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ABSTRACT

This guide deals with the subject in two parts: (1) background materials, and (2) classroom activities for teaching English to Spanish speakers. The first part discusses the general characteristics of the Spanish-speaking population in the United States, with particular attention to the diversity among them, some group profiles, and dialects and varieties of Spanish. The discussion then moves to questions teachers ask about the Spanish-speaking child, his or her language needs, and cultural differences. A third section addresses issues in contrastive linguistcs, language learning, pronunciation instruction, errors and why they occur, vocabulary learning, and the role of attitudes and motivation. The second part of the guide presents specific class activities for teaching sounds and pronunciation: stress rhythm, and intonation: morphology and syntax: and vocabulary. (AMH)

TEACHING THE SPANISH-SPEAKING CHILD

—A PRACTICAL GUIDE—

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PART I—BACKGROUND MATERIALS

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The Spanish-Speaking in the U.S.—General Characteristics

Who are the Spanish-speaking?

Almost every public urban school in this nation has one or more students whose first language is not English. If those urban centers are in the Southwest, the Midwest, along the West Coast, or in any one of several major centers along the East Coast, they contain a good many students for whom Spanish is the first language.

Approximately 28 million people in this country speak a language other than English, have a mother tongue other than English, or use another language as their primary means of communication in the home. Of these, about 15 million are Spanish-speaking and approximately one-third of them are children.[1] Yet, the varieties of Spanish that they speak, the degree they can also speak English, and their attitudes, values, and cultural patterns differ based on several interacting factors. Some of these are the length of residence in the United States, the degree of contact with English-speaking Americans, the numbers of new immigrants or residents arriving who speak Spanish as the first language, the degree of isolation from the English-speaking majority, and the number of Spanish speakers in a community.

Although the Spanish-speaking are a diverse group as a result of their varied origins, historic settlement and migration patterns, and present geographic locations, three major subgroups account for

[1] The 1970 Census estimates 9.6 million persons of "Spanish language," 9.3 million "persons of Spanish heritage," and 9.1 million "of Spanish origin." By 1974, the Census Bureau raised that estimate to 10.6 million, and by 1976 the estimate had risen to 15 million. With the 1980 Census using a more sophisticated form and attempting to survey all non-English-speaking Americans, we should have an even more accurate count.

about two-thirds of their total: the Mexican Americans, who make up about 45% (7 million); the Puerto Ricans, who number about 1.6 million; and the Cubans, who represent almost one million. (The Central and South Americans, taken together, constitute a group a little larger than the Cubans.)

The Mexican Americans, having by far the largest numbers and also the longest settlement in this country, have the greatest heterogeneity in their populations, with some who trace their ancestors back to the first Spanish settlement in New Mexico in 1598. The Puerto Ricans and Cubans are relatively recent immigrant groups, especially the Cubans. In 1975 approximately 80% of American Cubans were foreign born.

Less populous Spanish-speaking groups in North America are the Isleños, descendants of early colonists from the Canary Islands, who reside today in Louisiana; the Sephardic Jews or speakers of Dzhudezmo (Judeo-Spanish), who immigrated to the United States; and communities of Spanish-speaking immigrants from Spain and Central America (Washington, D.C., has a large population of Salvadoreans, Nicaraguans, etc.) and also from the Phillipines.

Of the 11.2 million Spanish speakers identified in the National Center for Educational Statistics study of the *Place of Birth and Language Characteristics of Persons of Hispanic Origin in the United States* (Spring 1976), 3 out of 4 were born in the continental United States or in Puerto Rico. All the Puerto Ricans were native born, with about an equal number born on the mainland as on the island. Only 21% of the Mexican Americans were born in Mexico; the rest were born here. The majority of Cubans and South and Central Americans living here, however, were born abroad.

As a population, American Hispanics have a median income (or did in 1977) that is greater than 30% less than the national average (according to the Department of Commerce's *Population Characteristics: Persons of Spanish Origin in the United States*, 1978). In education, as well, they as a group are below the national average. Although 3.7% of non-Hispanic Americans have less than 5 years of schooling, among those of Spanish origin the level is 18%. Only 39.65% of Hispanic Americans complete high school; 64.9% is the national average—only 6.2% complete four years of college, while the national average is 15.4%. And, of Hispanic Americans attending college, 80% attend community colleges. Only 13% of them complete the community college program and only 6% transfer to four-year institutions.

A great diversity

It would be a mistake to assume from the averages given above that all Hispanics in the United States share common socioeconomic,

political, or linguistic characteristics. Hispanics cover a broad spectrum in social class membership, education level, and language variety spoken. Hispanic Americans in this country comprise centuries-old settlements, such as those in the upper Rio Grande Valley of New Mexico and Colorado as well as communities of very recent immigrants typified by the Dominican community in Jackson Heights (Queens) in New York City.

Some Hispanic-American communities in the Southwest have a majority of members who are bilingual, although the English they speak may differ from the English spoken by non-Hispanics in the surrounding area. Other communities have few bilinguals, with a majority of speakers who use Spanish as their language. Still others have a majority of speakers for whom English is the first, and major, language.

Many Spanish-speaking Americans have lived in the United States for generations; for example, the stable Hispanic population—at least the adults—has been educated to some degree in English and thus may be bilingual or speak some English. Some may have even lost the ability to speak Spanish, although others, especially the women who have remained at home and some of the elderly, may not have learned English.

Thus, to be "Hispanic" (Hispanic American) may not even mean that someone speaks Spanish; the definition is shifting from a linguistic to an ethnic one. For example, the Hispanic American community in Ybor City (Tampa), Florida, which was established by Cuban immigrants around the turn of the century, has maintained Spanish as the first language until the past generation. Today, in most cases, English is the first language. Still, the Ybor City community is regarded as Hispanic American, even though its first language is no longer Spanish.

Perhaps the diversity can best be illustrated by the variety of names by which the Spanish-speaking call themselves: Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Latin Americans, Mexican Americans, Latins, Hispanos, Mexicans, Chicanos, Indo-Spanish, Indo-Americans, and Spanish, with corresponding forms in Spanish, except for the name "Spanish," which, according to A. Bruce Gaarder, "they never call themselves when speaking in that language." As Gaarder puts it, "The names matter a great deal since they affirm their group or ethnic identity" (*Bilingual Schooling and the Survival of Spanish in the United States*, 1977).

Although they may call themselves Hispanos, Chicanos, Latinos, Mexican Americans, or Mexicanos, depending on the region in which they live, their history, or their local customs, they still are united by a common ethnic background and a common (though varied) language. With radio, TV, and other communication, this common language forms an important bond among people who may reside

hundreds or thousands of miles apart. They live in many regions of the United States, but the majority inhabit the Southwest of this country and the industrial centers of the Midwest and the East.

The earliest settlements were in New Mexico (where some claim the first Spanish settlers as ancestors), Colorado, Arizona, and Texas. The first settler arrived in the sixteenth century, following the explorations of Francisco Coronado in 1540 and of Juan de Oñate in 1598. In the centuries that followed, what is now a border between the United States and Mexico meant very little, since people who crossed that "border" found a population on the other side that was similar—socially, politically, and linguistically—to the people on the other. By the eighteenth century, presidios and missions had been founded in California, and by the mid nineteenth century, 100,000 Spanish speakers (approximately) lived in the United States (northern territories).

Thus, there has been a long history of Hispano-Mexican culture in the Southwestern United States. One indication of that long history is the many newspapers (daily, weekly, semi-monthly) published in Spanish in the Southwest between 1848 and 1942 (compiled by Herminio Rios and Lupe Castillo in *El Grito* 3:4, pp. 17-24, Summer, 1970).

Brief group profiles

The Mexican Americans— By far the largest group of Spanish-speaking Americans is the Mexican Americans, who represent approximately 45% of the 15 million Spanish-speaking Americans. Some Mexican Americans view themselves as ethnically one with the people of Mexico (and thus having origins there as Native Americans, many thousands of years ago); others as having their origins with the Spanish who first explored the American Southwest in the sixteenth century.

The Mexican Americans are the most heterogeneous group of Hispanics and may come from all classes, may have been living in this country for a long or short time, and may have varying amounts of education in Spanish. As Fernando Peñalosa explains, "It may safely be asserted that the concept or construct 'Mexican-American population' as ordinarily found in the sociological literature frequently manifests a significant gap with empirical reality. . . . Existentially there is no Mexican-American community as such, nor is there such a 'thing' as Mexican-American culture. The group is fragmentized socially, culturally, ideologically, and organizationally. It is characterized by extremely important social-class, regional, and rural-urban differences" (Peñalosa 1971, "Chicano Multilingualism and Multiglossia," ERIC Document ED 056 590).

An important date in Mexican-American history is 1848—the

year that the Treaty of Guadelupe Hidalgo was signed after the war between Mexico and the United States. That treaty resulted in the U.S. annexation of a large section of Mexico that now makes up much of the American Southwest.

The majority of Mexican Americans live in California, Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Texas, but there are large concentrations also in Illinois, Michigan, Kansas City, and other locations. Mexican-American communities are predominantly located in the cities of Los Angeles, El Paso, San Antonio, and Chicago; there are some Mexican Americans who live in rural settings and small towns.

Although they are often viewed (erroneously) as a homogeneous group, since they are Spanish-speaking, Catholic, and Hispanic, "they are notably heterogeneous in every respect, and this is increasingly true," according to Bruce Gaarder (*Bilingual Schooling . . .*, 1977).[2]

It is difficult to define who is a Mexican American. Is it someone with ancestors in Mexico? With a Spanish surname? Who is ethnically Hispanic? Mexican Americans may be referred to or refer to themselves as Chicanos, Mexican Americans, or Mexicanos. (The term Chicano is a popular one. There is no certainty as to the origin of the term, but it is probably a form of "mexicano" originally used as an in-group name for lower-class Mexican American youth. Because it may have had that origin, some adults shun the use of the term, while others, especially youths, use it proudly.) There are many Spanish-surnamed individuals who are not bilingual, Spanish-dominant, or do not even speak Spanish. There are Mexican Americans in some parts of the country who do not speak any Spanish but claim to be "Chicano." Individual Mexican Americans also differ in the degree of acculturation to "general American culture." For example, the urban California Chicanos are the most acculturated, and many use English as their language of written communication (probably because they were also educated in English) and also as a result of the urban influences. The very recent arrivals, such as the Mexican Americans in the Boyles Heights area in East Los Angeles, use Spanish as their only language of communication and are relatively unassimilated.

[2] Yolanda Lastra de Suárez points out, however (in *El Lenguaje de los Chicanos*, edited by Eduardo Hernández-Chavez, Andrew D. Cohen, and Anthony F. Beltramo, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975; hereafter, *El Lenguaje . . .*) that the differences between the variety of Spanish spoken by Chicano children in Los Angeles and that spoken by Mexicans is not so different as to require special texts (except for an obvious need to make these materials culturally relevant to the Los Angeles child) and Standard Mexican Spanish could be used as the language of instruction in a bilingual program without much problem for the children (just as standard English can be used, with linguistically sensitive and trained teachers, with those students who speak a nonstandard variety).

The Hispanics of New Mexico represent a long, influential, and stable population. New Mexico's laws are written in both Spanish and English. Residents there have the right to be tried or to defend themselves in either Spanish or English (Cárdenas, in *El Lenguaje*, 1975). The Spanish spoken in this region shows the least overlap with the rest, since it has gone through a long period of isolation. Many of these citizens claim to descend directly from the Spanish settlers. Because of their relative isolation (geographic, social, and cultural) from other Spanish speakers, they speak a Spanish that may be "archaic" in character. As Cárdenas explains it, they use words that are Castilian in origin, but that have fallen into disuse elsewhere. As a result of their geographic location, they have preserved much of their Hispanic culture and have tended to remain less assimilated.

The Puerto Ricans— The second largest Hispanic group after the Mexican Americans is the Puerto Ricans, who number at least 2 million in the continental United States, but who probably represent a larger group because of the continual shifting to and from the island of Puerto Rico (Puerto Ricans are citizens of the United States who may travel from island to mainland, and vice versa, freely).

They are concentrated in the Northeastern cities of New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania. There are also populations in Chicago and in other cities and states across the country—Lorain, Ohio, for example, has a stable population of Puerto-Rican Americans that has retained its bilingual character, with new immigrants from Puerto Rico continuing to arrive.

Although they are Spanish-speaking and Hispanic in culture, the Puerto Ricans differ from the other Spanish speakers in being an ethnic composite of several different groups, including the Jíbaros (an indigenous culture of Puerto Rico) and African immigrants to the island. Although many come to the mainland U.S. because of the limited economic resources and because of the dense population on the island, they retain their Spanish. There is a strong trend to bilingualism on the island, with respect for Spanish, which is the official language of education, law, religion, government, and the press. There is, however, a large program of English as a second language in the schools and a strong desire to acquire English for employment on the mainland. Perhaps because of the importance of English and the contact with it, the Spanish spoken by many Puerto Ricans shows a strong English influence.

Puerto Ricans speak two varieties of Spanish. Those who have recently arrived from the island speak a Spanish similar to that spoken on the island. Those who have been here for some time, or who acquired their Spanish here, speak a heavily English-influenced Spanish.

According to Gaarder (1977), the Puerto Rican population in this

country has both middle and economically depressed classes, with a strong tradition of education in Spanish.

The Cubans— The third largest group of Spanish speakers is concentrated mostly in Florida and the Southeast, although some Northeastern cities have small enclaves and other small communities exist as well. In a recent (1976) National Center for Educational Statistics survey, 80% of the .7 million Cubans in the U.S. were born abroad.

In 1898 Cuba came under U.S. influence, but in 1959, with the triumph of the Cuban revolution, a large-scale emigration to the U.S., especially to Florida, of Cuba's educated upper and middle classes began. Cubans established newspapers and magazines and created a number of organizations designed to preserve the prestige of Cuban culture and language. In the early 1960s they introduced bilingual education in the Miami (Dade County) schools and formed stable, middle class communities of Spanish speakers.

