a person could come from a low social class but have a good education and speak nicely. At the same time, a person could come from a high social class but not be educated and speak badly. FC reported that it is difficult to tell because some people talk in a refined way yet come from a low social class whereas some people talk loudly and yell and are from a high social class. FD reported that most of the time people make judgments about how a person speaks based on how a person looks. If a person is wearing a lot of jewelry, people will think that she speaks nicely. FB reported that if a person talks badly, s/he is from a low class and if a person talks nicely, s/he is from a middle or high class. In the Intermediate network, ME said that he knows people from a high class and they do not speak nicely while FG reported that your language is not an indicator of your social class or the way you live. FH disagreed and said that most of the time how a person speaks determines social class because if a person is from high class

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s/he has to behave in accordance to the good manners rule. FF reported that at least in adult people you can tell the social class because, for example, doctors and lawyers have their own way of speaking. He reported that young people speak mostly the same regardless of their social class. In the Advanced network, MI reported that there are people from the low class that talk like professionals and professional people that have poor language. FJ, FK and, FL reported that in general language and social class go hand-in-hand, but that there are always some exceptions. They mentioned as examples people from a high class that speak informal Puerto Rican Spanish and some professors who speak informally.

The participants were asked if men and women talk the same way. All four participants of the Pre- Basic network reported that they did not. They mentioned the following arguments in their responses: women are delicate, and men are informal; women express themselves better than men; women are more formal than men, and men talk loosely and in a relaxed fashion. In the Intermediate network, ME, FF and, FG reported that men and women do not speak in the same way. These participants gave different responses that included: when men are with women, they try to be nice; men try to be respectful when they are in front of a woman; men use informal language while women take care of their speech. FH reported that she has never paid attention to that, but that it depends on how you have been raised or have learned to speak. In the Advanced network, MI, FJ, and FL reported that women and men do not speak in the same way. They give the following reasons as part of their responses: women talk in a more refined way than men do; men do not worry about details in their speech; men talk

in jargon. FK reported that women are more reserved than men, but times are changing, and women are speaking more or less in the same way that men do.

Finally, the participants were asked if they could talk like another person who would that person be. In the Pre-Basic network, MA reported that she would like to talk like a poet because they use pretty words. FB reported that she would like to speak like a person who has command of two languages, Spanish and English. FC reported that he would like to speak like a journalist because they speak correctly. FD reported that she would like to talk like a Colombian because they sound funny or like an Argentinean because they talk in a sophisticated way. In the Intermediate network, ME reported that he would like to talk in Spanish like a teacher he had in high school because she talked with a rich vocabulary. FF reported that he would like to talk like Martin Luther King or some other speaker who knows how to express himself. FG reported that he would like to talk in Spanish like Pedro Rosselló and in English like Sean Connery because he likes their accents. FH reported that she would like to talk like government officials or journalists because they talk nicely. In the Advanced network, MI reported that he would like to speak like his English professor because he has good diction and grammar. FJ reported that he would like to talk like his Spanish professor because she has nice pronunciation and a wide vocabulary. FK reported that he would like to talk in English like people from England and in Spanish like people from Argentina. FL reported that she would like to talk like someone who has a better accent than she does in English.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS #2 and 3

Research Question #2 read as follows: Do the participants from each level, Pre-Basic English, Intermediate English, and Advanced English at the UPRM style shift in Spanish?

Table 26 Variants of (s) in word list, reading passage, and tape-recorded interview speech across three proficiency levels.

Network	S			H			Ø		
	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech
Advanced	N=80 **100%**	N=111 **96%**	N=184 45%	N=0 0%	N=4 3%	N=173 **42%**	N=0 0%	N=1 1%	N=54 **13%**
Intermediate	N=74 **92%**	N=90 **78%**	N=270 50%	N=0 0%	N=13 11%	N=195 **36%**	N=6 8%	N=13 11%	N=76 **14%**
Pre-Basic	N=72 **90%**	N=81 **70%**	N=157 54%	N=6 8%	N=19 16%	N=93 **32%**	N=2 2%	N=16 14%	N=41 **14%**

Table 26 shows the number and percent of tokens of [s], [h], and [ø] in syllable final and word final position produced by the students in the three networks in word list speech, a reading passage, and tape-recorded interview speech. As shown in Table 26, in both word list speech and reading passage speech, participants across all three proficiency levels produced a higher percent of [s] than any other variant. In tape-recorded interview speech, participants across all three proficiency levels produced a lower percent of [s] than in word list and reading passage speech and a higher percent of both [h] and [ø] than in word list and reading passage speech. Since speakers pay more attention to speech in word list and reading passage speech than in interview speech, we can conclude that the participants from all three proficiency levels used [s] in formal speech and [h] and [ø] in informal speech and that they style shifted across word list, reading passage, and interview speech.

Research Question #3 read as follows: Do the participants from each level, Pre-Basic English, Intermediate English, and Advanced English at the UPRM style shift in

English? In addition, Research Question #3 had two parts which read as follows: A)

across the proficiency levels, do the participants who represent each proficiency level

have the same phonetic-phonological resources to style shift? B) Does monitoring

operate on a continuum increasing in formal contexts, and thereby producing a style shift

toward monitored / formal variants?

