

NAVIGATING A PLURICENTRIC LANGUAGE IN THE CLASSROOM: ATTITUDES  
TOWARDS REGIONAL VARIETIES OF SPANISH

by

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A DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the  
Department of Modern Languages and  
Classics in the Graduate School of  
The University of Alabama

TUSCALOOSA, ALABAMA

2019

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## **ABSTRACT**

Spanish language regional varieties have been studied in the contexts of heritage speakers, language beliefs and attitudes, and language policy. Although these studies have been significant to the field, there is little reference to the role of Spanish instructors' attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties in a communicative foreign language classroom as an important aspect when preparing students to enter a globalized world.

More specifically, this investigation analyzes instructors' attitudes towards the use of regional varieties in the classroom and how these attitudes influence the inclusion or exclusion of those varieties in the language classroom. Research instruments include an online questionnaire, video recordings of basic and intermediate Spanish classes, field notes, and focus group interviews.

Findings show that although there are some instructors who use their regional variety because it is considered prestigious, there are others who modify their classroom discourse because of perpetuated attitudes that include stigmatization of their variety or because their variety is different from that in the textbook. At the same time, extralinguistic factors such as syllabi, textbooks, and language tests influence decisions related to Spanish regional varieties. These findings offer insights for Spanish pedagogy, teacher training, curriculum design, and language policy and planning.

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to my daughter, my husband, my parents, and all my family.

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

ACTFL	American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages.
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COPs	Communities of Practice
GTAs	Graduate Teaching Assistants
MGT	Matched Guise Technique

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank various people for their contributions to this research study, including my family, my professors, and my research participants, without whom this research would not have been possible.

First, I would like to thank my daughter, Ana María, who has been a constant source of sweetness, happiness, and encouragement. Also, I wish to thank my husband, Giovanni, who has given me his personal and academic support throughout this journey. My deepest appreciation goes to my parents, who have always loved me unconditionally, and whose good examples have taught me to work hard to achieve my goals.

I owe my deepest gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Alicia Cipria, for her valuable and constructive suggestions during the different stages of this research work. Also, I would like to thank the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Bryan Koronkiewicz, Dr. Erin O'Rourke, Dr. Michael Picone, and Dr. Sonia Pritzker, for their useful critiques during the planning and development of this research study. My special thanks are extended to the Spanish language program director, Dr. Koronkiewicz, for supporting this research project, and the group of Graduate Teaching Assistants without whom this project would not have been possible.

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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to him in his language, that goes to his heart.

—*Nelson Mandela*

Variation is a feature that characterizes all languages due to factors such as geography, society, and the speech community in which it takes place. More specifically, language variation in Latin America, according to Lipski (2014), is the result of two specific factors: language contact due to voluntary or forced migration and the ‘idiosyncrasies’ of Spanish Imperialism. However, despite the existence of variation in the Spanish-speaking world, there are monocentric views of the Spanish language that acknowledge the dominance of one regional variety, which is usually associated with centers such as Madrid in Spain. These monocentric views of the language influence speakers’ attitudes towards other regional varieties and their own. Therefore, selecting a Spanish regional variety to use in the classroom is one of the challenges that arises when language instructors embark on the journey of teaching Spanish as a foreign language. Taking into consideration the previously described situation, the current study explores instructors’ attitudes towards regional varieties of Spanish and their own, the internal and external factors that are embedded in those attitudes, and the influence of such attitudes in classroom discourse and teaching practices.

In her discussion about globalization and foreign language learning, Kramsch (2014) asserted that the field of foreign language teaching needs to move from language classrooms

inclined to a monoglossic approach to the language that neglects language variation, to classrooms that include social, cultural, and linguistic differences among member communities. She therefore suggested that teachers need to “stop pretending this is how all native speakers speak in all walks of life and in all circumstances” (p. 305). In other words, Kramsch invited language teachers to be more inclusive in terms of regional variation of the target language, so that students are prepared to interact with more heteroglossic speech communities. Within the same line, Bloomert (2010) highlighted the changing dynamic of language, which is influenced by globalization and by the changes that its speakers experience. In this way, accepting differences in language use is important to avoid the concept of standard, which according to Milroy (2001) is always associated with the concepts of correctness, superiority, or inferiority, which explicitly or implicitly influence speakers’ (teachers in the current study) attitudes towards other language varieties as well as their own.

### **1.1 Spanish Regional Varieties and Communicative Language Teaching**

Foreign language learners’ awareness of Spanish regional varieties should be part of their linguistic as well as cultural skills. For the current study, such awareness is closely related to the concept of communicative language use, described by Bachman (1990) as one that “involves a dynamic interaction between the situation, the language user, and the discourse, in which communication is something more than the simple transfer of information” (p. 4). Bachman explained that there are two main aspects that characterize language competence. The first one is organizational competence, which includes grammatical competence as well as textual competence. The second element emphasizes pragmatic competence, which includes illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Sociolinguistic competence includes sensitivity to dialect or variety, cultural references and figures of speech, sensitivity to

naturalness, and sensitivity to register. Both sensitivity to naturalness and to dialect or variety are the scope of the current study.