Cubans, whether immigrants or born here, are for the most part a middle class group with a strong tradition of education. (In fact, there are many teachers among the Cubans.)

Some Cubans who live in Miami or Union City are recent arrivals from Cuba and share a strong Spanish-language tradition. The communities in Ybor City (Tampa) and Chelsea (New York City), on the other hand, have been here for many generations and speak English. The Cubans in Ybor City, which was established by immigrants around the turn of the century, have acculturated almost totally. Up until the past generation, Spanish was maintained as the first language in the community, but in most cases today, English is the first language. (There will still be some people, however, who don't speak English). The newest arrivals among the Cuban refugees bring several differences from previous Cubans as a result of the influences of Fidel Castro on that country.

The Latin Americans— At least 1 million Spanish speakers come from various parts of Central and South America, including Nicaragua, El Salvador, and Venezuela. They are generally dispersed throughout the United States, with small groups in several large cities, such as New York City, Washington, D.C., and San Francisco, as well as the area (megalopolis) surrounding these cities.

They vary in social class and education. Many are similar to the Cubans, coming from a middle class environment with substantial education. Others come seeking economic or political relief and have had their (often limited) education in Spanish.

The Colombians in Queens (New York City) and the Central Americans in the District of Columbia are generally very recent arrivals who speak only Spanish (with a few English words needed

on their jobs) and who remain largely separate from the majority Anglo culture.

Sixty-nine percent of Latin Americans of Central and South American heritage (69% of the 1.3 million in the 1976 NCES survey) were born abroad.

Dialects and varieties of Spanish

Although there are 15 million Americans who speak Spanish as a first language, the variety of Spanish any one person speaks may have significant differences from other Spanish varieties. Daniel Cárdenas (in *El Lenguaje*. . . . 1975) identifies four varieties of Spanish—Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Peninsular—as well as four subvarieties of Mexican Spanish found in this country: Texas, New Mexico, Southern Colorado, Arizona, and California. Those Mexican Americans who live closest to the border, where there is constant interaction with the Mexicans in Northern Mexico, are likely to have the greatest similarities in their speech.

These varieties of Spanish are like varieties of English, and are not corruptions of the Spanish spoken in Spain; they share features with other varieties of Spanish spoken around the world. In fact, they are different primarily in the combinations of features or proportions of these features. Obviously there will be some differences in vocabulary, a result of interaction with an English-speaking population or of relative isolation (either geographic, social, or cultural) from other Spanish speakers. (The political and economic dominance of the Anglos, as well as the early schooling in English, has resulted in a number of lexical borrowings into Spanish.)

Just as there are unfortunate (and inaccurate) epithets to refer to varieties of English, there are also appellations for some varieties of Spanish spoken in this country. For example, *pocho* is a term that was originally applied by Mexicans to refer to the "cut-off" or "corrupted" Spanish spoken by Mexican Americans who often used anglicisms or other nonstandard features. Today, ironically, "pocho" has become a term that may be used proudly by Chicanos to refer not only to their own variety of Spanish, but also to the rapid code-switching (alternate Spanish and English) that they use.

The mixture of English words in the Spanish spoken in the United States is not unlike the inclusion of a number of words from French, Spanish, and other languages that have been borrowed and become part of English. When these words are given Spanish pronunciations (just as *canyon* has been anglicized so that it is no longer pronounced [ka-ñón]—the Spanish pronunciation—but [kǽn-yən]) that is evidence that they have become part of the Spanish variety. Languages change (if they didn't, they would cease to live) often because of contact with other languages. Similar borrowings of

Spanish words into English can also be found in American English—e.g., *tornado, canoe, cigar, torpedo, patio,* and *plaza.*

One of the reasons for the differences in the varieties of Spanish is the nature and degree of contact with other language groups. For example, the Mexican Americans were influenced not only by English, but also by Native American languages; the Isleños (Louisiana), not only by English, but also by French. And, in some cases, the Spanish spoken has features from the various Spanish language varieties spoken by immigrants coming from a number of South or Central American countries. Unfortunately, we have few descriptions of these varieties of Spanish that would be useful for teachers, except for Chicano Spanish, and only a few descriptions of the English of the Spanish-mother-tongue child.

In a 1966 study of *Language Loyalty in the United States,* Joshua Fishman concludes that the Hispanics have "maintained" their language in the United States and, for a variety of reasons, will continue to do so. As Gilbert Gleen puts it, Spanish is one of the "few non-English languages in the United States [that] has survived well enough into the present to merit a linguistic atlas" (*Actes du Xe Congrès International des Linguistes* 10:2, pp. 203-208, 1969-1970).

The proximity of Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Cuba, as well as the frequent influx of immigrants from Spanish-speaking areas helps maintain Spanish. Family and ethnic ties with other Spanish speakers in Mexico and Puerto Rico, especially, help keep Spanish strong as a language of ethnic identity, of the home and family, and (with the decline of Latin in the Catholic Mass), as the language of the church as well. Robert DiPietro (in Robert P. Fox, Editor, *Essays on Teaching English as a Second Language and as a Second Dialect,* NCTE, 1973) points out that "Since the speaker of Spanish in the United States need not suffer the total break with his home culture that characterizes the immigrant European, Spanish-English bilingualism is not likely to be as transitory as that involving other languages with English."

Summary

As can be seen, the Spanish-speaking in this country reflect a wide sociolinguistic diversity—speaking a number of different varieties of Spanish, having differing degrees of language contact and bilingualism, and exhibiting different sociocultural patterns. Although they share a common ethnic pride, they should not be viewed in monolithic terms. Their acquisition of English, their degree of assimilation or acculturation, and their retention of Spanish will vary. They represent a group with long-standing traditions and a heritage that educators should value and respect.

The Spanish-Speaking Child—Questions Teachers Ask

In this section we will explore some typical questions of teachers of children who speak a different language, in particular questions about Spanish-speaking children. Although children who speak Spanish as their mother tongue will need to learn English to complete their education and function fully in the English-speaking society of the United States, when they do acquire English they will have an advantage over monolingual English-speaking children for they will speak two languages—they will be "bilingual."

Are Spanish-speaking students disadvantaged?

Spanish-speaking children, like speakers of nonstandard English dialects (such as Black English or Appalachian English) have often been labeled "deprived," "alingual," or "nonverbal"; in short, their language has been viewed as a disadvantage, one that has to be compensated for in their education through the teaching of English. "These children are said to have enormous difficulty expressing themselves verbally in many situations," and as a result, some people "have gone to great lengths to demonstrate and explain the supposed verbal and cognitive deficiencies which resulted from their 'deprived culture' and environment. Supposedly, linguistic deprivation becomes evident when these children first enter school. Consequently, there has arisen a rather firm belief that 'disadvantaged' children are basically inarticulate, that they lack the verbal ability so important in reading and eventual school success" (Ernest García, in *El Lenguaje...*, 1975).

But the fallacy of this kind of reasoning has been exposed. Because a linguistic system is different, it is not worse, haphazard,

illogical, or deficient; it is simply different from the school language. These children are able to function in their own language. They come to school with a highly developed linguistic system capable of expressing their needs and ideas. That system is Spanish. Anyone who has listened to these children playing in the school yard or talking with their friends before or after class would be assured that these children are verbal. They possess a well-developed language of their own that meets their needs and enables them to communicate with one another in the same way that English does for their middle-class Anglo counterpart.

Why, then, are so many Spanish-speaking children labeled and treated as deprived? Precisely because their language is not the language of the majority or the one required by the schools and, as a result, is often considered less valuable than English. Thus if they are "deprived," it is not through fault of their own, but that of an educational system that may reject them, their language, their culture, or their traditions. They do need to learn English, but their own language should be respected and recognized as a major world language spoken throughout Central and South America, Spain, and in the United States. It is that language through which they have had their social and cognitive development up to their entrance into the English-speaking environment of the school. That language represents the child's home, family, and own identity; it is the carrier of his or her traditions and culture. It is also the language of all learning of the child before school. If we reject the child's language, we are rejecting much of the child's culture and ultimately, the child's sense of identity.

Teachers need to create an atmosphere of respect for the child's language and culture in the classroom, while at the same time helping that child to acquire the English he or she needs to continue in an English-speaking school.

It's ironic that while many Americans view the acquisition of a foreign language as a sign of an educated person, and as such to be admired, they regard children who come to school with this resource as "disadvantaged" or "educationally deprived."

How much English can I expect the Spanish-speaking child to know?

The degree the child understands or speaks English will be determined by a number of factors, including the amount of interaction that child (and family) have had with English speakers, the attitudes that the family and child(ren) have toward the use of Spanish and English (perhaps other siblings have already begun attending school), the length of stay in the United States (resident or immigrant); and the contact with other Spanish speakers.

For example, a child from a family who has lived for generations in the United States may have parents who have been educated in English (in the past, English was the only medium of instruction), or who have acquired English through their work and have encouraged their children to speak English to foster socioeconomic mobility and success in school. Another child, however, if he or she comes from a family of recent immigrants that has had little formal education or has been educated in Spanish, or if the child lives in a community where most contacts are with Spanish-speaking children, relatives, and friends, may have little understanding of English.

Monolingual Spanish speakers often reside in barrios; within the barrios Spanish is used almost exclusively. Yet loyalty to Spanish appears to decline in metropolitan areas in direct proportion to length of residence in the U.S., so a speaker's degree of bilingualism can vary over time as can the degree of bilingualism within a family. For example, in one family of six children and their bilingual parents, the parents used Spanish more than the children, especially in talking about church and movies. Children used more Spanish at home with their elders than they did with their brothers and sisters. They used more English at school. Children who speak Spanish to their peers may identify with traditional ethnic social relationships. Speaking English may imply identification with the dominant Anglo-American patterns of social relationships. Children who speak both English and Spanish may be in the process of transition within one ethnically subdivided community.

In a study of "bilingualism within one family," Donald M. Lance (*TESOL Quarterly* 4:4, pp. 343-352, 1970) found that the children in the family would not speak Spanish with him or with the research team's bilingual Mexican-American family. They would speak Spanish with their family, but outside of the "immediate family environment" they spoke English. As Lance explains it, "their contact with the surrounding community [of Bryan, Texas] as a whole has apparently conditioned them to consider English as the appropriate medium of communication outside the immediate family environment, and any deviation from this expectation is so anomalous as to impede natural linguistic performance on their part."

Moreover, even within the same family, the children may use varying amounts of English or Spanish. (In one Hispanic family in Washington with six daughters, one child spoke only Spanish at home and only English at school; another used only English in both places, though she could understand Spanish, etc.)

Yet the degree to which bilingual children use English does not necessarily correlate with their English proficiency. Although some children use mostly English with their peers when discussing school, they tend to be more proficient in Spanish when talking

about their home (life). It appears that proficiency in English suffers most in the domain of familiarity.

Further, a child may understand a language and choose not to speak it: thus, even a Spanish-surnamed child who understands Spanish may refuse to speak it for fear of ridicule or out of a desire to be "the same as" his or her schoolmates. A teenager who understands and can use English may refuse to do so, also avoiding American cultural ways for fear of being referred to as *agringados* ('gringo-like') (Janet B. Sawyer's study of San Antonio in *El Lenguaje . . .*, 1975).

More than census data and school records are necessary to determine if a child is dominant in Spanish. A teacher needs to find out what language the child uses with parents and what language parents use with him or her; what language the child uses with siblings; what language the child uses with friends (during recess, on the way to school, in games). The teacher should also find out how well the child uses the language and in what modes (reading, speaking, writing, or simply understanding—listening).

It is also important to find out the community's and the parents' attitudes toward Spanish and English (and other languages). What do they view as the appropriate setting, topic, or "domain" for each language? Is there a neighborhood or small community of Spanish speakers?

If the child is the only Spanish-speaking child in the classroom, that child will rapidly acquire English, since to interact with peers the child will have to understand English and speak it. Nancy Modiano (in Muriel Saville-Troike, Editor, *Bilingual Children: A Resource Document*, CAL, 1973) says that under those conditions, the child may even 'catch up' with agemates in English proficiency in only a few years. However, if there are many Spanish-speaking children in the school and if they play together out of class and go home to an ethnic neighborhood where Spanish is usually spoken, it won't be as easy for the child to become fully proficient in English, and it may take more years and some concentrated instruction.

As pointed out, a child who has a Spanish surname may be monolingual in English, monolingual in Spanish, or have some degree of control over both languages. It is important not to assume that a child who has a Spanish surname necessarily speaks Spanish, understands Spanish, or is bilingual or Spanish-dominant. Many children have grandparents who spoke only Spanish, and yet will speak only English when they come to school, perhaps as a result of their parents' concern for their children's success in school and in the world of work. Second generation immigrants in this country often grow up mastering (or attempting to master) English and raising

their children only in English.

What will test results tell me about the Spanish-speaking student?

The major problem that arises from testing is that one cannot judge the results of most tests because of their built-in cultural and linguistic bias. There is no *verbal* measure of intelligence that is reliable for children with different backgrounds. For example, a test that asks for recognition of vocabulary items such as *tractor* and *pony* is culturally invalid for children who don't have these items in their (often urban) environment. Even worse, however, is the demand placed on these children to produce English words for things that they know in Spanish. For example, the language they use with their parents and relatives is Spanish, so they will know *padre, madre,* or *casa* rather than *father, mother,* or *home.*

The testing situation is even more complicated for children who speak some English since their dialect may differ from the standard English required by the test. Puerto Ricans living in New York, for example, may have features of Black English in their speech and will be penalized on most standard English tests. These nonstandard speakers of English may use different rules for forming the negative: "He didn't do nothing"—which though it may sound like "bad English " is perfectly acceptable and systematic in his language. (Remember that Spanish and other Romance languages routinely use "double negatives," such as *No hay nada* or *No hizo nada*—"There isn't nothing" or "He didn't do nothing.") Clearly children will need to learn the standard English forms; however, their use of nonstandard should, obviously, not be equated with intelligence (or lack of it).