Table 27 CC and CØ in monomorphemic words in word list, reading passage, and tape-recorded interview speech across three proficiency levels.

Network	CC			CØ		
	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech
Advanced	N=55 **95%**	N=54 **52%**	N=69 **57%**	N=5 5%	N=50 48%	N=52 43%
Intermediate	N=40 **67%**	N=22 21%	N=57 **55%**	N=20 33%	N=82 **79%**	N=47 45%
Pre-Basic	N=25 42%	N=10 10%	N=23 45%	N=35 **58%**	N=94 **90%**	N=28 **55%**

As shown table 27, for monomorphemic words in word list speech, the Advanced

level participants produced CC 95% of the time; the Intermediate level participants

produced CC 67% of the time, and the Pre -Basic level participants produced CC 42% of

the time.   This means that the Advanced level participants tended to pronounce

monomorphemic words such as *last* with CC almost 100% of the time while the

Intermediate and Pre-Basic level participants tended to variably pronounce

monomorphemic words such as *last* with CC and CØ.   The Intermediate level

participants produced CC (67%) more frequently than CØ (33%) while the Pre-Basic

participants produced CØ (58%) more frequently than CC (42%).   Since, in terms of

attention paid to speech, word list speech is the most monitored speech, it seems that the

Advanced level participants have fully acquired consonant clusters in monomorphemic

words while the Intermediate and the Pre-Basic participants have variably acquired

consonant clusters in monomorphemic words, with the Intermediate participants showing a higher degree of acquisition than the Pre-Basic participants.

Table 28 CC and CØ in bimorphemic words in word list, reading passage, and tape-recorded interview speech across three proficiency levels.

Network	CC –ed			CØ –ed		
	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech
Advanced	N=73 **91%**	N=36 **50%**	N=35 **65%**	N=7 9%	N=36 **50%**	N=19 35%
Intermediate	N=34 42%	N=11 15%	N=9 38%	N=46 **58%**	N=61 **85%**	N=15 **63%**
Pre-Basic	N=13 16%	N=4 6%	N=3 27%	N=67 **84%**	N=68 **94%**	N=8 **73%**

As shown in table 28, for bimorphemic words in word list speech, the Advanced level participants produced CC 91% of the time; the Intermediate level participants produced CC 42% of the time, and the Pre Basic level participants produced CC 16% of the time. This means that the Advanced level participants tended to pronounce bimorphemic words such as *worked* and *laughed* with CC almost 100% of the time while the Intermediate and Pre-Basic level participants tended to variably pronounce bimorphemic words with CC and CØ. Both the Intermediate (58%) and the Pre-Basic (84%) level participants produced CØ more frequently than CC in word list speech. Since, in terms of attention paid to speech, word list speech is the most monitored speech, it seems that the Advanced level participants have fully acquired bimorphemic consonant clusters while the Intermediate and the Pre-Basic participants have variably acquired bimorphemic consonant clusters, with the Intermediate participants showing a higher degree of acquisition than the Pre-Basic participants. Since the formation of the bimorphemic consonant cluster depends on the acquisition of the *–ed* suffix, it seems possible that the Advanced level participants have acquired the *–ed* suffix; the Pre-Basic

level participants have not, and the Intermediate participants have variably acquired the –*ed* suffix.

The patterns of percents in both the monomorphemic and bimorphemic words also showed that the participants used a higher percent of the more formal variant CC in tape-recorded interview speech than in reading passage speech, which may indicate that reading in their second language, English, is still difficult or hard for these participants instead of indicating a lack of monitoring. Taking out the reading passage, we see that both the Advanced and Intermediate level participants showed a higher percent of CC in the word list speech than in the tape-recorded interview speech, which is consistent with both style shifting and monitoring, but that the Pre -Basic level participants showed a higher percent of CC in the tape-recorded interview speech than in the word list speech, which is not consistent with either style-shifting or monitoring.

To summarize, the participants from the Advanced level seem to have acquired consonant clusters in both monomorphemic and bimorphemic words and seem to be able to use final consonant cluster simplification stylistically. The participants from the Pre-Basic level have not acquired consonant clusters and do not use them stylistically. The participants from the Intermediate level seem to have variably acquired consonant clusters and seem to be able to use final consonant cluster simplification stylistically.

Table 29 Velar and alveolar –ing variants in monosyllabic words in word list speech across three proficiency levels.

Network	**-ing**	**in'**
Advanced	N=23 **96%**	N=1 4%
Intermediate	N=15 **63%**	N=9 37%
Pre-Basic	N=2 8%	N=22 **92%**

Table 29 shows the number and percent of tokens of [Iŋ] and [In] in monosyllabic words produced by the students in the three networks in word list speech. As shown in table 29, in word list speech, the only participants that were able to produce the velar nasal almost 100 percent of the time in this most monitored context were the participants from the Advanced level, which indicates that they have acquired the velar nasal. By contrast, the Pre-Basic participants produced the velar nasal only 8 percent of the time in this most monitored context, which indicates that they have not acquired the velar nasal. Finally, the participants from the Intermediate level produced the velar nasal 63 percent of the time in this most monitored context, which indicates that they have variably acquired the velar nasal.