Similarly, Richards (2006) explained that some of the important elements of communicative competence in a second language include knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions, knowing how to vary the use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication), and knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, conversations). This communicative approach is observed in the Standards for Language Learning (See Appendix A) proposed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). In addition, having good communicative competence includes knowing how to use the language to communicate within the target language communities, which has been identified as one of the students' main goals when learning a foreign language, as reported by Magnan, Murphy, and Sahakyan (2014). Conclusions from the current study add pertinent information on how the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties in the second language classroom align or deviate from the precepts of Communicative Language Teaching, Communities of Practice, and the ACTFL standards: Communication and Communities domains.

## **1.2 Importance of Spanish Regional Varieties in the Classroom**

Research on the use of Spanish language variation in the classroom points to the importance of exposing language learners to second language (L2) regional varieties to become familiar with those varieties and recognize them in real communicative events (Droege, Licerias, & Carballo, 1994; Gallego & Conley, 2014; Garcelli, Granata, & Mariottini, 2018; Geeslin, 2015; Guitart, 1978; Gutierrez & Fairclough, 2006; Leeman, 2012; McGroarty, 1996; Monerris-

Oliveras, 2015; Pérez Leroux, 2000; Rueda- Jenkins, 1990; Schoonmaker-Gates, 2017; Train, 2003; Valdés, Gonzalez, García & Márquez, 2003; Wolfram, 2013; Wolfram, Adger, & Christian, 1999). Methodologies used in these studies include exploration of language attitudes towards regional varieties through interviews and self-reported questionnaires, the development of students' receptive skills after being exposed to a target regional variety in the classroom or while studying abroad, and analysis of Spanish textbooks.

These scholars highlight the importance of a constant exposure and acceptance of regional varieties to foster students' development of receptive skills, as well to manage variation, so they are not constrained by social judgments (standard vs. nonstandard; prestige vs. stigmatized). Although these studies have provided good insights into the use of language varieties in the language classroom and have been intended to shed light on the state of the field, there are few to no studies on instructors' attitudes towards other varieties or their own and how these attitudes influence verbal interaction and daily teaching practices within the classroom.

### **1.3 The Current Study**

This research study aimed to investigate the attitudes of Spanish instructors towards other regional varieties and their own, the internal and external factors that are embedded in those attitudes, and the influence of such attitudes on verbal interaction and daily teaching practices in the language classroom. The study specifically interviewed 11 instructors through an online questionnaire, video-recorded their classes to observe different stages of a thematic unit and invited the instructors to participate in a focus-group interview to compare participants' opinions throughout the different stages of the study. Analyzing the inclusion or exclusion of regional varieties shed light on the integration of CLT precepts related to the use of natural language, COPs, and ACTFL standards domains: Communication and Communities.

## 1.4 Chapter Overview

This research study is organized as follows. Chapter 2 presents the literature review that supports the current study. It starts with a brief reference to Spanish dialect classification that conceives the ideas of standard versus nonstandard, which embody the concepts of *prestige* and *language loyalty*. The existence of these descriptors makes people have positive or negative attitudes towards other varieties and their own. Chapter 2 concludes with a brief historical overview of the most common teaching methods, the development of CLT, ACTFL Standards, and COPs.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology followed in this study. The chapter starts with a description of the pilot study, followed by a summary of the Spanish program where the current study took place and a brief reference to participants' demographics. Next, the chapter presents and explains the data collection instruments and methods and concludes with the description of the data analysis procedures.

Chapter 4 reports the main findings of this study. It includes a detailed reference to how the target language is used in the classroom and reports the dualistic division of Spanish (Spain vs. Latin America) that, one way or the other, influences speakers' attitudes towards other varieties and their own. The chapter also presents a series of ideas about what a coordinated program means and implications in the absence or presence of regional varieties in the teaching material. Finally, this chapter concludes with references as to how instructors help students develop their communicative skills in order to prepare them to interact with speakers from different Spanish-speaking regions.

Chapter 5 discusses the main findings of the current study. In the first section I examine Research Question 1 by focusing on two categories that emerged during the data analysis stage:

(a) instructors' own use of Spanish regional varieties, and (b) use of authentic teaching material in which Spanish regional varieties are present. Section 2 discusses Research Question 2 based on four major categories: (a) selecting peninsular Spanish over other regional varieties, (b) identifying instructors' attitudes towards other varieties and their own, (c) understanding Spanish coordinated programs, and (d) relating the native- or non-native-of-Spanish factor to the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties in the classroom. Section 3 of this chapter addresses Research Question 3 by referring to the tenets of CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines about natural use of the target language, communication, and communities and how the use of regional varieties aligns with those purposes.

Chapter 6 presents some of the main takeaways of this research study. It addresses influential factors in the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties. Also, it includes pedagogical suggestions on how to incorporate Spanish regional varieties in language classes. Finally, the chapter concludes with limitations of the study, which could lead to future research orientations.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

Lipski (2012) stated that, apart from Antarctica, there are more than 400 million native or near-native speakers of Spanish distributed around the globe. These speakers are subject to contact with other languages, population migration, language propagation through missionary activities, and the reorganization of educational systems in cities, which affects the Spanish language in the areas of pronunciation, vocabulary, and syntax, among others. The current study seeks to explore the attitudes of Spanish instructors towards regional varieties of the Spanish language, the reasons behind their attitudes, and how their view of the language aligns or deviates from the precepts of CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines.