There is a need for tests for placement, but we should realize that the conclusions these provide are only tentative. A test may be really measuring the amount of English a child knows or it may be measuring the child's socioeconomic background. It may be invalid for other reasons as well. For example, if a child fails to repeat a long sentence, it may be the child's memory rather than language ability that is responsible. A child who doesn't talk is not alingual or slow, but may be shy or may not want to speak in front of a strange adult or answer artificial questions that the interviewer already knows the answers to. Some of the criteria that we can use in effective language tests for children would be the following. If tests must be given, they will be more reliable if: the teacher gives the test; the test is short; the atmosphere is pleasant; and the child's language is used to explain directions and get information. Language tests can probably best tell us what a child does know, but are not very reli-

able indicators of what a child doesn't know.

Also, these tests, with minority children or children from a lower socioeconomic group, are often invalid largely because of the test situation, that is, the administration of the test and the types of responses called for. When the elicitation conditions are changed, there is often a radical improvement in response for these children. Tests can be threatening and frightening; children who are afraid may choose not to answer. Tests have been used in the past to deny people access rather than accurately assess their abilities. Thus, formal tests and interviews don't and can't be used to judge the verbal ability of bilinguals.

Is there really any relationship between bilingualism and intelligence? Is bilingualism a cognitive "handicap"? Norman Segalowitz, in his "Psychological Perspectives on Bilingual Education" (in Bernard Spolsky and Robert L. Cooper, Editors, *Frontiers of Bilingual Education*, 1977), found no evidence that "memory, reasoning ability, or other verbally-based cognitive functions are imapired by bilingualism." The brain is capable of storing and handling many languages equally well as one. The reason some bilingual children have performed poorly on verbal tests is a direct result of the problems discussed earlier: a failure to take different linguistic factors into consideration, to control for socioeconomic differences, and to help children who are not familiar with test-taking procedures to function in a test-taking environment. Bilingual children do not perform differently from monolingual children when both have been given nonverbal tests.

Quite to the contrary, recent research indicates that bilingualism may be a marked cognitive advantage because it enables the child to display more verbal flexibility, and as a result, enhances the child's creativity. Children who can choose from two languages have greater creative potential. In fact, children who are able to use both languages proficiently score higher on both verbal and nonverbal tests of intelligence and display greater mental flexibility than their monolingual counterparts.

If bilingualism were a handicap, why do the upper classes in most other countries—the governing elite and intellectual elite—want their children to be bilingual and even multilingual and have, accordingly, given the acquisition of these skills an emphasis in their education?

Rather than looking to bilingualism as the cause of a child's poor performance on a verbal test, we need to look instead at the school environment, and the test itself, and find more appropriate measures of the child's ability.

More specifically, what are some of the dangers of using linguistically biased tests with the Spanish-speaking community?

Unfortunately, because these linguistically biased tests have been used with Spanish-speaking children, some people have come to the erroneous conclusion that these bilingual (Spanish-speaking) children are less intelligent than their monolingual (English-speaking) peers.

Because of the biases of the measures used to evaluate verbal ability, many Spanish speakers have been incorrectly identified as retarded or slow learners. In January 1970 the California State Assembly passed Resolution No. 444, to investigate protests from Mexican Americans that a disproportionate number of children from the Hispanic community were assigned to classes for the mentally retarded. At that time, there were approximately 85,000 children in California classified as educable mental retardates and placed in special classes. Although California's Spanish-surnamed people constituted only 13% of the state's population, 26% of the people assigned to classes for the mentally retarded had Spanish surnames. Because of this statistical imbalance, investigators looked into the cases of 47 randomly selected Spanish-speaking "retarded children." These students were re-examined in the Spanish language by competent Spanish-speaking psychologists. Forty-two of the 47 scored well above the IQ score for the retarded; 37 scored 75% or higher, and more than half scored 80% or above. In February 1970, the United States District Court ruled that, from that point on, school officials would be required to explain any disproportionate assignment of Spanish-speaking children to classes for mental retardates and to have IQ tests prepared and normed to the California Spanish-speaking population. Children were to be tested in both Spanish and English and allowed to respond in either tongue. If we look closely, we will find that it is the use of English language tests, such as an English IQ test, that can promote bias.

Performance test scores can rise dramatically when tests are administered in the native tongue by speakers of that language in a context fair to these children, and when the tests are based on appropriate social and cultural information. The Stanford-Binet (the most common IQ test) is based on specific social and cultural contexts that are not shared by non-Anglo children.

The point, then, is that cultural bias and language bias in these tests often renders their findings virtually useless; in fact, they may be very damaging to the children when they set up self-fulfilling prophesies, and can even lead to the children eventually dropping out of school.

How much English will the child need to know?

A child who speaks Spanish needs Spanish to function at home, in

the neighborhood or family or church, perhaps, but that child also needs English to function in an English-speaking context of education and business. These children will need English to complete an education, to get a job and keep it, and to function in many English-only contexts. They not only need English; they will need many "Englishes." That is, they will also have a need to understand and be able to employ the differences of informal and formal speaking and writing. They need an "elaborated code," which will enable them to write papers and explain things to people who do not share the same experience and values. They will need to learn how to be more explicit and not to assume that others understand since they share the same social information. We all use a more restricted form of language and speech when dealing with people we know well, people who share the same background information, but we all need to be taught the less personal, more formal English elaborated code, which is required for school success (especially test-taking), and for adult success.

What are some of the educational consequences of speaking a different language?

If the Spanish-speaking child has problems understanding his teacher, he probably will not do well in some of his school work, not because he is incapable of doing the work, but because he doesn't understand (spoken or written) English or can't use (speak or write) English sufficiently well. Thus, the child may be viewed as less intelligent or "inferior." This erroneous assumption can be doubly damaging, since negative attitudes about the child's language and his intelligence often result in a self-fulfulling prophecy. As pointed out previously, many expect these children to do poorly and to test as less intelligent. The children, influenced by their teacher's attitudes, do indeed fail. That's why some school districts have disporportionate numbers of Hispanics, or Asians, or black nonstandard English speakers in their "slow" reading groups or other developmental programs. Why this percentage? Is it because these children have real learning difficulties or is it because of the teachers' style with culturally and linguisticaly different children labeled "slow"? In some classroom observations of teachers of "slow" children, the teachers have been found to concentrate on the alphabet, the spelling of individual words, and on grammar, letting the children speak only when called on, discouraging any unsolicited remarks, and correcting pronunciation errors, even interrupting a child's thoughts. Thus, the whole situation can become artificial, threatening, and boring. The children concentrate on learning how to psych-out the teacher rather than on the reading process. With

"normal" (not labeled "slow") groups, however, the teachers made reading sessions a group activity, with children volunteering answers, and not fearing pronunciation correction. The teachers' animated and natural style encouraged children to respond.

Because teachers (along with employers, clergy, and others) are the 'gatekeepers' of our society who hold the key to socioeconomic mobility, it is important that teachers respect all children and help them acquire English, while still helping them to retain pride in their language and home, their traditions and culture. Otherwise these children may feel inferior and may lose the possibility of achieving the educational growth and socioeconomic mobility they, or their parents, desire.

Teachers can work to foster a positive self-concept by recognizing and accepting the child's home language. As J. Donald Bowen says, "There is ample evidence to support the fact that the value of self-respect and identity that accompanies the comfortable acceptance of one's personal linguistic situation is appropriate and normal." Spanish-speaking children, like all of us, need the security and self-assurance that they occupy a position of respect in the community, and that their particular subcommunity makes a valid and acceptable contribution to the larger society. "When this self-respect is lost or denied, the result is discouragement, apathy, frustration or anger" (Bowen, *Studies in Language and Linguistics*, University of Texas at El Paso, 1971).

If teachers reject a child's language, the child may view himself as being rejected as well. When a teacher changes a Hispanic name to an Anglo counterpart, the teacher may be unwillingly hurting the child's self-concept (Arturo Luis Gutiérrez, in *Proceedings of the National Conference on Bilingual Education*, (Austin, TX) Dissemination Center for Bilingual Bicultural Education, 1972).

Such practices as correcting papers in class and calling out grades, or tracking students into groups of slow and fast learners contributes to negative self-image; so can undue emphasis on the differences between children. Although Spanish-speaking children may need to be given special attention through English-as-a-second-language classes or tutoring for part of the school day, they should be involved with English-speaking children for most of their school activities. Better yet, they should be viewed as valuable resources and the other children should be encouraged to learn some Spanish from them while they, in turn, are learning English from their English-speaking peers.

How do children acquire their first language?

Children everywhere in the world acquire language in basically

the same sequence. By the age of three, children have acquired most of the sounds of their language. In fact, as early as six months they have produced most of them. Some of these sounds will be later lost as the child concentrates on those sounds that are distinctive in his or her language.

We know that children as early as 18 months speak just for pleasure. We also know that they do not merely imitate the people around them; they understand and create their own utterances. They hypothesize and practice using rules of their language that increasingly mirror or approximate those of their parents or relatives. It may appear miraculous, but by 5 or 6, children control most of the basic grammatical structures in their language, though they will continue to learn some of these as they attend school. Of course, they will continue to add vocabulary throughout their lifetime.

Children neither learn the rules of their language nor apply them in any conscious way. In fact, many of the underlying principles by which children unconsciously acquire language are universal—they apply to all languages, including the sign language of the deaf. Children also learn those features specific to their language or languages. They don't learn them by memorizing rules but by unconsciously writing the rules of language as they intuit them. They change the rules as the original hypothesis and rules prove inadequate. Most errors a child makes in language are not usually idiosyncratic but are of the same type as those made by children of other language communities in the same stage of development.

Although the child will continue to speak the language of his parents at home as he gets older, his peer group will become more important and he will speak the way others in his peer group do. In fact, teenagers may avoid speaking like their teachers and families because they don't want to be regarded as similar to them or as part of another group.

Do children acquire a second language in the same way as the first?

Children acquire their first language as they develop cognitively. Much of this acquisition reflects conceptual development and children's desire and need to communicate with those around them. Second language acquisition however, even for the very young child, will differ from first language acquisition. When we acquire our mother tongue it's because we have a need and desire to find a way to communicate: to ask questions, to give information, to get what we need or want. Naturally, this need is not so great in the second language unless those around us (in a new setting) cannot understand our first language. Then we may have a strong motivation to acquire a second language, especially if that will open up new

worlds—for example our school—to us. A child will learn a second language if he or she has a need to communicate in that language and an opportunity to use it. If two languages are spoken around children they will learn these both, if they have sufficient exposure to each and if they identify with people who speak each of them.

Children and adults differ in second language acquisition, according to Susan Ervin-Tripp ("Becoming a Bilingual," ERIC Document ED 018 786, 1968), because children "find it easier to acculturate, to adapt, and to join the new linguistic group than do adults who fear loss of group and individual identity." Children attend to the sounds of the language, enjoy playing rhyming games, or singing even nonsense words. Adults are more concerned with the meaning of what they are saying. Children are not interested in learning the "rules of the language" whereas adults want to know why something is said one way or another. Children relate more to the immediate context or environment than adults who often think about things that aren't here and now. Children enjoy rote memorization; adults prefer problem-solving. Children learn new words through sensory activity; adults generally learn them in verbal context. Children make linguistic abstractions themselves; adults may want have them presented in a logical form. And, children are less subject to interference from their first language than are adults.

As a result of these differences, children acquire a second language much more rapidly than adults. Some scholars (Eric Lenneberg, *Biological Foundations of Language*, 1967, among them) believe that around the age of 12, the brain goes through a process called "lateralization," in which linguistic flexibility is lost. Others (Stephen Krashen, for example, "The Monitor Theory of Second-Language Acquisition," in R.C. Gingras, Editor, *Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching*, CAL, 1978) believe children acquire language more rapidly than adults as the result of differences in motivation and attitude. Still others believe that cultural factors may be more important than biological ones. Certainly, the conditions under which children learn a second language differ from those of an adult, but no one has been able to discover the exact language learning skills children have that diminish with age. Moreover, studies directly comparing adults and children, though rare, have not found children to be superior to adults in language learning ability. It may be that children acquire better mastery of pronunciation simply because they spend more time learning a second language. Perhaps learning two languages simultaneously might be easier since semantic and syntactic networks in the first language haven't been solidified and don't have to be redefined for the second language. Motivation indeed accounts for some of the variance in language achievement. One difference is that children usually have an immediate need and a strong motivation to acquire

the second language. For adults, the need is often more remote and the motivation is less immediate.

The social environmental aspects of the learning situation are also important. Street learning may be superior to classroom instruction. A classroom has difficulty providing the whole range of such sociolinguistic situations as a variety of speakers, contexts, and roles that one would encounter naturally unless great pains are taken to simulate natural settings and to make the language practice both relevant and meaningful.

Personality variables play an important role also. The more authoritarian personality type is less likely to identify with a language group different from his or her own and be motivated to acquire a second language. Moreover, an adult or teenager who has a fully developed sense of identity, wrapped up in language and culture, might view the acquisition of a second language as threatening. The adult may subconsciously fear giving up or losing some identity in learning this second language. Children are less likely to have such fears.

Successful bilingualism usually involves highly positive feelings toward the other group, with social, historical, and political factors all playing a part. Optimal language learning occurs when people need or want to exchange information and use another language to communicate with people who speak that language. A classroom situation can simulate an optimum learning situation when it enables people to communicate thoughts and feelings that are important to them. With children, the need is already there, and what teachers have to do is allow it to happen. With adults, the teacher needs to create more opportunities for real conversation and language use.

What exactly is a language variety, a dialect?