Table 30 Velar and alveolar –ing variants in words with more than one syllable in word list, reading passage, and interview speech across three proficiency levels.

Network	-ing			in'			ín		
	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech	Word List	Reading Passage	Interview Speech
Advanced	N=62 **78%**	N=12 **60%**	N=15 15%	N=18 22%	N=8 40%	N=86 **85%**	---	---	---
Intermediate	N=42 **53%**	N=8 40%	N=5 6%	N=38 47%	N=12 **60%**	N=75 94%	---	---	---
Pre-Basic	N=15 19%	N=0 0%	N=3 9%	N=64 **80%**	N=18 **90%**	N=28 **85%**	N=1 1%	N=2 10%	N=2 6%

Table 30 shows the number and percent of tokens of the velar and the alveolar nasals in words with more than one syllable produced by the students in the three networks in word list speech, reading passage speech, and tape-recorded interview speech. As shown in table 30, in word list speech and the reading passage, the participants from the Advanced level produced a higher percent of the velar nasal than the alveolar nasal. The participants from Intermediate level produced a higher percent of the velar nasal than the alveolar nasal in word list speech but a lower percent of the velar nasal than the alveolar nasal in reading passage speech. The participants from the Pre-

Basic level produced a higher percent of the alveolar nasal than the velar nasal in both word list and reading passage speech. In the interview speech, the participants from all levels produced a higher percent of the alveolar nasal than the velar nasal. In addition, the Pre-Basic participants produced a third variant [ín] which may reflect cross-linguistic influence from the pronunciation of the last syllable of words such as *boletín* and *cafetín* in Spanish. One reason for the production of the ín is that native speakers of Spanish tend to follow the rule of acute words (*palabras agudas*) when they pronounce words that end in [n]. This rule states that acute words (*palabras agudas*) that end in [n] need to be stressed in the last syllable. The stress goes on the vowel before [n]. These Pre-Basic participants maybe are transferring this Spanish rule to the words ending in –ing as part of their interlanguage system. In the case of words with –ing variable the participants will place the stress in the vowel [i] that is before the [n].

To summarize, the participants from the Advanced level seem to have acquired the velar nasal and seem to be able to use it stylistically. The participants from the Pre-Basic level have not acquired the velar nasal and do not use it stylistically. The participants from the Intermediate level seem to have variably acquired the velar nasal but do not seem to be using it stylistically.

RESEARCH QUESTION #4

Research Question #4 read as follows: Does the proficiency level, in terms of knowledge about stylistic and social meanings and the phonetic-phonological resources to express them; of the nine student friends match the proficiency level of the three main student participants? To answer Research Question #4, I examined the responses to the

questionnaires used to answer Research Question #1 and the linguistic data from the tape-recorded interview speech used to answer Research Questions #2 and #3.

Across the three proficiency levels, the participants know that the Spanish variable (s) carries social meaning and they have the linguistic resources to express this variable in Spanish in different contexts. These participants know that to "eat the s" is acceptable in informal contexts, while the production of the formal variable (s) is the more proper in formal contexts. On the other hand, not all the participants know that the –ing and FCCS variables carry social meaning and do not have the linguistic resources to express them. Participants from the Advanced network may know that these variables carry social meaning and they do have the linguistic resources to express them. The participants of the Intermediate network do not know that the –ing and FCCS variables carry social meaning and they variably have the linguistic resources to express them. The participants of the Pre-Basic network do not know that the –ing and FCCS variables carry social meaning and they do not have the linguistic resources to express them.

Across the three networks, the results of the production of the (s) variable showed that the participants style shift in Spanish. As we can see, in the informal speech style, the participants produced the higher percents of the informal variant (ø), or in other words they "eat the s" in higher percents while they are speaking in their more vernacular language. The participants showed a higher percent of the formal variant (s) in the word list style. The participants pronounced the s in careful speech that involves reading or monitoring of their speech. The fact that the twelve participants are native speakers of Spanish and the high number of production of tokens of the (s) variable showed that these participants do style shift in Spanish.

Across the proficiency levels the participants who represent the proficiency levels do not have the same phonetic-phonological resources to style shift. The participants of the Advanced network do have the phonetic–phonological resources to style shift in English, because they produced the (-ing) variants and the FCCS variants for stylistic purposes. The participants of the Intermediate network variably have the phonetic-phonological resources to style shift in English. The participants who have the resources produced the (-ing) and FCCS variants for stylistic purposes, while the participants who do not have the resources produced the (-ing) and FCCS variants as a result of monitoring their speech. The participants of the Pre-Basic network do not have the phonetic - phonological resources to style shift in English. The instances in which these participants produced the (-ing) and FCCS variants were as a result of monitoring their speech.

As we can see, monitoring does operate on a continuum increasing in formal contexts and thereby producing style shifting. The participants of the Pre-Basic network and some participants of the Intermediate network, did style shifting in English as a result of monitoring their speech. The participants produced the highest percents of the formal variants of the –ing and final consonant cluster simplification variables in the word lists and, to some extent, in the reading passage. In these two formal contexts, the participants seemed to monitor their speech more than in the tape-recorded interview speech. .