In the first section of this literature review, I present some of the most recognized Spanish dialectal classifications made by experts in the field; in the second section, I review standard versus nonstandard terms, prestige, language loyalty, and language attitudes; in the following section, I summarize previous studies on teachers and students' attitudes towards Spanish varieties, language policy, and language varieties; then I present a summary of CLT principles, followed by ACTFL guidelines and COPs.

### **2.1 Classification of Spanish Dialects**

Although the task of identifying and describing Spanish dialects is a difficult one for its vast number of speakers and regions, some researchers have embarked on this journey to help both Spanish speakers and non-Spanish speakers understand Spanish linguistic idiosyncrasies. Resnick (1975) stated that trying to explain the relationship between geographical regions and their phonological features is an interesting task due to the array of alternatives it offers.

Before proceeding to the classification of Spanish dialects, I introduce this section with the Spanish phonetic chart (Figure 1) developed by T. Morgan (2010), which serves as a reference for the information that is presented throughout this work regarding phonetic variation in the Spanish-speaking world.

## Las consonantes del español

		Bilabial		Labiodental		Dental		Alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Uvular		Glotal	
Oclusiva		p	b			t	d				j	k	g				
Fricativa no sibilante		ɸ		f	v	θ					j	x		χ			h
Aproximante			β				ð						ɣ				
Fricativa sibilante	predorsal							s	z	ʃ	ʒ						
	apical							ɬ	ɮ								
Africada										tʃ	(tʃ)						
Nasal		m		ɱ		ɲ		n		ɲ		ŋ					
Vibrante	simple							r									
	múltiple							r									
Lateral						ɭ		l		ʎ							

Figure 1. T. Morgan's (2010) Spanish Phonetic System.

**2.1.1 Spain and its dialectal areas.** According to Lipski (2012), traditional approaches make a distinction between north and south when presenting dialect divisions in Spain. Southern features include aspiration or elision of syllable and word-final /s/ (e.g., *vamos pues* ['ba. moh. 'pue] 'let's go, then'), loss of word-final /r/ (e.g., *por favor* [po.fa. 'βo] 'please'), and the pronunciation of pre-consonantal /l/ as [r] (e.g., *soldado* [sor. 'ða.o] 'soldier'). This example also shows intervocalic deletion of [d]. Traits widely regarded as northern include the apico-alveolar pronunciation [ɬ] /s/, the strongly uvular pronunciation [χ] of the posterior fricative /x/ (e.g., *caja*

['ka.χa] ‘box’), and the phonological distinction /θ/-/s/ (e.g., casa ['ka. ɣa] ‘house’ -caza ['ka.θa] ‘hunting’). Lipski (2012) clarified that when these types of linguistic traits are based on geographical divisions, one puts aside the idea of intersection or overlapping of dialects.

Therefore, he suggested a possible more objective division in which he included the following regions:

- northern Castile, including Salamanca, Valladolid, Burgos, and neighboring provinces;
- northern Extremadura and León, including the province of Cáceres, parts of León, western Salamanca province, and Zamora;
- Galicia, referring to the Spanish spoken both monolingually and in contact with Galician;
- Asturias, especially inland areas such as Oviedo;
- the interior Cantabrian region, to the south of Santander;
- the Basque Country, including Spanish as spoken monolingually and in contact with Basque;
- Catalonia, including Spanish spoken in contact with Catalan;
- southeastern Spain, including much of Valencia, Alicante, Murcia, Albacete, and southeastern La Mancha;
- eastern Andalusia, including Granada, Almería, and surrounding areas;
- western Andalusia, including Seville, Huelva, Cádiz, and the Extremadura province of Badajoz; the Spanish of Gibraltar is also included; and
- south central and southwest Spain, including areas to the south of Madrid such as Toledo and Ciudad Real.

**2.1.2 Latin America and its dialectal areas.** Regarding Latin America, Table 1 shows an overview of three of the most influential classifications of the Spanish language dialects.

Table 1

*Three Common Divisions of Spanish Dialects*

Author	Proposed Division of Spanish Dialects for Latin America
Henríquez Ureña (1977)	<p>Henríquez Ureña proposed 5 main dialectal classifications in which contact with indigenous language was considered.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Mexico, including New Mexico and most of Central America (in contact with the Nahuatl)</li> <li>2. The Caribbean (Antilles and Coastal regions of Colombia and Venezuela (in contact with the Lucayo: Arawakan people of the Bahamas)</li> <li>3. Highland South America, from Colombia to Bolivia and northern Chile (in contact with Quechua)</li> <li>4. Central and southern Chile (in contact with Mapuche and Araucano)</li> <li>5. The ‘River Plate’ nations of Argentina, Uruguay and Paraguay (in contact with Guaraní)</li> </ol>
Canfield (1981)	<p>Canfield took into consideration the development of Latin American Spanish at three different periods.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. 1550: Highland Bolivia, Perú, Ecuador, Colombia, Mexico, Andean Venezuela, Northwestern Argentina, Costa Rica and Guatemala.</li> <li>2. 1650: Paraguay, New Mexico/Colorado, western Argentina, the River Plate region, southern Chile, the Central American region including el Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua.</li> <li>3. 1750: the Antilles; coastal areas of Mexico, Venezuela, Colombia (including all of Panama), Ecuador, central Chile, Florida (immigrant), New York City (immigrant), St, Bernard Parish, Louisiana.</li> </ol>
Lipski (2012)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Mexico (except for coastal areas) and southwestern United States;</li> <li>2. Caribbean region: Cuba, Puerto Rico, Dominican Republic, Panama, Caribbean coast of Colombia and Venezuela, Caribbean coast of Mexico, and Mexico’s Pacific coast;</li> <li>3. Guatemala, parts of the Yucatan, and Costa Rica;</li> <li>4. El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua;</li> <li>5. Colombia (interior) and neighboring highlands areas of Venezuela;</li> <li>6. Pacific coast of Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru;</li> <li>7. Andean regions of Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, northwest Argentina, and northeast Chile;</li> <li>8. Chile;</li> <li>9. Paraguay, northeastern Argentina, and eastern Bolivia;</li> <li>10. Argentina (except for extreme northwest and northeast) and Uruguay.</li> </ol>