All languages consist of patterns of elements that are combined in systematic ways. Speakers create new sentences by using rules—rules that are largely unconscious. Just as languages are systematic, so are all dialects or varieties of a language, although their rules may differ. A so-called standard dialect is one that has general-use grammars and dictionaries. It is the one used by the socially dominant class, and by the majority of network broadcast announcers. Nonstandard dialects (such as those spoken by many inner-city youth and minority children) are every bit as regular and rule-bound as the standard but have not been codified in reference dictionaries or grammars.

Languages have different kinds of dialects. There are regional varieties: for example, compare Southern English with the English

spoken in New York or Boston. There are also historical varieties such as Old English, Middle English, and the English of the present day. And, there are social varieties that reflect differences in socio-economic status; compare the speech of the upper middle class easterner with that of inner-city black youth. In fact, social varieties differ not only among classes, but also among ages and between sexes of these groups. All of these varieties are fully systematic and regular. They are not "bad" forms of the language—the most that can be said is that some varieties are more 'acceptable' (and the converse, some are more stigmatized) than others.

In fact, we all use several varieties of our language at different times depending on what we are talking about, where we are, and the people we are talking to. The way we speak to a minister or psychologist is different from the way we speak to our next-door neighbor. We even speak differently to our families in private and in public. All the varieties we use comprise our linguistic competence; this stylistic variation enables us to act appropriately in different situations.

What is code switching and why is it important to understand it?

Code switching is the alternating use of two languages, at the word, phrase, or clause level. Essentially, it is the introduction of words, phrases, or clauses from the one language into a sentence or speech containing another language. For example (Guadalupe Valdés-Fallis, *Code Switching and the Classroom Teacher*, CAL, 1978),

"Well, I kept starting some como por un mes.
Todos los días escribo y ya dejo.
Last week empiecé otra vez."

Translation: "Well, I kept starting some for about a month.
I write every day and then I stop.
Last week I started again."

Code switching is a verbal strategy using the resources of the bilingual community. In code switching the words are pronounced exactly as the native speaker of that language would pronounce them and the syntax is as a native speaker would have it. This is different from language mixing. An example of language mixing would be "Los muchachos estan puchando la troca," where *puchando* is the English word *push* plus *-ando*, the participial ending from Spanish, and *la troca* is an English word *truck* that has been assimilated into the Spanish linguistic system. In code switching, however, these words would appear exactly as they would be found in the original language. For example: "Los muchachos were pushing the truck." A bilingual child may talk about his family, relatives, or home in his first language (Spanish) but switch codes into English

when talking about school subjects. He may also switch from Spanish when moving from a private conversation with very close bilingual (or Spanish-speaking) friends to English when an Anglo joins them or when the conversation becomes more public. Adult bilinguals often code-switch (perhaps unconsciously) to convey group solidarity. For example, two bilinguals when speaking together in English may punctuate their conversation with "ándale pues," as a sign of their group identity. An employer and an employee may talk about their work in one language but switch to another when discussing more casual topics. Even university students and their professors in many parts of the world exhibit this type of code switching.

Code switching allows bilinguals a unique opportunity to convey information simply by changing languages (people who speak only one language often do this by shifting styles). Furthermore, code switching can be an additional stylistic device—the choice of language may add color, emphasis, or contrast. For example, there is no exact English equivalent of *simpático*, and two bilinguals speaking English may use *simpático* to convey that special meaning.

The alternation between two languages is natural and normal. The use of two languages in a bilingual community is as systematic as the use of one language in a monolingual community. The bilingual knows which language and what variety of it to use with whom, under what conditions, and with what degree of formality. Rather than being a haphazard mixing of two languages, it actually follows explicit rules governing the appropriate use of both languages. The language and usage norms of a bilingual community differ from either of the communities in which one of the languages is solely spoken. It may not be possible to predict when code switching will occur; however, it is usually not difficult to determine the meaning when it does and to identify the constraints that were operating.

Children acquire the ability to switch languages as they are acquiring both of their languages: it is part of their communicative competence. By age 9, many use this switching as a verbal strategy to signal important social or stylistic information. They have resources from both languages, and use them.

When children are acquiring a second language, it is possible that they will mix elements from their first language into their second. For example, one Spanish speaker may pronounce "school" as "eschool" since this would be compatible with Spanish rules of pronunciation (cf. 'especial' for 'special,' 'España for 'Spain'). This is a clear example of interference and not code switching: The child has inadequately mastered the rules of English phonology. If the child had said "Me voy a school today" with appropriate pronunciation of

both English and Spanish words, then that child is switching codes, displaying an ability to capitalize on the resources of both languages.

What are some cultural differences I should be aware of?

Because there is a great deal of potential for cross-cultural incompatibility the teacher must understand the cultural patterns of all students to prevent conflict and to avoid misunderstanding the child, to show respect for the child's culture, and possibly to explain differences. Although most teachers try to avoid cultural bias, remember that cultural differences affect judgment both above and below the levels of consciousness, as revealed in the following cultural anecdote in which a Mexican-American woman and an Anglo woman are talking after a PTA meeting. The Mexican-American woman says, "That was a real good meeting we had last night," to which the Anglo responds, "Oh, do you think so? We spent all our time getting to know each other." This simple anecdote reflects a tremendous difference in what is considered appropriate and beneficial behavior, in the amount of time people should spend in getting acquainted and in the importance of getting down to business.

If we aren't careful, we'll judge others totally in terms of our own cultural background; that is, we'll be ethnocentric. Ethnocentrism, or viewing one's own customs, values, language, and beliefs as the only correct, appropriate, ethical, or reasonable ones for everyone to hold, results in such claims as "the British drive on the wrong side of the street" or "Men are supposed to wear trousers, not kilts or shorts." When we don't know another person's culture, we are forced to judge it on the basis of the only one we do know. This is true for both Spanish speakers and Anglos. For example, Mexican Americans, when giving their name, will add "servidor" for "at your service," and when called will say, "mande" ("order me; tell me what you want"). Because the Spanish speaker doesn't say "please" in situations where English-language rules require it, many English speakers consider this speaker rude or brusque. Spanish speakers, on the other hand, consider English speakers *too* polite because they use the word "please" so much. For example, Anglos will say, "Please bring me some water," "Please pass the bread," whereas the Spanish may ask for bread simply by saying, "me trae el pan" ("bring me bread"). Spanish speakers show politeness by using special forms of the verb, not by using the equivalent of the word 'please,' *por favor*. A Spanish speaker might be uncomfortable if Americans kept prefacing a request with "please."

Another example concerns waiting one's turn. In some Spanish-speaking countries, people do not queue; they fight to get a place at

the next opening in the line. They believe that if you wait your turn or form a line, you are being dumb or "sheep-like" because you failed to defend your turn when you could get it. Anglos, who are used to waiting for the next turn, even taking numbers at the counter, consider the person who pushes his way to the front as rude.

Edward T. Hall (*The Silent Language*, 1973) has called Latin American and Arab cultures "polychronic," since people in those cultures do more than one thing at a time, and cultures like the American or British as monochronic, where people do one thing at a time. Time is another cultural system that can be misunderstood. Hispanics often ask, when being invited to a party if it is "hora Latina" or "hora norteamericana." This is, will the event begin considerably after the designated time or right at the time mentioned. Someone arriving 35 minutes after that time may be "on time" in one culture, but "late" in another.

Even how close people stand to one another is culturally determined. The term for this is *proxemics*—or the study of space relations. Spanish speakers tend to stand closer to one another when talking than do Anglos. This behavior is often misinterpreted and the Hispanic is judged as "aggressive" or "pushy." On the other hand, Spanish speakers may consider Anglos as "cold" or particularly "unfriendly" if they retreat, allowing themselves more distance from the Hispanic.

Although the gestures used in Spanish and English do not differ to a very large extent, the teacher should be aware of these differences and the Spanish-speaking child needs to learn what gestures accompany the various English speech acts. The most salient gestures or those most likely to cause conflict or misunderstanding are the gestures that need to be learned. For instance the gestures that accompany such acts as greeting and leave-taking are very important. Spanish speakers who are used to kissing when greeting or saying good-by to friends may need to learn when a hand-shake or nod of the head is more appropriate in American culture. Also certain gestures in one culture may be considered obscene or offensive by other cultures. For example, the Anglo signal for O.K. (with the thumb and index finger forming a circle) is considered obscene in certain Latin American countries.

Eye contact differs in some instances between Spanish speakers and Anglos. For example, Puerto Rican children look at each other less than Anglos do. They may even reverse the usual Anglo pattern in which the speaker makes initial eye contact, glances away, and then reestablishes contact, while the listener keeps his eyes on the speaker with only brief glances away. On the other hand, Peruvians, Bolivians, and Chileans consider the absence of eye contact to

be insulting (Genelle G. Morain, *Kinesics and Cross-Cultural Understanding*, CAL, 1978). The teacher must be sensitive to such issues so as not to consider a child's behavior rude if the child does not maintain "good" eye contact.

The following anecdote provides a very good example of what can go wrong because of a lack of understanding of cultural differences. A teacher had realized that the children had done something wrong, but no one would tell, so he asked them to line up against the wall. In this class, all the children, except for one Hispanic child, were Anglos. No one said a word, but later the teacher told the Hispanic child that he was the guilty one and called the parents. They said the child had not done anything, and asked how the teacher knew that their child was guilty. The teacher replied simply that when he was accusing the children, they all looked him straight in the eye, except for the one Hispanic child, who looked slightly down and away. This teacher didn't know that Hispanic children are expected to look down if they are to be respectful. If the child had looked the teacher in the eye, it would have been a Hispanic sign of open defiance. The teacher did not understand this, and believed that because the child would not look at him directly he was guilty.

It is important to remember that minority children need access to the dominant culture and to English, not necessarily for acculturation or assimilation, but rather as access to the educational, occupational systems that are largely run by the dominant group. Minority group children spend much of their time in settings where dominant norms prevail, and though they have at least a passive knowledge of the dominant culture, they differ largely in that their own private language and lifestyles are at variance with the public at large. In fact, the majority culture in looking at these minority children unfortunately may view the difference as deprivation, as we have seen. It is important that we have mutual respect for each other's cultures, for different patterns of beliefs, values, and behaviors.

How can we do this? First, we can indulge and accept a child's customs even if they make the teacher somewhat uncomfortable, as long as they do not interfere with the progress of the class. A teacher can let students explain their cultural patterns or behaviors and let others in the class discuss them. Spanish-speaking children need to understand how Anglos act, and Anglos need to learn to respect other cultures. The class will provide an excellent opportunity for learning about different groups of people.

Teaching English to the Spanish-Speaking Child —Questions Teachers Ask

As S. Pit Corder points out in his *Introducing Applied Linguistics* (1973), language teaching is concerned with two main problems: *What to teach*, or the problem of content, and *How to teach it*, or the problem of methodology. Various linguists and language teachers have suggested ways to approach these problems. Two of the methods are known as Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis.

What is contrastive analysis?

The theory of contrastive analysis is based on the process of transfer (often called negative transfer or interference), in which knowledge of the first language interferes with the learning of a second language; the learner transfers the habits of his mother tongue to the second language. To study this phenomenon of interference, a systematic comparison of the similarities and differences between the first and second language is made. This means that the sound system (phonology), the morphology, and grammatical system (syntax), vocabulary, writing systems, and cultures of the two languages are compared to predict possible problems or difficulties the learner may encounter. Such a comparison will help us predict, for example, that a Spanish speaker learning English will not have trouble learning the *ch* or [č] sound—since it also exists in Spanish—but he/she will have difficulty learning the *sh* or [š] sound, which does not exist in Spanish.

What is error analysis?

Error analysis grew out of the inability of contrastive analysis to account for many of the errors a student made in the language

classroom. Error analysis attributes the cause of errors not only to interference from the first language but also to

- *Transfer of previous training*, which explains such errors as "I know what is his name." Because students generally learn the interrogative form "What is his name?" first, they often tend to transfer this English interrogative structure to the affirmative statement, which should be "I know what his name is."

- *Strategy of learning*, which explains errors through the processes of overgeneralization or analogy, such as "He *comed*" (cf. walked, jumped) or "two *gooses*" (cf. bushes, roses). Children learn their mother tongue in the same way: first by analogy and then later by learning the exceptions to the rules.

- *Strategy of communication*, which refers to the strategy a learner uses to fit his incomplete language system to his communication needs. The result of this strategy is a sort of pidgin language that contains a lot of shortened, incorrect forms. An example is a sentence such as "They learn song yesterday."

How do contrastive analysis and error analysis help the language teacher?

Both CA and EA can help us to better predict the problems faced by the language learner, and thus can serve as a basis for the language teaching syllabus. An analysis of such problems helps us decide what to teach, the sequence of the material to be taught, and how to teach it.

The following is a discussion of the problems a Spanish-speaking child may encounter in the acquisition of English pronunciation, structure, and vocabulary, which has been derived from contrastive and error analysis and from classroom practice.

What are the problems in acquiring English vowel pronunciation?

All Spanish dialects distinguish only five vocalic contrasts:

/a/	as in Spanish	*más*	and English father
/e/	as in	*mes*	mess
/i/		*mis*	p*ie*ce
/o/		*los*	t*oa*st
/u/		*luz*	b*oo*t

On the other hand, American English has at least eleven vocalic dis-

tinctions, six more than Spanish. These usually are

/i/	beet	/u/	boot
/ɪ/	bit	/ʊ/	put
/e/	bait	/o/	boat
/ɛ/	bet	/ɔ/	bought
/æ/	bat	/a/	bot
		/ʌ/	but

Because the above vowel contrasts do not occur in Spanish they are apt to cause Spanish speakers great difficulty. Spanish speakers may not hear the difference between such English words as

beat	/i/	and	bit	/ɪ/
bit	/ɪ/		bet	/ɛ/
bet	/ɛ/		bat	/æ/
bat	/æ/		but	/ʌ/
but	/ʌ/		boot	/u/
boat	/o/		bought	/ɔ/

Because the native Spanish speaker does not use these vowel distinctions that person will tend in speech to replace such English vowels with the closest Spanish vowel equivalent in the person's current repertoire. Thus the English vowel /ɪ/ as in *bit* may be pronounced or interpreted as /i/, or /e/, and the /æ/ sound found in *bat* may be heard and/or pronounced as b*ait* /e/, bot /a/, etc.