Discussion of the results

According to Labov (as cited in Holmes 2001) "a low frequency of vernacular (in') or a higher frequency of standard (iŋ) pronunciations reflect the fact that speakers are speaking in a more formal context." The tape recorded interview demonstrated that the same is true for this research in Spanish. The percents of the variants of the variable

(*s*) in the word list and the informal speech style demonstrated that participants "eat the s" in informal speech, while they produce a high percent of [s] in the more formal style (word list).

Similar to Poplack (1978), who analyzed three friendships networks of sixth graders, this thesis analyzed three networks of friendship at three different proficiency levels in English. Poplack's study showed that bilingual Puerto Rican speakers can socially classify linguistic variants and use them appropriately within the framework of their society. In this thesis the tape recorded interview showed that the participants can classify and use appropriately the Spanish variable (*s*) in three different contexts. The SSMQ demonstrated that the 12 participants across the three networks showed agreement in terms of the situations for the use of formal or informal style for 15 items.

In summary, Kirschner (1984) pointed out that bilinguals have native speaker competence in two languages, but L2 students have native speaker competence in only one language, their L1. The same point seems to be true here, the participants showed the ability to style shift in their L1 Spanish, while their ability to style shift in their L2 English depended on their proficiency level, as the phonetic-phonological resources for stylistic expression varied across proficiency level. In addition, their proficiency level also determined their use of English and Spanish in informal (daily) and formal (classroom) contexts. A higher proficiency level in English meant a higher use of English and a lower use of Spanish for informal (daily) use. A lower proficiency level in English meant a lower use of English and a higher use of Spanish for informal (daily) use. The participants of the Advanced network also seemed to have the ability to style shift in both of their languages, Spanish and English.

According to Hochberg (1986), Puerto Rican Spanish speakers of all social classes variably aspirate and delete final (*s*). The participants of this thesis aspirated (*h*) the (*s*) variable at a higher percent in the reading passage and the informal speech style. These two contexts showed the higher percents of deletion (Ø). Participants also do not seem to be comfortable deleting at the first time; they need to place something (aspiration *h*) in the place of the (*s*) before a complete deletion.

Tarone (1979) pointed out that it is possible to place the styles of speakers along a continuous dimension defined by the amount of attention paid to speech. The participants of the Advanced network showed style shifting with each of the phonetic-phonological variables in English (*-ing* and final consonant cluster simplification) and in Spanish (*s*). This raises the question of whether these second language speakers of English are monitoring their speech or using language stylistically.

Beebe (1980) suggested that Monitoring, the conscious application of grammatical rules, and monitoring, attention paid to speech, occurred on a sliding scale and pointed out that style shifting occurs in all natural languages including inter-languages. The tape recorded interviews showed similarities with Beebe (1980). Across the three networks, there was a higher percent of *–ing*, *CC*, and *s* in the word list than in the informal speech. Style shifting occurred in these contexts supporting the point that monitoring occurs on a sliding scale even when interlanguage is present. Even though these participants may have an interlanguage system, they showed some kind of monitoring.

Blyth (2004) pointed out that sociolinguistic competence can be divided into knowledge about the appropriateness of form and knowledge about the appropriateness

of meaning. The SSMQ showed that the participants can distinguish the two kinds of knowledge because they demonstrated agreement in their use of daily (informal) and classroom (formal) languages in accordance to the different settings and interlocutors. In other words, the SSMQ results demonstrated that they know stylistically differences of informal and formal language use.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

The objectives that guided this thesis were to analyze the stylistic and social meaning and the linguistic resources in English and in Spanish of the different phonetic-phonological sounds, to find out if Pre-Basic, Intermediate and Advanced students style shift in Spanish, to find out if participants in each proficiency level have the same phonetic-phonological resources to style shift in English, to analyze how monitoring operates on a continuum increasing in formal contexts and to find out if this produce style shifting toward monitored / formal variants and to find out and analyze if the phonetic-phonological resources for style shifting of the members of a social network match the proficiency level of the main student at the center of the network.

In summary, across the three proficiency levels, the participants know that the Spanish variable (s) carries stylistic, social meaning and they have the linguistic resources to express this variable in Spanish in different contexts. On the other hand, not all the participants know that the –ing and FCCS variables carry stylistic, social meaning and do not have the linguistic resources to use –ing and FCCS. Participants from the Advanced network may know that these variables carry stylistic, social meaning and they do have the linguistic resources to express them. The participants of the Intermediate network do not know that the –ing and FCCS variables carry stylistic, social meaning and they variably have the linguistic resources to express them. The participants of the Pre-Basic network do not know that the –ing and FCCS variables carry stylistic, social meaning and they do not have the linguistic resources to express them.

Across the three networks, the results of the production of the (s) variable showed that the participants style shift in Spanish. As we saw, the participants produced the higher percent of the informal variant (ø) in informal speech style and the formal variant (s) in the word list style. The participants pronounced the *s* in careful speech that involves reading or monitoring of their speech. The fact that the twelve participants are native speakers of Spanish and the high number of production of tokens of the (s) variable showed that these participants do style shift in Spanish.