Henrriquez Ureña (1977) received criticism of his classification for having considered only lexical items and contact with indigenous languages. Rona (1993) noted that Henrriquez Ureña's classification was based on extralinguistic factors such as the indigenous influence on Spanish. Rona explained that in order to determine a dialect area, there has to be an approach that starts with the study of language facts (*hechos del lenguaje*) to explain extralinguistic facts (*hechos extra-linguísticos*) and not the opposite, as Henrriquez Ureña did when grouping Latin American dialectal zones. In my view, extralinguistic facts determine most of the language that speech communities choose in their daily interactions, and the classification proposed by Henrriquez Ureña reflects the approach that his contemporary linguistic anthropologist Boas took. According to Boas (1911), one finds interesting features that differentiate languages in natural connected speech.

About the geographic zones proposed by Henrriquez Ureña, Lipski (1994) explained that, for example, in Henrriquez Ureña's first zone the varieties of Mexican Spanish are unlikely to be confounded with varieties of Nicaragua or Costa Rica. Also, the Spanish of Buenos Aires differs from that of Paraguay. Lipski (1994) commented that regarding indigenous influence in Spanish, the vocabulary stands out as the main area where traits of languages such as Nahuatl, Quechua and Arawak are found. At the same time, in the Caribbean, for example, the influence exerted by Arawak, Taíno and Siboney has been observed in just a few lexical items. Although, these factors make Henrriquez Ureña's classification weak, Lipski (1994) acknowledged that this classification "continues to crop up in thumbnail sketches of Latin American dialect geography" (p. 7).

Moreno Fernández (1993) pointed out that Canfield's arrangement of Spanish dialectal zones in Latin America established geographic boundaries based on phonetic traits, origin and

dates when these linguistic aspects started and how they were disseminated. This chronological and geographical division was also based on Canfield's knowledge of those places he had lived, ignoring an ambitious division of the whole Spanish-speaking world.

Lipski (1994) explained that Dialects 1 and 3 included in Canfield's divisions share phonetic similarities. In the first-time frame (1550), there are phonetic correspondences such as retention of syllable-final /s/ as a sibilant, together with assibilation of /r/ and /r/, and the occasional alveolar pronunciation of /r/. It is the same case for division three (1850), in which consonant-weak dialects of Latin America, in which syllable-final /s/, /l/ and /r/ weaken and frequently disappear. However, dialects in the second division (1650) present more differences, for example, retention of /ʎ/ (Paraguay), *žéismo* (River Plate zone) (e.g. calle ['ka-ʒe] o mayo ['ma-ʒ o], and *yeísmo* with very weak intervocalic /j/ (Central America) (e.g. playa [pla-ia] or [pla-ja]) (p. 23).

Canfield's contributions show a relationship between the linguistic changes that Spanish in the Peninsula was experiencing and those that were happening in Latin American Spanish. Although it is relevant to note those similarities, it is also important to observe that regions in Spain and Latin America have historically displayed disparate social, economic, and educational dynamics, which have, in turn, resulted in varying language uses and attitudes towards users and uses.

**2.1.3 Classification of Spanish dialects: A summary.** The classification that Lipski (2012) proposed summarizes previous historical divisions. He explained that his classification intended to fulfill a pedagogical purpose through a combination of phonetic, morphological, sociohistorical, and language contact data. He also focused on patterns of settlement and contact with indigenous languages considered as some of the most common factors that have been adopted

in Spanish language dialectal divisions. The next section presents examples that focus on phonetic and phonological differences between Spanish dialects based on Lipski (2012) schemata, enhanced with citations of other researchers.

### **2.1.3.1 Phonetic and phonological differences.**

#### **2.1.3.1.1 Presence-absence of oppositions: /s/- /θ/, /j/-/ʎ/.**

- The opposition /s/ - /θ/ characterizes all Peninsular varieties except for western and Central Andalusia, as in examples 1 and 2.

1. /θ/ Cena ['θe.na] 'dinner'      decir [de.'θir] 'to say'

2. /s/ sol ['sɔl] 'sun'      casa ['ka.ɣa] 'house'

- The neutralization of /s/ - /θ/ in favor of /s/ is known as *seseo* and occurs in provinces of western Andalusia, Canary Islands, and all of Latin America, as in example 3.