REMEMBER: What often seems to be a difficulty in the *making* of a certain sound may not be a production problem at all but rather a problem in *recognition* or discrimination. Sound recognition or discrimination means that the student is aware of the context of the sounds and when they are used to signal a difference in meaning he or she can "hear" them. Students must be able to *hear* the vowel distinction before they can be expected to produce it. Thus exercises in the recognition of sounds must be presented before actual pronunciation drills. (Examples of such drills are in Part II.)

What are the problems with vowel stress?

All English dialects have a common phonological characteristic known as vowel reduction. Vowel reduction means that the vowels in stressed position are produced for a longer time than vowels in unstressed position. The unstressed vowels in these words are usually shortened and pronounced with some sort of central vowel or schwa [ə] sound like the vowel sound in the English words *a*bout, tablecloth and sof*a*.

Spanish, on the other hand, does not possess this phonological feature of vowel reduction. In Spanish all vowels are pronounced as full vowels, which means that each vowel has the same duration and does not get reduced to a schwa sound. Because of this, Spanish speakers often substitute the [a] sound for the English schwa [ə] sound.

The rhythms of English and Spanish are thus quite different. English is known as a phrase-timed or stress-timed language whereas Spanish is known as a syllable-timed language.

What is meant by stress timed?

Stress timed means that English rhythm depends on the regularly occurring accented syllables in each utterance. In English speech the same length of time is maintained between one stressed syllable and the next stressed syllable in an utterance by saying the unstressed (unaccented) syllables faster. This is done by crowding the unstressed syllables together and pronouncing most of the unstressed vowels with a schwa-like vowel (that is, the phenomenon of vowel reduction). For example, it takes an English speaker approximately the same time to say "The boy is going" as "The little boy is going" because the number of stresses remains the same in both.

What is meant by syllable timed?

Spanish (along with other Romance languages like French and Italian) is a syllable-timed language, which means that all syllables receive equal time and full vowel pronunciation whether they are stressed or unstressed. This is apt to cause difficulty for a native Spanish speaker whose lack of reduced vowels will be regarded as a foreign accent, and which may at times lead to confusion. (Exercises for teaching English stress and rhythm are presented in Part II.)

REMEMBER: Various difficulties a Spanish speaker may have learning the English vowels are dependent on the dialect being taught. Teachers should be aware of the great variety in the pronunciation of vowels within American English dialects.

What are the problems in acquiring English consonant pronunciation?

Spanish does not have certain consonant phonemes that exist in English.

/v/	as in English	*v*ictory
/z/		*z*ebra
/š/		*sh*ip
/ž/		trea*s*ure
/j/		*j*udge
/θ/[1]		*th*ank
/ð/		*th*ere

Because the above sounds do not occur in Spanish, native Spanish speakers often substitute the closest equivalent sound of their sound system. For example,

• English v ——→ b (or [β] a voiced bilabial fricative) producing words like [bɛri], which is the pronunciation used for both *berry* and *very* and [bæn] for both *ban* and *van*.

•English z ——→ s, as in *easy* [iysi] and *zebra* [sibrə]. The [z] sound does exist in Spanish but only as a variant of the phoneme /s/ before a voiced consonant, as in the word *desde* [dɛzde]. (It is always spelled *s* in Spanish.) When this environment occurs in English, the native Spanish speaker is apt to say [naɪz bɔɪ] for *nice boy*, which could be misunderstood as *Ny's boy*. In English the two sounds are treated as separate phonemes, as in *sip* vs. *zip*.

• English š ——→ č, as in [čɛr], which is the pronunciation used for both *chair* and *share*. [čɪp] would be used for both *ship* and *chip*.

• English ž ——→ č in words like *rouge*, pronounced [ruč]
ž ——→ š in words like *treasure*, pronounced [trɛšə]. It is understood that this substitution takes place after the student has learned the [š] sound.

• English j ——→ y, as in the pronunciation of *Yale* for *jail* and *mayor* for *major*.

• English ð ——→ d, as in the word *there* pronounced [dɛr].

• English θ ——→ t, as in [tɪn] for *thin* and [tɪŋk] for *think*.
θ ——→ s, as in [sɪn] for *thin* and [sɪŋk] for *think*.

The [θ] sound occurs in certain Spanish dialects, although never in initial preconsonantal position. Most Spanish dialects lack this sound entirely, so words like *three* and *thing* will be a problem for many Spanish speakers learning English. Also note that where

[1] Some dialects in Spain have the *th* [θ] sound. But other Spanish dialects, including the majority of Central and South American dialects, do not contain this sound.

some Spanish speakers use a [θ] sound in certain words, other Spanish speakers use an [s] sound. That is, *cinco* is pronounced either [θinko] or [sinko], depending on dialect. As a result, many Spanish speakers have learned to equate the [θ] and [s] sounds. Many of these speakers may well consider English [θ] and [s] to be interchangeable. This, too, will result in a pronunciation problem when English is being learned.

Another difficulty in acquiring English pronunciation arises when the same phoneme in Spanish and English has different variants in the two languages. For example, the /d/ phoneme exists in both Spanish and English. However, Spanish also has a fricative variant [ð], resembling the [ð] sound in the English word *there*, which appears between vowels (as in *lado* [lado]) and after *r* (as in the word *pardo* [pardo]). Thus Spanish speakers may say *lather* instead of *ladder* and *wreathing* instead of *reading*. Such differences will have to be taught.

Are there differences in the pronunciation of the similar consonants that exist in both languages?

The pronunciation of similar phonemes in Spanish and English may be different and thus must be learned and practiced by the student. For example, Spanish /t/ and /d/ are pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching the back of the front teeth—English /t/ and /d/ are pronounced with the tongue tip touching the area above and behind the front teeth called the alveolar ridge.

Spanish /p/, /t/, and /k/ at the beginning of a word are pronounced without aspiration (without a puff of air). Thus Spanish speakers will need to learn how to aspirate initial voiceless stops in English; until they do, *pin* and *pot* may often sound like *bin* and *bought* because Spanish unaspirated [p] will sound like [b] to an English speaker.

When should such minor differences in pronunciation be taught?

Errors in aspiration and in point of articulation need be taught only at more advanced levels because they are heard merely as a matter of accent and are generally not necessary for understanding.

What are the problems with consonant clusters?

Difficulties for Spanish speakers occur when infrequent or nonexistent sound sequences in Spanish are prevalent in the English

sound system. For example, word-final /-rd/ is frequent in English (in *card* and *beard*, for example) but not in Spanish. As a result, Spanish speakers may often pronounce *car* for *card*, *beer* for *beard*, and *her* for *heard*. Also, because very few Spanish words end in a consonant cluster, other word-final consonant clusters (*cart*, *carp*, *cars*) may all be pronounced like the English word *car*. English word-final consonant clusters will need to be pointed out and drilled.

The consonant clusters /sp/, /st/, and /sk/ occur in both English and Spanish but in English they occur in word-initial position, as in *spy*, *student*, and *school*, whereas in Spanish they are always preceded by a vowel, usually *e-*, as in *espía*, *estudiante*, and *escuela*. Thus one of the frequent errors made by Spanish speakers is pronouncing this cluster in English with an *e-* before it, as in *espy*, *estudent*, *eschool*, and so on. This difference in initial *s* + consonant cluster needs to be practiced.

What are the problems in pronouncing written words?

Even though Spanish and English have basically the same alphabet, many of the symbols have a different value or pronunciation in the two languages. Therefore those Spanish speakers who know how to read their own language will tend, when they reach the English class, to transfer the phonetic value of the Spanish symbolization to English. For example, since the Spanish written *h* is silent the student may read *ello* and *art* for *hello* and *heart*, respectively. Also the student may substitute the *y* sound for words containing *j*, such as *Yale* for *jail* and *mayor* for *major*, because the *y* equivalent is closer to the Spanish equivalent (Spanish does not have the [j] sound). As far as the vowels are concerned, the student may pronounce them like Spanish vowels. For example, the English words *fine* and *pine* may be pronounced as [fine] and [pine] respectively because the *i* and *e* symbols have a different pronunciation value in Spanish.

What problems will the Spanish speaker have learning English stress and rhythm?

Spanish has only two degrees of phonologically distinct stress: strong vs. weak. The Spanish stress system is quite simple, allowing stress to fall generally on the next to the last (penultimate) syllable, the final syllable, and in some cases the third syllable from the end (antepenultimate syllable).

English, on the other hand, has a more complicated stress system. To start with, English has four degrees of stress: primary, secon-

dary, tertiary, and weak. The schwa [ə] is the only vowel that is classified as having weak stress. English allows primary stress on any syllable, so many English words have to be learned individually, not only by native Spanish speakers but also by native English speakers. Also English stress changes according to the suffixes added to the root, as in *méthod* vs. *methódical* vs. *methodólogy* and *télegraph, telegráphic*, and *telégraphy*, where the weak stress results in vowel reduction (see p. 33). Each English phrase is characterized by a primary stress and accompanying secondary and weak stresses with a tendency to achieve approximately the same length of time for each phrase with the same number of stresses—regardless of the number of syllables involved. The syllable-vowel receiving the heaviest stress is longest. This tendency to achieve uniform length between stresses, coupled with the phenomenon of vowel reduction, is what makes English a stress-timed language.

As mentioned, Spanish rhythm tends to give each syllable approximately the same duration. Thus Spanish speakers tend to shorten English stressed syllables while not reducing the weak vowels. They often tend to replace the weak, unstressed vowels with one of the full Spanish vowels, generally with the [a].

Will there be problems in teaching stress in cognate words?

Cognate words can cause problems for the Spanish speaker learning English because of different stress patterns in the two languages. For example, Spanish words ending in *-ción*, such as *condición* and *creación*, have a primary stress on the last syllable. English words ending in *-tion*, such as *condition* and *creation*, are stressed on the preceding syllable. Spanish speakers may often try to stress the English *-tion* words on the last syllable and realizing that this is wrong they may then try to stress the first syllable before finally arriving at the correct pronunciation. Errors such as stressing the first syllable, a result of overcorrection, are quite frequent. Other examples of English-Spanish cognates that can cause problems for the students are

- Spanish words ending in *-al*, which stress the last syllable as in *capitál* and *animál*, vs. the English *-al* words, which stress the antepenultimate syllable, as in *cápital* and *ánimal*.

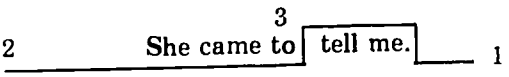
- Spanish words ending in *-dad* are stressed on the last syllable, as *habilidád*. vs. the English cognates ending in *-ty*, which are stressed on the antepenultimate syllable, as *abílity*.

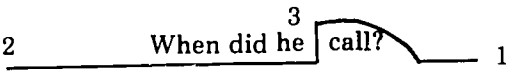
Robert Lado points out (in his *Linguistics Across Cultures*, 1957) a

developmental error that may occur when a Spanish speaker learning English learns the correct stress in a word such as *possibility* and then transfers it incorrectly to a word like *difficulty*. Such problems need to be drilled separately.

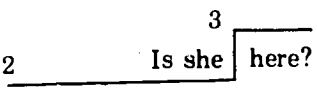
What about learning English intonation?

In English there are four relative levels of pitch: pitch level 2 is the normal *mid* level, pitch 3 is the *rising* or *high* pitch above normal level, level 1 is the pitch below normal level, and level 4, which is well above normal, is generally used only to express some form of emotion, such as anger, surprise, delight. Average English statements and questions follow a mid-high-low intonation pattern—the English speaker begins speaking at level 2, then follows by a raising of the voice to level 3, and then a lowering or dropping of the voice to level 1. Below are two examples:





In Yes-No questions the intonation pattern rises from level 2 to 3 without dropping to level 1, as in



In Spanish, on the other hand, general statements are normally uttered with a *low-mid-low* intonation pattern (vs. the English *mid-high-low* pattern (with the high level occurring on the last stressed syllable). As a result, Spanish speakers often tend to pronounce English statements with a *low-mid-low* pattern, which can produce the unintentional effect of detachment.

In English Yes-No tag questions *(Hot today, isn't it?)* there is a *high-low* intonation on *isn't it?* whereas Spanish uses a *mid-high* intonation pattern in attached questions, for example in *¿verdad?* Thus Spanish speakers may tend to transfer this rising intonation pattern to English attached questions.

What are the most obvious differences between Spanish and English grammar?

Spanish speakers will tend to transfer various grammatical features of their native language to the target language just as they trans-

ferred features of their sound systems. A student will also make various production errors that are analyzable via error analysis. Below is a discussion of the most common problems Spanish speakers may encounter in the acquisition of English morphology and syntax.

Differences in Plural Formation—

- Some Spanish nouns that have a plural form do not have a corresponding plural formation in English, for example Spanish *ciento* 'one hundred', *docientos* 'two hundred.' Thus Spanish speakers may give the English number incorrectly as in **two hundreds*. The same phenomenon occurs with the Spanish *cabellos* vs. English *hair*. Many Spanish speakers say **hairs* before they learn the correct English form *hair*.
- Similarly, the plural formation may exist in English where it does not in Spanish, as in English *oats* vs. Spanish *avena*. The Spanish speaker may produce **oat* instead of the correct English *oats*. Differences in plural formation need to be learned individually, exception by exception.
- Native Spanish speakers (as well as other non-English speakers) have to master the three different pronunciations for the English plural.