Across the proficiency levels the participants who represent the proficiency levels do not have the same phonetic-phonological resources to style shift. The participants of the Advanced network do have the phonetic –phonological resources to style shift in English and seemed to have produced the (-ing) variants and the FCCS variants for stylistic purposes. The participants of the Intermediate network variably have the phonetic-phonological resources to style shift in English. The participants who have the resources seemed to have produced the (-ing) and FCCS variants for stylistic purposes, while the participants who do not have the resources seemed to have produced the (-ing) and FCCS variants as result of monitoring their speech. The participants of the Pre-Basic network do not have the phonetic - phonological resources to style shift in English. The instances in which these participants produced the (-ing) and FCCS variants were as result of monitoring their speech.

Pedagogical Implications

Professors should notice that Puerto Rican Spanish speakers with English as a second language have not completely acquired the phonetic and phonological resources to style shift in English. This thesis shows that the velar nasal has not been acquired by

speakers at all proficiency levels. One example of this is that some speakers pronounced *bring* as *brin* in the word list speech. Native speakers of English never pronounce *bring* as *brin* because *bring* is a monosyllabic word ending in a velar nasal. According to Schnitzer (1997), there are three nasal phonemes in Puerto Rican Spanish: /m/, /ñ/ and /n/. The /n/ phoneme has two allophones, [n] and [ŋ], which are in free variation in word final position. The Spanish speaker may substitute the allophone [ŋ] of the phoneme /n/ for the English phoneme /ŋ/. In order to develop the phonetic and phonological resources to style shift in English, students need to know the different phonemes and allophones of *n* in Spanish and in English. The students need to know that in English [n] is an allophone of the phoneme /n/, and that [ŋ] is an allophone of the phoneme /ŋ/. In other words, [n] and [ŋ] are two different allophones of two separate phonemes. Teachers must emphasize to the students the differences between the Spanish phoneme /n/ which has two allophones [n] and [ŋ] that occur in two different environments and the two English phonemes /n/ and /ŋ/. Students need to develop the two different phonemes in English /n/ and /ŋ/. Teachers need to emphasize that these two phonemes are not the same two allophones [n] and [ŋ] of the phoneme /n/ of their native language, Spanish.

In order to use final consonant cluster simplification stylistically, students also have to acquire final consonant clusters. First, in order to have the clusters in monomorphemic words such as *last – lasø*, students have to acquire the phonotactic resources in English, which are different from the phonotactic resources in Spanish. According to Schnitzer (1997), a Puerto Rican Spanish speaker with English as a second language, who may not have fully acquired the phonotactic resources for codas with two consonants in word final position, may fail to pronounce the second consonant of words

ending in a two consonant cluster. In other words, the speaker may tend to pronounce the English word *last* as /læs/ because of interference from Spanish phonotactic constraints, which permit only one consonant at the end of a word. Thus, to be able to manipulate consonant cluster simplification as a stylistic variable, these students have to acquire the phonotactic rule of pronouncing two consonants together at the end of words. Then these students have to acquire the *–ed* suffix for the bimorphemic words. They have to know the three rules for the pronunciation of the *–ed* suffix[t], [d] and, [əd]. After Spanish speakers acquire word final consonant clusters in English, they have to know that the second member of the cluster can be deleted for stylistic purposes. Finally, teachers should investigate to find out if students know the differences between style and monitoring.

Teachers should develop strategies in which students can acquire the different resources to be able to style shift in their second language, English. Teachers should bring to the English classrooms the contexts in which the students can use informal and formal English and develop the phonetic-phonological resources they need to style shift. In this way they will learn how to differ an informal context from a formal context using their second language, English.

Limitations of the study

The main limitation of this study is that I found out that the participants knew about style and I found out what phonetic-phonological resources the students had for the expression of style in English, but I did not find out if the participants knew that the velar nasal [ŋ] signals formal style and the alveolar nasal [n] signals informal style. I also did not find out about the extension they have of their stylistic resources. This means that I

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did not find out if they produced formal variants in word list speech because they were style shifting or because they were monitoring. A second limitation is that for final consonant cluster simplification, I did not look at a phonological factor, whether the word following the consonant cluster begins with a consonant or a non-consonant.

A third limitation was that due to the fact that this research focused on three individuals and their social networks; I could not control the kind of friends they chose to participate. At the same time I could not control aspects of background information of the the friends, for example the schools where they studied, the places where they were born and raised, and their parents' first language.

Directions for Future Research

The first direction for future research is to find out if Pre-Basic and Intermediate students are aware of the grammatical and stylistic meaning of the –*ed* suffix. The research could address if these students are not using the –*ed* suffix because they do not have the phonetic-phonological resources to express it or because they have not acquired the grammatical meaning that the –*ed* suffix signals.

Another direction for future research is to increase the number of participants. This can be done in two different ways. The first option is to take each one of the three networks and add two or three more friends of the main participant. The second option is to increase the number of social networks from three to four or five. If the research is done inside the university, these new social networks can be from other English proficiency levels or departments and faculties. Another direction for future research is to investigate the relationship between gender and style and see if there is any gender effect. In the future, researchers could also find out if Puerto Ricans have the same vision

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of style in Spanish and English and, if Puerto Ricans and native speakers of English have

the same vision of style.