3. /s/ cena ['se.na] 'dinner'      sol ['sol] 'sun'

- The neutralization of /s/ - /θ/ in favor of /θ/ is known as *ceceo* (usually stigmatized) in some areas of Andalusia, as in example 4.

4. /θ/ cena ['θe.na] 'dinner'      sol ['θol] 'sun'

- In the Philippines and Equatorial Guinea, where Spanish is also spoken, the difference between /s/ and /θ/ appears sporadically due to the influence of different Peninsular sources during the Spanish settlements.

- The distinction between palatal lateral phoneme, as in examples 5 and 6.

5. /ʎ/ written as <ll>: e.g., *se calló* [se ka.'ʎo] 'she became silent'

6. /j/ written as <y>: e.g., *se cayó* [se ka.'jo] 'she fell down'

- The distinction between /k/ and /j/ began to disappear in favor of nonlateral pronunciation in the 16th Century known as *yeísmo*. Few Spanish-speaking regions keep the distinction: Paraguay, Bolivia, and northeastern and northwestern Argentina, as well as in some areas of Perú and Ecuador, as in examples 7 and 8.

7. *se calló* [se ka.'jo] 'she became silent'

8. *se cayó* [se ka.'jo] 'she fell down'

- Hualde (2005) reported that *lleísmo* pronunciation is losing ground, but it is still practiced by some speakers in northern and central Spain as well as in parts of Colombia, Ecuador, Perú, Bolivia, and Paraguay. But in most of these countries' urban areas there is a strong tendency towards *yeísmo* by younger speakers.

2.1.3.1.2 *Realization of coda consonants: /s/, /n/, /l/, /r/*. Coda or syllable-final consonants are located after the syllabic nucleus: **ad- mi- tir-** 'to admit', [d] and [r] are in coda position. This position is understood as the environment in which the greatest variation in the pronunciation of consonants and sociolinguistic differentiation of Spanish dialects occurs. The most salient differences include the following:

- In Spain, syllable- and word-final /s/ is aspirated or elided massively in the south, from Extremadura through Andalusia (including Gibraltar), Murcia, and parts of Alicante. In the Canary Islands the weakening of /s/ is compared to what happens in Andalusia.
- In most of Latin America, there is a strong tendency towards reduction of coda /s/ except for areas of most of Mexico, Guatemala, Costa Rica, and the highlands of Colombia, Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia, as in example 9.

9. *espera* [eh.'pe.ra] 'wait'.

One frequently finds aspiration of word-initial postvocalic /s/ in colloquial speech of El Salvador and much of Honduras, as in example 10.

10. *la señora* [la.he.'no.ra] ‘the lady’.

- Coda liquids /l/ and /r/ undergo weakening processes in Spanish. Loss of phrase-final /l/ and /r/ is common in Southern Spain and the Canary Islands. Change of /r/ to /l/ or lateralization is common in the Caribbean, particularly in Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic, and central Cuba and eastern Venezuela, as in example 11.

11. *puerta* ['puer.ta] to ['puel.ta] ‘door’

T. Morgan (2010) also reported rhoticism of /l/ in Andalusia. Liquids in coda position are pronounced as /r/, as in example 12.

12. *el balcón* [el.βar.'koŋ] ‘the balcony’

Lipski (2012) and T. Morgan (2010) also identified liquid gliding of /l/ and /r/ to semivocalic /j/. This feature characterizes Cibao, north of the Dominican Republic. These phonetic traits are stigmatized in most of the Spanish-speaking world, as in examples 13 and 14.

13. *puerta* ['puej.ta] ‘door’

14. *mujer* [mu.'hej] ‘woman’

- Velarization of /n/ is common in Galicia, parts of Asturias, Extremadura, Andalusia, the Canary Islands, all Caribbean and Central American dialects, along the Pacific Coast of Colombia, Peru, and Ecuador, and sporadically in the Andean highlands, as in example 15.

15. *con él* [ko.'nel] to [ko.ŋel] ‘with him’

2.1.3.1.3 *Realization of rhotics: /r/ and /r̄/. The following are the main three characteristics of rhotics:*

- In Spanish, there are two rhotic phonemes, the single tap /r/ and the trill /r̄/. All monolingual varieties of Spanish maintain the distinction between the two. However, Sephardic (judeo) Spanish has lost such differentiation in favor of the tap /r/.
- Besides the rhotic phonemes, /r/ and /r̄/, T. Morgan (2010) explained that in the Caribbean there is a tendency to pronounce the trill /r̄/ with a glottal aspiration.

*rico* [ˈhrī.ko] instead of [ˈri.ko] ‘rich’

- T. Morgan (2010) also mentioned that speakers from Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic produce a voiceless uvular [ʀ̥] which is also realized as uvular fricative [χ] or velar [x].

2.1.3.1.4 *Spanish vowels.* The Spanish vocalic system (see Figure 2) offers little to no variation across dialects, except for some slight modifications that affect the tonic and atonic vowels (Lipski, 2011). The following figure represents the traditional system reported by researchers Bradlow (1995), Ladefoged (2001), Martínez Celdrán (1994), Quilis and Esgueva, (1983), and Morrison and Escudero (2007, as cited in Willis, 2008).

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid		e	o
Low		a	
	Non-Round	Non-Round	Round

*Figure 2.* Spanish Vocalic System (as cited in Willis, 2008).