[s]	as in *cats*	after voiceless consonants except [s, z, š, j]
[z]	as in *dogs, days*	after voiced consonants and vowels
[iz]	as in *bushes, buses*	after the sibilants [s, z, š, j]

Past Tense Differences—

Spanish speakers will need to be aware of the three ways the English past tense of regular verbs is pronounced, that is:

[t]	as in *looked*	after voiceless consonants except [t]
[d]	as in *jogged, played*	after voiced consonants except [d] and vowels
[id]	as in *rotted, plodded*	after [t] and [d]

Differences in Agreement—

All adjectives in Spanish must agree in gender and number with the words they modify, e.g., *las casas blancas*. This Spanish practice may result in such errors in English as **the whites houses* or **the houses whites*. In such cases the teacher must make the students

aware that adjectives in English do not agree in number with the noun being modified.

Differences in Possessives—
Spanish forms the possessive in only one way: by use of the preposition *de* 'of,' as in *el libro de Juan*—literally 'the book of John.' English has a similar construction as in "the color of the dress is blue." However, it is infrequently used and refers only to inanimate objects. A native English speaker would never say: *"The house of my father is in Houston." The common possessive formation in English is *'s*, which is added to the possessor, as in *John's book.* This difference often causes Spanish speakers to use awkward possessive forms, for example **the book of John.*

Differences in Indefinite Articles—
Because the Spanish words *un, uno, una* can mean both the number *one* and the indefinite articles *a, an* the Spanish speaker may substitute the English word *one* for *a(n),* as in "David has *one* book to read." Students simply need to be made aware of this distinction.

Differences in Prepositions—
Spanish speakers (as well as other English-language learners) have great difficulty with English prepositions. The main reason for this difficulty is that in several instances Spanish has only one preposition to express ideas for which English uses two or more. This can result in inappropriate or haphazard use of English prepositions. For example:

- Spanish uses *en* for English < on / in / at

  El libro está *en* la mesa—The book is *on* the table.
  possible error: The book is *in* the table.
  Jorge está *en* casa.—George is *at* home.
  possible error: George is *in* (the) home.

- Spanish uses *de* for English < of / from

  Su casa es *de* madera.—His house is made *of* wood.
  possible error: His house is made *from* wood.
  Miguel es *de* Mexico.—Michael is *from* Mexico.
  possible error: Michael is *of* Mexico.

- Spanish uses *hasta* for English < as far as / until

Viajó *hasta* Nueva York.—He traveled *as far as* New York.
possible error: He traveled *until* New York.
Viajó *hasta* las siete.—He traveled *until* 7:00.
possible error: He traveled *as far as* 7:00.

What are the general problems with word order differences?

Spanish has a freer word order than the usual Subject-Verb-Object word order in English so that Spanish speakers will have to learn the various rules that govern English word order. Below is a discussion of some common problems the Spanish speaker will encounter in learning English syntax.

Subject Pronoun Differences—
Because the subject pronouns are included in the verb forms in Spanish, the Spanish speaker will have to make a conscious effort not to forget the English subject pronouns *(I, you, he, she, it, we, you, they).* In Spanish they are used for emphasis or clarification only, whereas in English they are required.

Example: Va (=*he, she,* or *it goes).*

Differences in Question Formation—
English forms questions by use of the function words *do, does, did* placed before the subject:

Do you go to the store every day?
Did John come with you?

Questions are asked in Spanish by merely changing the intonation of a sentence to a rising intonation or, if a subject is used, by also inverting subject and verb. Thus a Spanish speaker is likely to form the above questions in the following way:

*Go you to the store every day?—¿Va usted a la tienda cada día?
*Came John with you?—¿Vino Juan con usted?

In learning about English questions the Spanish speaker must react not only to intonation but also to the use of a function word placed before the subject of the question and/or an inversion of subject and verb. In producing questions with forms of the verbs TO BE, TO HAVE as well as with *can, will, may, should,* the Spanish speakers have more complex problems. They must
• Reverse subject-verb order, placing a form of the above verbs before the subject;

- Include the subject pronoun;
- Not inflect the 3rd person singular verb (as in Will he *study*? not *studies*);
- Use falling *high-low* intonation pattern in most instances.

Spanish questions such as:

¿Está cerrada la puerta?
¿Está lista la chica?

are likely to produce incorrect English equivalents:

*Is closed the store?
*Is ready the girl?

If the English rules are not observed, the word order for questions will have to be drilled extensively. (Exercises for question formation are presented in Part II.)

Differences in Adjective Placement—
Transfer of the Spanish practice of generally placing the modifying adjective(s) after the noun will result in English sentences in which the adjective is incorrectly placed, as in

*The school new is open—La escuela nueva está abierta.

Differences in Adverb Placement—
Because the placement of adverbs in Spanish is relatively free, and because Spanish speakers tend to transfer their language habits to English, awkward sentences can result:

He plays sometimes with his brother.—Juega algunas veces con su hermano.
She went yesterday to the store.—Fué ayer a la tienda.

Differences in Direct and Indirect Object Placement—
In English the direct and indirect object pronouns follow the verb and the indirect object follows the direct object:

He gave it to me.

In Spanish, however, the object pronouns precede the verb and the indirect object precedes the direct object. This difference produces incorrect English varieties, such as

*He gave me it.—Me lo dió.

Differences in Negative Formation—
In Spanish the negative is formed by placing the word *no* before the verb, as in *El no come.* The Spanish speaker is thus often likely to transfer this pattern into English resulting in such errors as

*He no eat.

instead of using the English function words *do, does,* etc., as in *He does not eat.* Once again the Spanish speaker must learn how to use the English function words *do, does,* and *did.*

In Spanish use of double negatives is the rule when two negative concepts are involved. *No* precedes the verb while a negative adverb follows:

María no aprende nada.—Mary doesn't learn anything.

This kind of construction is likely to be transferred into English as

*Mary doesn't learn nothing.

until the Spanish speaker learns that two negative words are not allowed in the same sentence. He/she will need to learn the distinction between such forms as

none	any
nothing	anything
nobody	anybody

and when they are used.

What types of errors are the result of overgeneralization?

Many of the grammatical errors made by Spanish speakers studying English are the same kinds of errors made by young native English speakers as they learn their mother tongue, and are a result of overgeneralization or analogy. Errors such as *gooses* and *foots* and *eated* and *comed* occur when speakers make an analogy with other regular forms in English (the *-s, -es* ending is the plural ending for regular nouns and the *-ed* ending is the regular past tense verb ending). The error in "He eat too much " is also one of analogy—this sentence lacks the inflectional ending on the 3rd person singular verb, extending a condition that exists in verb forms in the other persons. The language teacher should be aware that some errors,

such as these, are not a result of interference, but of overapplying rules in the target language.

Is there a particular order that is best for teaching morphological and syntactic patterns?

Roger Brown (*A First Language: The Early Stages*, 1973) and others have found that there seems to be an order in which certain grammatical morphemes and structures are acquired by native English speakers as they learn the language. Further, Brown posited a sequence of at least 14 basic function words and structures that play an important role in conveying meaning in English. According to him, this order is dependent on the items' relative grammatical and/or semantic complexity, which, in turn, is dependent on developmental factors related to the age and cognitive growth of the language learners.

On the other hand, other researchers to their surprise have found in various studies that second language learners acquire English grammatical morphemes in an order different from that of native English-speaking children. They also found that this second language acquisition order is similar for children of different language backgrounds, which naturally includes native Spanish speakers. Research to date suggests that some of the possible determinants of the order of acquisition of English structures for Spanish-speaking children are (a) frequency of occurrence of the morpheme in the speech of native speakers, (b) the syntactic category and morpheme type, and (c) the influence of the native language. Evidence of this kind could have direct implications for educational planning, including not only what structures to emphasize and teach, but also in what sequence and how to teach them. Much further study is needed before good pedagogical grammars can be compiled, however. The only suggestion for ordering the teaching of syntactic material at this point is to teach the most crucial features needed for comprehension and communication as they arise.

What are some problems in acquiring English vocabulary?

Words convey more than just their dictionary meaning. They also reflect the particular ways a culture categorizes or classifies experiences. For example, the Eskimo have approximately 20 different words for various types of snow; English has only a few. The extensive Eskimo vocabulary dealing with snow indicates the importance of snow in the Eskimo culture. Another cultural difference in classification occurs in the color spectrum—various cultures classify col-

ors differently, and these differences appear in the vocabulary. If a language is not "rich" in color or snow words, it does not mean that people from these cultures are not able to perceive different types of snow or colors, it is rather an indication of the particular way that each culture categorizes its own reality. An understanding of how two languages diverge lexically can help the language teacher in the efficient preparation and presentation of teaching materials.

Another problem with meaning is that even though the same reality-concept may exist across cultures, the meanings may differ. For example, English *freedom* has quite a different connotation from the corresponding dictionary entry in Russian. Examples of other concepts that cannot be translated exactly are the Spanish *simpático* and *dignidad* and the English phrase *fair play*. We can, however, explain them and give their appropriate context.

Another problem related to meaning is that certain concepts in one language/culture may not exist at all in others. For instance, the concept of *privacy* as Americans know it is nonexistent in many cultures and countries. Therefore the use of a bilingual dictionary is not always indicated because insufficient knowledge of the language and culture may cause the learner to choose an incorrect word, which often leads to confusion and misunderstanding.

What is the most difficult vocabulary to learn?

The hardest words for a person studying a second language to learn are what are referred to as function words, words that perform a grammatical function but that are semantically empty or devoid of meaning. An English example is the function word *do*, which is used in the formation of English questions and negatives, the "little words" like articles *(a, an, the)*, prepositions *(of, by, for)*, and auxiliaries *(has, is)*. On the other hand, content words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, which constitute the bulk of the vocabulary, are much easier to master. The teacher therefore needs to be aware of the possible problems function words can present and to prepare drills for such function words.

What are other types of difficult vocabulary?

Constructions of Two or More Words—

- Compounds made of two nouns, such as *water hose, life jacket, wine glass*, that are expressed by one word in Spanish (such as *salvavida*) or by a phrase (such as *vaso para vino*) will be difficult to learn.
- Verb constructions such as *call up, call on, wait for, run out of,*

run up, pick up, and *know how* will be difficult for the Spanish speaker who has just one word for the above constructions. Another difficulty arises when these parts can be separated, as in

Did you *call up* Mary last night?
Did you *call* Mary *up* last night?

These varieties can be taught and practiced as a unit.

- Certain idioms or idiomatic expressions such as *to be cold, hungry, thirsty, 31 years old,* where English expresses these ideas with a form of the verb TO BE while Spanish uses a form of the verb TO HAVE, will also need to be taught.

Words Having Different Grammatical Distributions—
The grammatical distribution of words can also present a problem in learning vocabulary since restrictions of certain lexical items in one language may not exist in another language. For example, the English word *water* can be a noun (glass of *water*), a verb (*water* the plants), and a noun adjunct (*water* meter). However, in Spanish the word *agua* (in this form) can only be a noun. Other examples of differences in vocabulary distribution in English and Spanish can be seen in the English words *fire* and *man,* which can be nouns, noun adjuncts, and verbs versus the Spanish counterparts *fuego* and *hombre,* which can only function as nouns. In such instances the Spanish speaker will have to learn how to expand his/her vocabulary.

Words Having Different Geographical and Social Distributions—
Words may also show a different geographical as well as social distribution. Examples of English words used in different geographical regions of the country are

tap vs. spigot
purse vs. pocketbook
pancakes vs. flapjacks vs. hotcakes

Words having different social distribution are used by different social classes. One example is the use and non-use of the English word *ain't.* Words may also vary stylistically, as in poetry, prose, and conversation. The language teacher should be aware of the different distributions of various words and should teach them in context, with the aid of synonyms and explanations where appropriate to help clarify their use.

Concepts That Differ Between Cultures—
Words that represent a different grasp of reality or cultural mean-

ing are difficult to learn and to teach. An example is the American concept of *first floor*, which means ground level. In Spanish (as well as many other cultures) *primer piso* is the floor above the ground level. Thus it is not enough to teach a new form but the cultural meaning must be taught as well. Connotations or (usual) expectations must also be taught. For example, the word *bread* in English and *pan* in Spanish mean basically the same food, but the differences in appearance and in the kinds of bread that exist across the two cultures need to be explained.

Taboo Words—
Words or expressions that are acceptable in one language may be considered taboo or vulgar in another. For example, the Spanish word *grueso* meaning 'fat' is used as a compliment in some Spanish dialects but would not be considered as such in English. Also the Spanish name *Jesús* 'Jesus' is a common acceptable name in Spanish but would probably be considered irreverent in English.

What is the best way to teach content words?

Vocabulary should be taught or presented in the areas of semantic domains or semantic fields. For example, related vocabulary under collective headings (places, the professions, colors, food, clothes, government, the arts, the weather, nature, or sports) should be presented together instead of in a haphazard fashion.

The problem of what vocabulary domains to focus on can be solved by assessing the needs of the students. The first semantic domain to be taught is usually the academic one, that is, words having to do with school, academic subjects, and vocabulary crucial to getting a student through the school day. As the students become more proficient in the language the vocabulary of vocational areas or occupational domains becomes important, especially to the older students.

For beginning students there is no need to stress the acquisition of vocabulary domains for contexts in which they are more likely to use Spanish: family relationships, religious topics, cooking, and household objects. Acquiring this vocabulary is not immediately crucial for the cultural survival of the non-English-speaking student. The items can be introduced later, after the student has learned the vocabulary he or she needs to function in the world outside the home.

Do cognates present a problem for the Spanish speaker learning English?

Cognates are defined as words that are similar in form and meaning in languages that are generally related in origin. Such words also occur in languages that are unrelated but whose speakers are geographically contiguous.