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Appendix A: Consent Form

My name is Jannette Hermina and I am writing my thesis for the MAEE program at the University of Puerto Rico at Mayagüez. In order to find out about English and Spanish on the island, I would like to do an interview with you in English and Spanish. I want to let you know that your name will not be revealed in the research. I will identify each participant by numbers. The process of the interview includes three steps. The first step is a socio-demographic questionnaire; the second one is a tape recorded interview in English and Spanish, and the third step is a language questionnaire. The three steps will include questions about where you were born and raised, your lifestyle and background, and English and Spanish use on the island. I am very happy that you are willing to participate in my research.

_____

Signature

Appendix B: Social-demographic and Language Use Questionnaire (SDLUQ)

INSTRUCTIONS: Fill in the blanks with the information requested or choose the answer that applies to you. .

1. Major _____

2. Which English course are you currently taking or did you take as a freshman when you entered the UPRM?

Pre-Basic 0066 _____   Basic 3101 _____
Intermediate 3103 _____   Advanced 3211 _____

3. Age? _____

4. Gender? _____

5. Place where you were born? _____

6. Place where you were raised? _____

7. What's your hometown? _____

8a. Mother's first language? _____
8b. Father's first language? _____

9. Where did you study and what type of school did you study in? (Please check!)

Grade	Puerto Rico					United States		Other
	Public	Private	Catholic	Non - Catholic	Bilingual	Public	Private	
K – 6th								
7th – 9th								
10th – 12th								

10. Are you the first generation in your family to go to college?
Yes _____
No _____

11. Choose the answer that best applies to you:
    a. I am able to read, write, speak, and understand in Spanish and in English. _____
    b. I am able to read and write in Spanish and English. _____
    c. I am able to speak and listen in Spanish and English. _____
    d. I am able to translate from English to Spanish and from Spanish to English. _____
    e. I am able to read, write, speak, and understand in Spanish. _____

12. Do you have Dish and/or Cable TV?   Yes _____   No _____

13. When did you start to watch TV in English? _____

14. More or less, how many hours per week do you spend watching Cable TV in English?

a. 15 hours or more _____   c. 11-14 hours _____
b. 5 hours or less to 10 hours _____   d. No hours _____

15. How often do you watch English – language TV programs from Cable TV?

a. Everyday _____   b. Three or four days per week _____
c. Just on weekends _____   d. Sometimes (neighbor's or friend's Cable TV) _____

16. How much of your English did you learn by watching Cable T.V. from grades K-12?

a. Much _____   c. None _____
b. Some _____   d. I don't like TV programs in English _____

17. How much TV programming in English do you understand now?
_____

18. What reasons do you have for not watching TV in English?

    a. I am in the university all the time. _____
    b. I don't like TV in English. _____
    c. I watch TV in Spanish. _____

19. More or less, how many hours per week do you spend watching TV in Spanish?
a. 15 hours or more _____   c. 11-14 hours _____
b. 5 hours or less to 10 hours _____   d. None _____

20. Tell me the top three shows you like to watch in English.
        1. _____
        2. _____
        3._____

21. Who is your favorite artist? _____

22. Do you listen to music in English?   Yes _____   No _____

23. Which kind of music do you listen in English? (You can check more than one answer.)
a. Hip Hop/Rap/R & B _____   c. Reggaeton _____
b. Reggae _____   d. Rock/Pop/alternative _____

24. Do you read newspapers?   Yes _____   No _____

25. How often do you read a newspaper?
a. Everyday _____   b. Three or four days per week _____   c. Just on weekends _____

26. Which newspapers do you read? (You can check more than one answer.)

a. El Nuevo Día _____   b. Primera Hora _____
c. El Vocero _____   d. The San Juan Star _____

27. Do you have friends who speak English as a native language? (Americans, British, Canadians, Australians)?
Yes _____   No _____

28. How did you meet the English-speaking friend?
_____

29. Do you speak English with your English-speaking friend? How much? How often?
_____

Appendix C: Stylistic and Social Meaning Questionnaire (SSMQ)

Conceptual Organizer

Definition   Topic

_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____

Formal

Setting   Participants

_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____

Definition   Topic

_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____

Informal

Setting   Participants

_____   _____
_____   _____
_____   _____

Views of English and Spanish in Puerto Rico

I. Choose the best one that applies to you. Write an X in the space provided. You can choose more than one option.

  1. What do you think of your own speech in English and in Spanish?
             _____ a. I speak very well in Spanish and I can defend myself in English.
             _____ b. I have command of both languages.
             _____ c. I am better in Spanish, but I can speak English well too.
             _____ d. I think I am average in both languages.
             _____ e. I do not speak very good Spanish or English.
             _____ f. Other _____

  2. Have you ever tried to change your speech in English or in Spanish? What particular things have
             you tried to change in English or Spanish?
             _____ a. Nothing.
             _____ b. Yes, in English the accent.
             _____ c. Yes, in English my pronunciation.
             _____ d. Yes, in Spanish different words.
             _____ e. Yes, in Spanish I have tried to stop shortening words. (para – pa')
             _____ f. Other _____