Hualde (2005) also stated that vowel qualities are stable among Spanish dialects. However, he reported a reduction in the vowel inventory due to language contact situations such as Quechua in Ecuador, Perú, and Bolivia. Aymara in Bolivia, Perú, and Chile medial vowels /e/ and /o/ are pronounced as /i/ and /u/ due to the influence of Quechua and Aymara, which only have three vowels /i a u/ (p. 120). Hualde (2005) added that there is shortening and deletion of unstressed vowels, especially before /s/ (e.g., buenas noch(e)s, p(ue)s, un caf(e)cito where the vowel in parenthesis may be deleted, in areas of Mexico and the Andes (p. 129)

### ***2.1.3.2 Morphological dialectal differences.***

*2.1.3.2.1 Forms of address.* Spanish speakers have at their disposition a variety of pronouns of address for the second person singular and the second person plural. In the singular, Spanish has four pronouns of address that can be used with one's interlocutor: *tú*, *usted*, *vos*, and *sumercé*. These pronouns of address, which are each in some way equivalent to the second person singular form *you* in English, take different verb endings, except for *sumercé*, which shares the same conjugation with the form *usted*. It is important to note that the presence, use, and social meaning of these forms vary depending on the dialect, with differences between Spain and Latin America being the greatest division.

Peninsular Spanish uses *tú* and *usted*, whereas most linguistic varieties in Latin America also include *vos* to some degree. The pronoun of address *sumercé*, an apocopated<sup>1</sup> form of *sumercéd* literally translated as “your mercy,” is used only in the central region of Colombia, including its capital, Bogotá, and on some sugar plantations of the Dominican Republic known as *bayetes* (Lipski, 1994). Generally, *usted* is characterized as the formal pronoun of address, *tú*

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<sup>1</sup> Apocopated: omission of the final sound or sounds of a word. (Merriam-Webster' online dictionary, 2018).

is used as the informal pronoun, *vos* is used as a form to express extreme solidarity and intimacy, and *sumercé* is used in Central Colombia to express a combination of both respect and affection. Contrary to its meaning and usage in Colombia, *sumercé* (or *su merced*) is considered archaic in all other Spanish linguistic varieties and is associated by these dialects with an extremely polite and formal form used to address people in very prominent positions of society.

In the plural, Peninsular Spanish uses the informal *vosotros* and the formal *ustedes*. On the other hand, Latin America includes only the form *ustedes*, which is used in all kinds of situations. Both forms *vosotros* and *ustedes* correspond to the plural pronoun of address you in English. As demonstrated, Spanish includes a rich variety of pronouns of address.

Within forms of address, the use of *vos* is another practice that has been analyzed in the classification of Spanish dialects. *Vos* is a pronoun of Latin origin used in Spain until Medieval times to denote formality and respect (Núñez-Méndez, 2012). People used *vos* to denote respect, especially to those of higher hierarchical status. However, as Spaniards started to use this pronoun to address other citizens, *vos* lost its value of respect, and therefore, new forms came to take its place. Because of its then association with the lowest individuals of society, Spaniards eradicated the use of *vos* from popular use in the XVIII century (Resnick & Hammond, 2011). However, the fate of *vos* on the other side of the Atlantic Ocean was different. Fernandez (2003) highlighted the preservation of *vos* in Spanish America, not as a form that conveyed respect, as it did at the beginning of the colony, but as a pronoun that expressed familiarity and solidarity.

*Vos* is present in almost all of Spanish America with the mere exception of Puerto Rico and a slight presence in Mexico, Panama, and Cuba (Fernandez, 2003). In Argentina it is the standard form and has become a sign of national and cultural identity. It is also highly used in most of Central America and in different regions of all South American nations. However, in

most of these nations where *vos* is present, it suffers sociolinguistic stratification and generates attitudes in areas such as education (Lipski, 1994). In the areas where *vos* suffers stigmatization, it is characteristic of the spoken language of the popular masses and makes part of a three-tiered pronominal system in which *vos* competes with the forms *tú* and *usted*.

Henriquez Ureña (1976), Lipski (1994), and Uber (2011) reported that *vos* is used with three different verb endings depending on the geographical location. The most common type (*estudiás/comprendés/escribís*) is used in Argentina, Uruguay, Paraguay, parts of Bolivia, Colombia, Venezuela, Central America and Southern Mexico. The second type of *vos* (*estudiáis/comprendéis/escribís*) can be found in Chile, Highland Ecuador, Southern Peru, Sothwestern Bolivia, and Northwestern Argentina. A third type uses the same verb endings as the *tú* form (*estudias/comprendes/escribes*) and is used in several regions such as Santiago del Estero in Argentina.

**2.1.3.3 Linguistic contact phenomena: Results of Spanish in contact with English in the United States.** As a nation with more than 40 million native Spanish speakers, the United States is home to different Spanish dialects that have also been in contact with English. Gutierrez and Fairclough (2006) stated that sociolinguistic research has found that U.S. Spanish is a variety of Spanish with characteristics that are the result of contact with English and, which in addition, are not found in other varieties of Spanish outside of the United States. Escobar and Potowski (2015) summarized the main linguistic phenomena that occur as Spanish comes in contact with English in the United States (see Figure 3).