Cognates can be both a blessing and a curse for the teachers and learners of a second language. They are a blessing because they accelerate the vocabulary acquisition and sometimes allow the students to understand some of the new language they have never been exposed to. Examples of such Spanish-English cognates are

English	*Spanish*
student	estudiante
animal	animal
community	comunidad
important	importante
hotel	hotel

Cognates can also be a curse because apparent resemblances between the native and target language can lead students to pronounce the new words with native language features (see p. 33) or to overestimate the similarities in meaning between the two forms. There are many false cognates or what the French call *faux amis* (false friends), words that are similar in form but only partially similar in meaning or in some cases completely different in meaning. Don L. F. Nilsen has provided a classification of "False Cognates in English and Spanish" (in Paul J. Hopper, Editor, *Studies in Descriptive and Historical Linguistics: Festschrift for Winfred P. Lehmann*, 1977):

• When the meaning of the English word is general and the Spanish cognate is more specific.

English	*Spanish*
note	nota (grade)
use	usar (wear)
casserole	cacerola (saucepan)
realize	realizar (reach a goal)

• When the meaning of the English word is specific and the Spanish cognate is more general.

English	*Spanish*
constipated	constipado (be stuffed up anywhere, have a head cold)
idiom (expression)	idioma (language)
parents	parientes (relatives)

• When the English word has a more negative connotation than the Spanish cognate.

English	*Spanish*
disgrace (cause of shame)	disgracia (misfortune)
regress (go backwards)	regresar (to return)
notorious (infamous)	notorio (of note)

• When the Spanish word has a more negative connotation than the English cognate.

English	*Spanish*
pass (an exam)	pasar (take an exam)
support	suportar (tolerate)
be interested	ser interesado (have an ulterior motive)

• Miscellaneous meaning differences.

English	*Spanish*
library	librería (bookstore)
collar	collar (necklace)
large	largo (long)
actual	actual (now)
receipt	receta (recipe, prescription)

• Deceptive false cognates are words that are phonetically similar but are not related in meaning in any way:

English	*Spanish*
assist	asistir (to attend)
succeed	suceder (to happen)
success	suceso (incident)
exit	éxito (success)
grocery	grocería[4] (vulgarism)
carpet	carpeta (notebook)

The teacher should be aware of these differences in cognates so that he/she can teach them to the students. (Suggestions for teaching cognates are in Part II.)

[4] Groceria is regularly used by some Spanish speakers in the U.S. for the English *grocery*. This is a word from one language that has been integrated into another.

What are the roles of attitude and motivation in the child's acquisition of English?

The importance of the child's attitude toward and motivation for learning a second language cannot be overestimated. If the child is eager to learn English and to be integrated into American culture he or she will learn English quite easily. Much, too, depends on the attitude of the parents toward the school and their aspirations for their children. If the parents support the school system and are convinced of the importance of English for the future of their children they will communicate these feelings to their offspring, who, in turn, will bring them to the classroom. The teacher is also important in encouraging the students to acquire a good attitude concerning their acquisition of English.

Another factor affecting the attitude and motivation of the students is the extent they interact with the English-speaking community. If they are generally cut off or socially isolated from the Anglo culture they will learn their English primarily from school, books, and TV, as well as from on-the-job training, rather than from free association with the English-speaking members of the community. If they and/or their families have no desire to become a part of the Anglo culture and they need English for instrumental purposes only, then the extent of their English proficiency may be limited. The teacher needs to consider the degree of cohesiveness of the Spanish-speaking group, how large the community is, whether or not there is a strong feeling of ethnic identity as well as what the attitudes of the group are toward English and the Anglo culture. The teacher's dual role is to teach English and the Anglo culture while teaching the children to have pride in their own language and culture. The teacher should do whatever is possible to foster a good working relationship between the Hispanic and Anglo communities.

Are there classroom practices that can interfere with the child's learning of English?

The teacher's classroom practices can have a profound effect on the attitude of the Spanish-speaking child toward the English language and toward Anglo culture. Here are some pointers as far as possitive teacher attitudes and classroom practices are concerned.

- Don't communicate negative attitudes toward the child's language and culture. When this happens a Hispanic child tends to lose self-respect and respect for his culture. Loss of respect may eventually lead to withdrawal in class and finally to dropping out of school.
- Don't have low expectations concerning any student's perform-

ance. If a teacher expects very little or labels a student as disadvantaged or retarded, that student will often perform to fit the label, not up to potential, thus fulfilling the teacher's prophesy.

- Don't segregate a child or all the children who speak Spanish by putting them into a "special" class. This calls unnecessary attention to them and deprives them of opportunities to interact in English with their peers. The children need the opportunity to communicate in English with native English speakers their own age.
- Don't use techniques, methods, or materials that are culturally inappropriate or unfamiliar to the child. For instance, having students read material and stories concerning something that they are unfamiliar with is inappropriate until the students have been given the proper cultural information. Also, if the students are having trouble reading in English one should not continually present new material via reading—a medium that is difficult for them.
- Try to avoid teaching the rules of pronunciation, grammar, etc. unless they are absolutely necessary to the understanding or solving of a problem. Because young children acquire a second language more easily than do adults and since they have different language learning strategies from those of adults, rules are rarely necessary. Older students, however, often benefit from clearly stated rules. Rules should be taught only if their knowledge can solve problems the students may have in pronunciation, syntax, vocabulary, and meaning. Remember, the object is to teach the language, not about the language.
- Don't correct the student every time he/she makes an error, but on the other hand don't correct haphazardly. Every error should be corrected at the single-word level only. But when the student reaches the sentence level, correct the errors on the particular teaching point as well as errors that interfere with comprehension. Other errors ca.. (and should) be overlooked. The teacher must find a middle ground between correcting so much that the student becomes frustrated and discouraged and yet correcting enough so that the student is not at a disadvantage in confronting native speakers outside of the classroom.

PART II—CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPANISH SPEAKERS

Sounds and Pronunciation

Those phonemic contrasts that have a "high functional load," meaning that they are frequently used, should be taught as soon as possible. The twin goals here are aural discrimination of and oral production of sound differences in the two languages. Thus the English teacher must concentrate on correcting the errors Spanish speakers often make when they substitute a Spanish sound for one that does not exist in their native language, but does in English. For example, drills will be needed to learn to hear and recognize and then pronounce the differences that exist in English between the following consonants

v - b	z - ž
s - š	d - đ
s - θ	č - ǰ
s -	j - y

and the various vowel distinctions

i - ɪ	u - ʊ
ɛ - æ	ʌ - ɔ
o - ɔ	ɑ - æ

The main methods for teaching recognition and pronunciation consist of using minimal pairs in some way. A minimal pair is two words that are pronounced the same except for one sound (phoneme). The one-sound difference signals a difference in meaning. Examples of English minimal pairs that exhibit phonemic contrasts that are difficult for Spanish speakers are:

CONSONANTS

v	b	s	z	s	θ
very	berry	sue	zoo	sin	thin
vet	bet	racer	razor	some	thumb
vote	boat	rice	rise	gross	growth
rove	robe	place	plays	mass	math

č	š	č	j	j	y
chop	shop	choke	joke	jet	yet
chair	share	cheap	jeep	jeer	year
watch	wash	chin	gin	jot	yacht
catch	cash	cheer	jeer	jail	Yale

d	ð
dare	there
day	they
breed	breathe
read	wreathe

VOWELS

i	ɪ	ɪ	ɛ	æ	u	ʌ
sheep	ship	sit	set	sat	soon	sun
beat	bit	did	dead	dad	room	rum
heel	hill	tin	ten	tan	school	skull
eat	it	bitter	better	batter	shooter	shutter

o	ɔ	ʌ	æ	o	ʊ
boat	bought	but	bat	broke	brook
coat	caught	cut	cat	poll pole	pull
phone	fawn	fun	fan	bowl	bull
mode	Maud	mud	mad	code	could

Discrimination or recognition exercises

• Give a series of words and have the students identify them as same or different:

sing	sing—*same*
sue	zoo—*different*
ship	sheep—*different*
yet	yet—*same*

• Use flash cards with two contrasting sounds written on them such as *s* vs. *z*. Say several words containing each sound and have the students hold up the correct flash card representing the sound they hear.
• Present the students with a list of minimal pairs and have them underline or circle the word you utter.
• Present pictures of some of the minimal pairs, such as a *sheep* vs. a *ship* or someone *washing* vs. *watching* a car, and have the students identify the picture that depicts the word or phrase being uttered.
• Have students write down as many words as they can think of that have the sound you want to teach.
• Have students listen to a tape-recorded passage and have them write down the words they hear that contain the sound being studied. This exercise can also be accomplished using a passage from a book and having the students write down the words they see that contain the sound being studied. The written components of this exercise and the exercise above also include the visual aspect of the written word and correct spelling.
• Put the sound to be taught in the context of a Spanish word. For example, put the vowel [æ] sound into the Spanish word *pan* and pronounce it with the English vowel and then contrast it with the correct Spanish vowel: [pæn] vs. [pan].

Production exercises

J. Donald Bowen and Robert P. Stockwell (*Patterns of Spanish Pronunciation: A Drill Book*, 1960, p. 6) suggest a basic procedure that a creative teacher can use as a starting point with minimal pair drills for mastering production.

• (1) The teacher says both members of a pair, being careful to say them exactly alike in intonation and stress, the only difference being the minimal consonantal or vocalic distinction. (2) The students repeat in chorus. (3) The teacher repeats the pair, then designates an individual student. (4) The student repeats.
• The sounds being studied can then be put in phrases and sentences so that the students can get used to using the word in a real context: Build gradually from word to phrase to sentence. For example:

man	men
the man	the men
laughed at the man	laughed at the men
Beth laughed at the man.	Beth laughed at the men.

saw	sauce
the saw	the sauce
I need the saw.	I need the sauce.

• Have the students say phrases or sentences that contain contrasting words, such as:

Twelve *sheep* were on the *ship.*
This is the *place* where he *plays.*

• Have the students repeat rhyming phrases and poems that exhibit contrasts, such as:

I *choose* those *shoes.*
It's not a *sin* to be *thin.*
Dare to be *there.*

• Point out the difference between what the student is saying vs. the correct sound by saying something like "No, not *sin* but *thin.*" Then have the student repeat both the correct and incorrect sounds. This technique has sometimes been criticized because some feel that it emphasizes a negative aspect of sound production. It does get good results, however, when students believe they are saying the correct sound and, in fact, they are not.
• Articulatory descriptions such as: "Pull your tongue back" or "Round your lips" as well as articulatory diagrams in some cases may be helpful.

Stress, Rhythm, and Intonation

• The best production exercise is the basic imitation and repetition drill. First give the example in parts and then progress to a complete sentence, as in

^{3}hát ↓
^{2}ă hát ↓
^{2}neèd ă ^{3}hát ↓
^{2}Ì neèd ă ^{3}hát ↓

Follow this with other examples using different words. You can even alter the intonation pattern and ask the students if they can discriminate between *same* and *different*.

• A verbal description of the features may help. For example one might say to a Spanish speaker: "Notice the high pitch and the drop in the last word."

• A visual description—diagram using lines, numbers, or both with various marks for stress—can be helpful. For example:

2 Ì need ă hát. 1

• Another exercise is to echo the intonation and rhythm with a nonsense syllable, such as *la*

It's a fine day isn't it?
^{2}la la la ^{3}la, ^{3}lala la^{1}

In this example the rising to falling intonation on *isn't it?* is contrasted with the rising intonation of Spanish speakers in a similar tag question ending in *¿verdad?*

• A pattern practice drill can be used after the students can imitate and remember examples. The teacher substitutes one word into the pattern, such as:

Teacher: It's a fine day, isn't it?
Students: It's a fine day, isn't it?
T: evening
S: It's a fine evening, isn't it?
T: spring
S: It's a fine spring, isn't it?
T: good
S: It's a good spring, isn't it?
T: class
S: It's a good class, isn't it?

This type of exercise forces the student to concentrate on the changes while he/she continues to practice the correct intonation and rhythm.

• The use of chants, poems, and phrases in a particular rhythm can be very effective. Carolyn Graham's *Jazz Chants for Children* (Oxford University Press, 1979), which includes a cassette, contains chants designed to teach the natural rhythm, stress, and intonation patterns of conversational American English. Before a chant is presented its situational context is explained and various difficult words are pronounced and some intonation patterns are practiced. Also certain structural information is presented (facts concerning the present progressive tense and the change of *going to* to *gonna* in speech vs. writing, for example). Then the students listen to the chant on the cassette. They practice repeating each line of the chant after the teacher and then respond to the cassette as a group. Also, the class can be divided into two groups: one taking the role of the teacher and the other the chorus. In this way everyone gets to participate in the dialogue of the chant. Teachers can make up their own special phrases and chants to help teach various aspects of the stress, intonation, and rhythmic patterns of English.

Morphology and Syntax

Basic structures

Demonstration and participation activities are effective in helping children to learn the basic structures. Below are examples of such drills and activities:

Commands—Give commands to children and let them take turns giving commands to others. Encourage each student to give a different command. Examples are:

Stand up. Sit down.
Walk/run to the window.
Open/close the door.
Pick up/put down the chalk.
Write/erase your name.

Verb Inflections—Describe what you are doing. Example: "I am walking." Then ask the students: "What am I doing?" Have them answer: "You are walking." Then ask a question in the third person:

Teacher: What is Bill doing?
Students: Bill (or He) is walking.

The teacher always starts the pattern. This example can be repeated with other verbs and you can also substitute other tenses with the addition of adverbs, as in:

Yesterday I walked.
Tomorrow I will walk.
Every day I walk.

These structures should eventually be put into fuller sentences such as "Yesterday I walked to the store."

Possessives—The possessive forms should be introduced in the context of the children's names and what they possess, as in Mary's dress, Bill's picture. Point to the children and ask questions about them, such as:

T: What color is Mary's dress?
S: Mary's dress is red.
T: Where is Bill's picture?
S: Bill's picture is on the wall.

Prepositions—

• Combine prepositional phrases with verbs and actions and have the students repeat such sentences as

I am walking *to the window.*
Jane is sitting *on the chair.*
The book is *on the desk.*

• Have the children place objects in various places in the classroom and ask them to describe the location of the object and what they themselves did, as in:

Jane walked *to the desk.*
Jane put the book *on the desk.*
The book is *on the desk.*

Questions—

• Have the children ask questions about one another's location or action using question words:

Where is John?
Who is standing by the window?
What is under the desk?