  3. Have you ever had a teacher correct your speech in English or Spanish? What did he/she correct?
             _____ a. Yes, in English verb tenses.
             _____ b. Yes, in English the pronunciation.
             _____ c. Yes, the tone and some words.
             _____ d. Yes, my grammar.
             _____ e. Yes, spelling errors.
             _____ f. Other _____

  4. What is your town? _____What do you think of the speech in your town?
             _____a. Everybody talks the same way.
             _____ b. It is street language.
             _____ c. It is regular, normal.
             _____ d. The way people speak in my town is different from other towns.
             _____ e. Only a few speak English well.
             _____ f. Other _____

  5. What do you think of the way people from Puerto Rico speak Spanish?
             _____ a. Other Latin countries talk better than us.
             _____ b. We don't pronounce the letter *R* and we "eat" the *S*.
             _____ c. Puerto Ricans mix a lot of Spanish and English words.
             _____ d. We do not care about Spanish.
             _____ e. People say we talk as if we were *singing*.
             _____ f. Other _____

  6. What do you think of the way people from Puerto Rico speak English?
             _____ a. Puerto Ricans have a bad English accent.
             _____ b. Puerto Ricans speak better English than other Latinos.
             _____ c. Puerto Ricans' English pronunciation affects the understanding.
             _____ d. Puerto Ricans have their own English accent.
             _____ e. Puerto Ricans' English is different from North Americans.
             _____ f. Other _____

Social Situations Table

II. Below you will find a list of different basic situations in which people will be speaking to each other. For each of these situations, please say the language that you most typically use in each situation, for example (**daily Spanish, classroom Spanish or daily English or classroom English**). In some situations more than one language might be used. If this is the case, please try to indicate the different options.

Situation	Daily Spanish	Classroom Spanish	Daily English	Classroom English
1. In your home with family members.				
2. When you are studying with a woman.				
3. When you are studying with a man				
4. When you are playing with children.				
5. When you are buying something at a store owned by someone other than a Puerto Rican (e.g. a Chinese, an American)				
6. When you are buying something at a store in your town owned by a Puerto Rican.				
7. In a classroom, when you are talking to a Puerto Rican professor.				
8. When you are talking to a professor from a foreign country (India, Colombia, China)				
9. Outside college, between you and a professor.				
10. At a party or the mall when you are talking to the mayor.				
11. At a public meeting, when you are talking to the mayor.				
12. At a wedding during the church ceremony or during the toast.				
13. At a wedding when you are talking with your friends or dancing.				
14. When you are at church, or at a funeral or sanctuary.				
15. When you are giving orders to young people.				

Appendix D: Tape Recorded Interview Schedule

Part 1 Tape – Recorded Interview Questions English and Spanish

Socio demographic information

1. How long has your family lived in Puerto Rico (town)? Have they always lived in the same place?
2. Do you live in the pueblo or campo? Tell me about the place where you live.

Spare time / Free time

1. What do you like doing best in your spare time?
2. What did you do last weekend?
3. Do you play a sport or get any regular exercise?

Childhood Questions

1. What is one of your more embarrassing moments at age 13-17? Tell me about it.
2. What's the best experience you ever had at school? What's the worst experience you ever had at school? What happened?

College student life

1. Where do you live here in Mayagüez? Do you have roommates or housemates? Tell me about the place where you live here in Mayagüez. Did you ever have a really bad roommate?
2. Do you remember your first day at the Colegio? How did you get there? What was it like?
3. What's the worst experience you have had at the Colegio until this moment – (a really awful day or a day when something really horrible happened)?

Adulthood Questions / Facing danger

1. What is the most risky thing you have done in your life? What happened? Were you scared?
2. Have you seen a fight around here? What happened?
3. Have you ever been in serious danger of death when you said to yourself. "This is it." What happened?
4. What do you think of the standard of driving around here?
5. Do you think old/young people are better drivers? Why?

Fear / Dreams / Religion

1. Have you ever dreamt about something and then it really happened? Can you tell me about that dream coming true? Why do you think that dream come true?

2. Do you believe in fate? Why? Why not?

Language Questions

1. Did you have the opportunity to learn English during your years in school? Why? Why not? What happened?
2. Do people in the United States and Puerto Rico speak the same English?
3. When and where do you use English?
4. Has English been a necessity in your life? Why? Why not?
5. Which sounds do you identify when you listen to the English of people in reality shows or in speaking English with family and friends?
6. Which sounds do you notice when you listen to the English of your professors or the persons in the news?
7. Are there any sounds you don't like?
8. Are there any sounds you like?
9. Can you tell where a person is from by the way he / she sound? How?

Socio demographic information

1. ¿Conoces a todo el mundo en tu pueblo? ¿O conoces todas las familias que viven en tu pueblo?
2. ¿Cómo es la gente en tu pueblo? ¿Podrías describirlos?

Spare time / Free time

1. ¿Qué hace tu familia en Navidad?
2. ¿Qué hiciste las navidades pasadas?

Childhood Questions

1. ¿Alguna vez te culparon por algo que tú no hiciste? ¿Que paso?

College student life

1. ¿Te gusta tu experiencia como estudiante universitario del colegio?
2. ¿Qué estas estudiando aquí en el colegio? Qué piensas hacer después que te gradúes? ¿Cuáles son tus planes para el futuro?