**2.1.3.3.1 Code-switching.** Richards and Schmidt (2013) defined *code-switching* as a change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another. Code-switching can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other

speaker answers in a different language. Also, a person may start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence. Code-switching can involve various levels of language, for example, phonology, morphology, grammatical structures, or lexical items. Gutierrez and Fairclough (2006) explained that code-switching can happen as (a) single-word transfers, for example, *Ella es mean* (preserves English phonology for *mean*); or (b) as multiple-word transfers such as inter-sentential switches, for example, *Él no sabe hacerlo. I'll do it*; or intra-sentential switches, for example, *Y luego during the war, él se fue al Valle 'And later during the war, he went to Valle.'*

**2.1.3.3.2 Lexical borrowing.** Lexical borrowing as defined by Richards and Schmidt (2013) is a word or phrase that has been taken from one language and used in another language. For example: *yarda* 'yard,' instead of *el patio o el jardín*. When a borrowing is a single word, it is called a loan word. Sometimes, speakers try to pronounce borrowings as they are pronounced in the original language. However, if a borrowed word or phrase is widely used, most speakers will pronounce it according to the sound system of their own language—in this case, Spanish. Other examples provided by Escobar and Potowski (2015) are the following: *bate* 'bat,' *troca* 'truck'; in these two examples the ending sounds /t/ or /k/ are not part of the Spanish system, so a final /e/ and /a/ are added to the borrowing. In the word *estrés* (stress), because /s/+ consonant are not part of the Spanish system, initial /e/ has been added to the word to facilitate its pronunciation in Spanish.

**2.1.3.3.3 Loanshifts.** Hoagen (1956) explained that loanshifts are difficult to recognize because, phonologically speaking, they are the same in both English and Spanish. These are called cognates. However, the English meaning of the word used by Spanish speakers in the United States may differ from the meaning that other varieties of Spanish outside the United

States use (as cited in Escobar & Potowski, 2015). Some examples include the following. For the word *forma*, the general meaning is related to physical parameters. For example, “*tiene forma circular*” (it has a circular shape). However, the new meaning that it has adopted in the United States has to do with a form to be filled out. Therefore, it is common to hear “*por favor llene esta forma*” (please, fill out this form).

2.1.3.3.4 *Calques*. Calque, as defined by Richards and Schmidt (2013), is a type of borrowing in which each morpheme or word is translated into the equivalent morpheme or word in another language. In other words, a literal translation of the word or expression takes place. Escobar and Potowski (2015) divided calques into lexical and grammatical. An example of a lexical calque is from the general use in Spanish of *escuela secundaria* (highschool), the term *escuela alta* is used in the United States. An example of a grammatical calque, from the general expression in Spanish *pasar un buen rato* (to have a good time), the expression *tener un buen tiempo* is widely used in the United States.

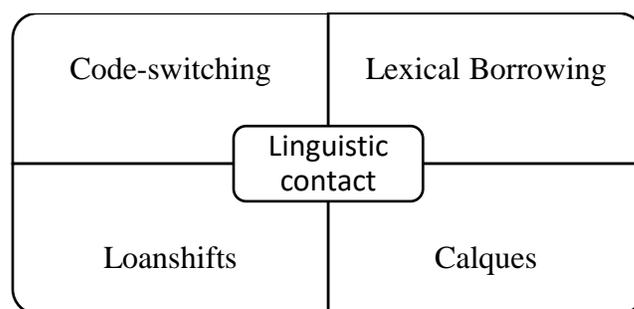


Figure 3. Linguistic Contact Phenomena. Adapted from “El español de los Estados Unidos,” by A. M. Escobar and K. Potowski (2015).

The linguistic traits of Spanish in the United States previously described are also part of what is referred to as *Spanglish*. Escobar and Potowski (2015) explained that this term is used to refer to any speech act in which Spanish is mixed with English. It is important to mention that this term has also been used in a negative way to portray its speakers as unable to have

competence in one or both languages. However, Toribio (2011) clarified that people who alternate between languages have a very advanced linguistic competence in both languages (as cited in Diaz-Campos, 2014). These speakers can either change codes within a sentence or between sentences as was explained under code-switching.

*2.1.3.3.5 Phonology.* Escobar and Potowski (2015) summarized the main phonological traits that may be the result of Spanish in contact with English. They mentioned two studies that have reported these phonological features. The first is a study that Varela (1992) conducted in which the use of [v] is reported as a variant of /b/. The appearance of this sound occurs when words are written with <v>, like in *violín*. It is also explained that some speakers use [v] as a result of [β] in old Spanish, like in *vivo* (< lat. *vivere*) and *habia* (Old Spanish. *hauia*). The second study reports that Torres Cacoullos and Ferreira (2000) found that words such as *recibir* y *valor* that have cognates in English with /v/ (“receive” and “valor”), are also pronounced with [v] in the Spanish of New Mexico. At the same time, it has been reported that some singers from Puerto Rico also pronounce <v> as [v] labiodental.

To conclude, the Spanish dialect classification section has included a historical overview of the most common classifications, a complete summary of those classifications by Lipski (2012), as well as morphological dialectal differences, and a brief reference to some of the most common characteristics of Spanish in contact with English.