There are effective methods for teaching question structures to older children as well.

• Using flash cards, ask the students to match a question word on one card with the appropriate question on another card. (Example from David M. Davidson, *Current Approaches to the Teaching of Grammar in ESL*, CAL, 1978, p. 12):

Question Words	*Question*
When	your brother older or younger?
Where	you going back to Peru when you finish school?
How	you like this school?

What	did you come to the U.S.?
Whom	are you from?
Do	do you live with?
Are	is your best subject?
Is	old are you?

Teachers can, of course, expand on this type of exercise.

• Give the students certain function words and have them form their own questions using them. The following is a list of function words:

am	do	has	can	will	shall	may
is	does	have	could	would	should	might
are	did	had				must
was						
were						

• The teacher cues the student with a statement, then another student changes the statement into a question followed by another student who answers the question:

T: Jim's at home.
S_1: Where's Jim?
S_2: He's at home.

T: He's reading.
S_1: What's he doing?
S_2: He's reading.

Transformation drills

Transformation drills are effective in the teaching of grammar because they take a stimulus and transform it to another pattern. Transformation drills can be used to teach the following structures:

Questions—Give a statement and have the students change it to a question, as in:

T: Mary is a good student.
S: Is Mary a good student?
T: John plays tennis.
S: Does John pl y tennis?

Negatives—Give an affirmative statement and have the students change it to the negative:

T: Mary is a good student.
S: Mary is not a good student.

Verb Tenses—Give a statement in the present tense and have the students change it to past/future tenses:

T: Mary plays tennis.
S: Mary played tennis.
S: Mary will play tennis.
S: Mary has played tennis, etc.

Number—Give a statement in the singular and have the students change it to plural and vice versa:

T: The boy plays tennis.
S: The boys play tennis.
T: The children like to read stories.
S: The child likes to read a story.

Active/Passive Voice—Give a sentence in the active voice and have the students change it to the passive form and vice versa:

T: Columbus discovered America in 1492.
S: America was discovered by Columbus in 1492.

Other exercises

There are other types of grammar drills that focus on particular aspects and skills the students need.

Word Order Exercises—A good way to teach English word order is to present the students with the words of a sentence that are out of order (on flash cards, on an overhead, or on the blackboard). Have the students put the words in the correct order.

to/went/brother/yesterday/the/vegetables/buy/store/my/and/bought

correct sentence: My brother went to the store yesterday and bought vegetables.

Combining of Sentences—Give students a few sentences that they must combine into a correct sentence:

(1) I have a brother.
(2) My brother is tall.
(3) My brother is handsome.
(4) My brother is older than I.

answer: My older brother is tall and handsome.

Substitution Drills and Pattern Practice—A pattern practice-substitution drill is a rapid oral drill on a problem pattern in which attention is focused on something other than the problem itself. These drills help the student become more familiar with important structural patterns in English. (This is the same type of exercise that was used to teach intonation and stress.)

Question:
T: Do you understand?
S: Do you understand?
T: hear
S: Do you hear?
T: see
S: Do you see?
T: know
S: Do you know?
T: they
S: Do they know?

Statement:
T: I like the white house.
S: I like the white house.
T: green
S: I like the green house.
T: chair
S: I like the green chair.

Statement:
T: The girls are coming.
S: The girls are coming.
T: child
S: The child is coming.
T: playing
S: The child is playing.

A substitution drill can be carried further by making it an addition drill as well:

T: I read a story.
S: I read a story.
T: short
S: I read a short story.
T: in the magazine
S: I read a short story in the magazine.
T: that I bought
S: I read a short story in the magazine that I bought.
T: yesterday
S: I read a short story in the magazine that I bought yesterday.
T: in the grocery store
S: I read a short story in the magazine that I bought yesterday in the grocery store.

Completion Drills—The students must complete an unfinished sentence:

I saw a man

Cloze Procedure—This procedure is used for both language teaching and testing. In teaching, the teacher puts a short paragraph on the blackboard. The students read and repeat it aloud many times. Make sure that they understand everything that is written in the paragraph. Then start erasing a few words at a time (for example every fifth word). Have the students read the paragraph aloud again and fill in the missing words. Continue this procedure until finally there is nothing left on the board and the students can recite the paragraph from memory. The teacher can erase words at random or can choose special types of words to remove each time, such as adjectives, prepositions, function words, depending on the grammatical structures that are being studied at the time. A cloze exercise can also be presented in written form.

Compositions—Compositions can be assigned at the intermediate and advanced levels. These compositions should be short (a few paragraphs long) at the less advanced levels. They should also be controlled rather than free compositions. This means that teachers should specify exactly what they want included in the composition. This can be a list of phrases, words, special verb tenses, etc. The teacher can also assign a topic. This controlled type of composition thus limits the avoidance phenomenon, often prevalent in free compositions, and ensures that the students will use the grammatical structures that are being taught.

Games

Various games that native English speakers play can be helpful in teaching the recognition and production of morphological and grammatical structures as well as teaching communicative skills. Below are some examples:

Simon Says—Players perform commands dictated by the group leader only if preceded by the phrase "Simon says." If a student follows an order that is not preceded by "Simon says" he/she is out of the game. This game is good for learning command forms.

Gossip—A student whispers something to another student who passes it on until the message finally reaches the last person who

must tell the group what he/she has heard. This game encourages the student to construct original sentences.

Twenty Questions—Students ask questions about a particular object in the room unknown to them or a student pretends to be a famous person and the others have to guess his/her identity. This game is good for teaching students to ask original questions.

Original Group Story—The teacher starts with a sentence such as "There once was a princess." Each student adds another sentence until the group has created a complete story. This is a good game for teaching the creation of sentences. Other types of grammar drills can then be done using the students' sentences as a basis.

Stories or Descriptions from Pictures—Show the students a picture and have them describe what is going on in the picture. Or you can have them make up their own story about what they see in the picture.

Baseball Game—Alice C. Omaggio (*Games and Simulations in the Foreign Language Classroom*, CAL, 1978) suggests a baseball game where the class is divided into teams. The teacher is the 'pitcher' and asks questions of various levels of difficulty to the students, who are the batters. The levels of difficulty can range from giving the third person singular present tense of a regular verb, to conjugating all the persons of the verb, to using the verb in an original sentence, etc. Students who answer the first level question advance to first base, the second level question to second base and so on until the player crosses 'home plate' and a run is scored. If a batter cannot answer a question a strike is called, and three strikes make an 'out.' Naturally, the team with the most runs at the end of the class period is the winner.

Grammar Questions in a Spelling-Bee Format—The class is divided into two teams, lined up on opposite sides of the room. The teacher asks a student from one team a question concerning some aspect of morphology or syntax (such as the form of a verb in different tenses.) If he/she answers the question correctly the student remains standing. If not, the student sits down and a member from the other team is given a chance to answer the question. The team with the most members still standing at the end of the class period is the winner.

Role Play—Create a situation, such as a job interview, a new student at school meeting the teacher or a classmate for the first time, buying a ticket in the train station or at a movie theater, buying

clothes in a store, asking directions, and have the students play the roles of the various characters as they create their own dialogue. Communicative skills should be encouraged in the context of real-life situations versus grammar drills. However, drills are necessary to gain a good command of the structures so that the students can reach a good level of communication.

Vocabulary

In teaching vocabulary the teacher should teach not only the meaning but also the use of the word.

Teaching Meaning

- Teach meaning by context. For example, in teaching the meanings of *late, early,* and *on time* the teacher explains them in the following ways:

  late: The movie starts at 9:00. John comes at 9:15. John is *late.*
  early: The movie starts at 9:00. John comes at 8:30. John is *early.*
  on time: The movie starts at 9:00. John comes at 9:00. He is *on time.*

- Give definitions in the target language. For example:

  "A punch bowl is a very large, deep round container used for serving a beverage such as punch to a large number of people."

- Use opposites—contrast words—in a sentence:

  The store is *open,* not *closed.*
  John is *tall,* not *short.*

- Give synonyms or alternate expressions to express the same idea as in:

Mary is not *ready* for class.
Mary is not *prepared* for class.

- Use pictures and drawings, for example show a picture of a *sheep* and one of a *ship* and of a person *watching* vs. *washing* a car. Pictures can be quite helpful in teaching meaning and can be used as a vocabulary stimulus as well. However be careful in your choice of pictures since they can often be ambiguous and confusing to the students.
- Dramatize—walk, sit down, pretend to sleep, look happy, sad, angry, move quickly, slowly—when teaching such vocabulary as verbs of motion and various adjectives and adverbs.
- Use realia—Use real objects or models of various foods, household objects, and the like.

Presenting Vocabulary Items

- Present vocabulary items in semantic fields or domains such as:

education	*food*	*clothes*
school	meat	suit
subjects of study	fish	dress
paper	fruits	pants
homework	dessert	shirt
composition	drinks	tie
exam	meals	jewelry
weather	*time*	*feelings*
hot	days of week	mood
cold	months of year	love
windy	seasons	hate
humid	telling time	sorrow
rain	morning	respect
snow	evening	emotion
culture	*government*	*places*
art	nation	home
music	president	office
drama	congress	bank
dance	laws	store
movies	elections	park
museum	county	zoo

professions	*family*	*rooms of house*
doctor	father	living room
lawyer	mother	dining room
teacher	sister	kitchen
engineer	uncle	bathroom
worker	cousin	bedroom
maid	grandmother	den

furniture

chair
table
bed
sofa
desk
bookcase

Teach the vocabulary needed at school and crucial vocabulary needed outside the home before you teach vocabulary such as religious or cooking vocabulary, which is more likely to be expressed in Spanish in the home.

• Present the vocabulary in a context especially with function words and prepositions to show differences in how they are used:

I live *in* New York.
I live *on* 42nd Street.
I live *at* 2325 42nd Street.

• Give examples that show the range of a word. Below are examples one could use in teaching the range of the words *free* and *pick up:*

He is a *free* man.
President Lincoln *freed* the slaves.
This book is *free.*
Are you *free* this afternoon?
Do you have any *free* time?
She feels *free* as a bird.

He *picked up* the telephone.
He *picked up* the groceries.
He *picked up* the baby's toys.
He *picked* Mary *up* at 4:30.

• Certain vocabulary can be presented in a series, such as the names of the days of the week, the months of the year, and numbers. They should also be practiced out of the series so that the students

can recognize and produce them when they appear individually.
• Read, say, repeat, and write the word. Have the students read, say, and repeat the words that are written on flash cards or on the board. Then have them write the words to learn the correct spelling.

Teaching Cognates

• First teach the cognates that are most similar. Present these cognates as part of a pattern rather than as independent items. For example, teach the words having the same endings as part of the same unit:

> English words ending in *-tion* such as na*tion*, combina*tion*, emo*tion* and condi*tion*, which end in *-ción* in Spanish.
> English words ending in *-ty* such as possibili*ty*, reali*ty*, varie*ty* and communi*ty*, which end in *-dad* in Spanish.
> English words that end in *-al* such as anim*al*, crimin*al*, person*al* which also end in *-al* in Spanish but have a different stress (see p. 37ff.)
> English words ending in *-ial*, such as commerc*ial* and artific*ial*, that have the same ending in Spanish but have a different stress.

• When teaching false cognates, it is best to teach them in a context so that the differences and similarities in meaning between the words in the two languages will be better understood by the student. For instance, when teaching the English words *succeed* and *happen* the teacher might use examples such as:

> He succeeded in his work.—Tuvo éxito en su trabajo.
> What happened?—¿Qué sucedió?

The above sentences illustrate the difference in the two languages whereas a sentence like

> Truman succeeded Roosevelt.—Truman sucedió a Roosevelt.

illustrates the similarities in both languages.

Building Vocabulary

Games are very helpful in encouraging the expansion or building of vocabulary. Below are examples of such games:

Chain Games—Each student adds a vocabulary item to the end of a

sentence while repeating the previous additions to the sentence. For example, Student $_1$ says:

> Yesterday I went to the grocery store and bought a loaf of bread.

Student $_2$ follows with:

> Yesterday I went to the grocery store and bought a loaf of bread and some milk.

Student $_3$ follows with something like:

> Yesterday I went to the grocery store and bought a loaf of bread, some milk, and an apple.

Categories—A student picks items in a semantically related category (names of fruits, items of clothing) or syntactic items, such as a certain kind of adjective or words having double letters. The student starts out with a sentence like:

> When I go to France I'm taking a

The object of the game is to guess the category by adding a word to the list from the same category. If the student guesses the correct category his/her word is accepted. If not, it is rejected.

Words per Minute—The teacher gives a letter of the alphabet to the students and they have a certain amount of time to write as many words as they can that begin or end with that letter (can be played by individuals or teams). This game can be further restricted if the teacher supplies a category and a letter so that the words to be listed by the students must fit into a certain category.

Catch and Say—The class forms a circle. The teacher throws a ball to someone in the circle and says a word. The person who catches the ball must produce the opposite word or a synonym, the plural form of the word, another verb tense, etc. This is a fast-moving game, which is good for building opposites, synonyms, and other morphological features of the language.

Flash Cards—with pictures, numbers, arithmetic problems, colors, animals, can be used in a competition in spelling-bee format. The students must name the object, number, do the problem, that appears on the card. Flash cards can also have words written on them and the students must give the opposite word, a synonym, or a

related word from the same category. Many variations are possible with the use of flash cards.

Pictures and Diagrams—The teacher shows a picture or diagram to the class and asks the students to describe the objects in the picture. The teacher can also remove the picture from view and have the students describe the objects from memory.

Popular Games—Other commonly played games also help in the building of vocabulary. These games include:

(1) Scrabble
(2) Crossword Puzzles
(3) Word Search Puzzles
(4) Hangman
(5) Scrambled Letters and Words, in which students compete to unscramble the words in the list.