Adulthood Questions / Facing danger

1. ¿Cuál ha sido la mejor o la mas grande pelea en la cual tu has estado involucrad@?
2. ¿Qué pasó en tu pueblo durante la huelga de camioneros y durante el problema de gasolina? ¿Qué hiciste?

3. ¿Qué tu crees es necesario para balancear la situación socio económica de Puerto Rico? ¿Qué recortes tu harías?
4. ¿Cómo balancearías el presupuesto?

Fear / Dreams / Religion

1. Si ganaras la lotería y tuvieras 24 horas para gastar todo el dinero, ¿qué harías?
2. En la noche de despedida de año ¿haces algún ritual para la buena suerte?
3. ¿Para qué las personas usan los velones de santos? ¿Crees qué esto le trae buena suerte a las personas? ¿Porqué si? ¿Porqué no?

Language Questions

1. ¿Te gusta ver películas en inglés con subtítulos en español?
2. ¿Qué sonidos tú piensas que distinguen el hablar de los puertorriqueños cuando están hablando español con su familia y amigos?
3. ¿Qué sonidos tu piensas que distinguen el hablar de los políticos o funcionarios de gobierno cuando están en una entrevista o ofreciendo un discurso en español?
4. ¿Puedes decir de qué clase social es una persona de acuerdo a la manera de cómo esta habla?
5. ¿Piensas que las mujeres y los hombres hablan de igual forma?
6. Si pudieras hablar como cualquier otra persona, ¿cómo quién sería?

Part 2

1) English Word List   –ing variable

A) words of more than one syllable

1. sailing
2. coming
3. shocking
4. charming
5. running
6. hunting
7. following
8. discovering
9. eating
10. drinking
11. repeating
12. hollering
13. asking
14. telling
15. reciting
16. pursuing
17. something
18. punching
19. slamming
20. boxing

B) monosyllabic words

1. bring
2. king
3. ring
4. sing
5. sting
6. swing

2) English Word List FCCS

A) monomorphemic words

1. test
2. post
3. grasp
4. wasp
5. desk
6. mask
7. left
8. cleft
9. mind
10. find
11. cold
12. wild
13. adept
14. inept
15. act

B) bimorphemic words

1. missed
2. dressed
3. finished
4. cashed
5. raised
6. amazed
7. judged
8. charged
9. laughed
10. stuffed
11. loved
12. moved
13. rained
14. canned
15. named
16. killed
17. smelled
18. stopped
19. looked
20. cooked

Last year I saw the best movie. It seemed silly but it was serious too. It was about this detective who lived in California, but he traveled up and down most of the coast. It seemed like he was always one step ahead of the cops and one step behind the bad guys at the same time. Nobody really liked him, and it seemed like he was almost killed every time he left the house. Most of the time, he was running from both the criminals and the police. In fact both sides were totally confused by him.

One time, the police set up a scam bust by pretending to smuggle in some drugs of the coast. When they smuggled the stuff inland they wanted to sell it to the dealers. But the detective wasn't told so he thought it was a chance for a real bust on the dealers. Just as he jumped in to make an arrest a couple of dealers showed up, and he had to act like he was one of them. So the police thought he was part of the dealers and the dealers thought he was part of the police. Both sides jumped in and he was trying to act as if he was with the other side. He told a policeman to go along with him 'cause he was making a bust and he told a drug dealer to go along with him and he would get the drugs. Both sides were so confused by him they just went along with the act and followed his lead. As it turned out, some of the police had gone underground and some of the dealers had turned evidence to the police. He was so confused himself he didn't know who to arrest. Finally, he just left both groups shooting at each other. He just couldn't figure out who was bad and who was so good.

Letter of permission for the English Reading Passage

Dear Jannette,

I hereby grant you permission to use the passage. Good luck in your project.

Walt Wolfram

3) Spanish Word List

1. muchachos
2. ambos
3. brindis
4. burgués
5. caracteres
6. ciprés
7. después
8. enaguas
9. exequias
10. expensas
11. estudiantes
12. génesis
13. genovés
14. jueves
15. Jeremías
16. ósmosis
17. pues
18. esperábamos
19. más[8]
20. excesivos

---

[8] The Spanish word "más" in this word list refers to quantity "cantidad".

Spanish Reading Passage

Y la lancha seguía encaramándose en las crestas espumosas, y cayendo en los abismos, y volviendo a erguirse animosa, para caer en seguida en otra sima más profunda, y ganando siempre terreno, y procurando, al huir, no presentar a los mares el costado. De tiempo en tiempo, los pescadores clamaban fervorosos:

_ ¡Virgen del Mar, adelante!... ¡Adelante, Virgen del Mar!

Una nube de incienso que se desenvolvía en ondas azuladas llenó el ámbito de la iglesia; las campanillas repicaron con un sonido vibrante, y Maese Pérez puso sus crispadas manos sobre las teclas del órgano. Las cien voces de sus tubos de metal resonaron en un acorde majestuoso y prolongado que se perdió poco a poco, como si una ráfaga de aire hubiese arrebatado a sus últimos ecos.