## **2.2 Standard Versus Nonstandard Languages**

Languages are constantly exposed to change due to social, geographic, economic, educational, and other influential factors that are associated with their speech communities. Thus, language varieties cannot go unnoticed or be diminished because they reflect each speech community’s cultural characteristics. However, these communities are part of a social

environment that determines whether their way of speaking correlates with a standard language that, as explained by Milroy (2001), is always associated with the concept of correctness. Milroy stated that there are standard language cultures whose speakers believe their languages exist in standardized forms. Among such cultures and languages we find English, French, and Spanish. This kind of belief, added Milroy, affects the way in which speakers think about their own language and about language in general. This idea of classifying dialects as standard or nonstandard determines the status of language in a society and shapes the social climate for language study and language diffusion (McGroarty, 1996).

Regarding the standardization of the Spanish language, Peninsular Spanish has been taken as the model to follow. In the United States, Silva Corvalán (2000) stated that the Education and Cultural Affairs Ministry of Spain has signed educational agreements with 15 states in which California, Illinois, New Mexico, and Texas are included. These agreements allow for the Spanish government to send consultants from the Ministry of Education and Culture of Spain to advise with activities and programs related to the teaching of Spanish in these states. Bugel and Santos (2010) reported a similar situation in Brazil, where Spain has influenced education policies on the implementation of Spanish as a mandatory subject. Bucholtz and Hall (2004) referred to power and markedness (recognizable) to explain that some language varieties gain a special status, for example Castilian Spanish from Spain, which differs in certain aspects from Spanish from Latin America. Once the former becomes unmarked or more recognizable, the latter will be marked or less recognizable; thus, they are assumed to be deviations from the norm. At the same time, Fuller (2013) referred to *hegemony*, which she defined as “one entity (usually one social group) is dominant over another and this dominance is thought of as ‘just the way it is’” (p. 4).

According to Lipski (1994), the prestigious linguistic standard of many Spanish-speaking nations is often based on the speech of the capital city. Although this is true for many countries, there are exceptions, such as Spain, whose capital city Madrid has a speech that does not hold the same prestige as other places like Toledo or Burgos. The large number of immigrants housed in Madrid is an important reason why this is not adhered to. In the same way, Bolivia's capital, La Paz, is also not considered a center of prestige because of the indigenous influence exerted on this region. Consequently, Lipski added, each nation leans towards the regional variety that fits the category of prestige. Lipski also remarked that there is no single pan-Hispanic norm. Cross dialectally, the idea of prestige is correlated with how strictly the spelling/sound correspondence is followed.

The concept of standard versus nonstandard can be traced to early stages of Spanish in Latin America when Spaniards colonized territories in which they not only exerted socioeconomic but also linguistic power. Indigenous groups were forced to learn Spanish, but ironically, once they learned this language, their way of speaking was stigmatized because it deviated from the norm: the Spanish spoken on the Peninsula. Many Europeans rarely adopted a sympathetic attitude towards indigenous cultures, which they regarded as inferior to their own. "In addition, they frequently associated difficulties in learning Spanish with a lack of intelligence from the indigenous individual" (Lipski, 1994, p. 69).

Schools play a key role in the inculcation of "correct" or "incorrect" ways of using the language. McGroarty (1996) explained that society usually understands that the main goal of schools is to focus on the teaching and promotion of the language using a prescriptive approach, meaning correct use of linguistic features as opposed to a more descriptive emphasis, which takes into consideration not only the linguistic aspects but also its speakers' use of the language

in which varieties of the language are included. The general assumption that schools are to perpetuate correctness and standard forms implicitly states that a specific type of language belongs to the prestige variety and for that reason is the language that one needs to use and learn.

### 2.3 Prestige

Wolfram (1999) stated that members of prestige varieties believe that groups who are part of the stigmatized category should change their way of speaking to be accepted in society, an assumption that carries significant consequences for people's social and linguistic attitudes and identity. Lipski (1994) clarified that in Latin America there is no pan-Hispanic norm. However, the semiconscious notion of a regional prestige variety or *norma culta* lies on "a strict sound-grapheme correspondence, an avoidance of nonstandard morphological and grammatical elements, and a vocabulary in which regionalisms are kept to a minimum" (p. 149). Therefore, if there are linguistic manifestations that differ from the regional prestige, they fall into the category of stigmatized linguistic traits. These ideas of the language acknowledge the fact that there is a prestigious speech that needs to be disseminated in areas where non-prestige varieties exist. Lipski further explained that after obtaining their degrees, teachers in some Spanish-speaking countries are sent to rural areas to do obligatory service, which results in a direct influence on the speech of the local communities. In other words, in these areas, teachers' use of language is considered a prestige model that needs to be followed by members of the local community. Some of the most common stigmatized linguistic features in the Spanish-speaking world that may be avoided in formal discourse and that sometimes are not even learned by speakers of upper sociolects include the following: colloquial subjunctive form *haiga* for standard form *haya* 'there exists'; *naide* for *nadie* 'no one'; *semos* for *somos* 'we are'; *probe* for *pobre* 'poor'; *asina/ansina* for *asi* 'thus' (Lipski, 1994).

Butt and Benjamin (2011) offered other stigmatized colloquial variants for some Spanish verbs: *cabo* for *quepo* ‘fit into’; *produció* for *produjo* ‘produce’; *andé* for *anduve* ‘walk’; use of the infinitive for the *vosotros* form of the imperative (used in Spain only) *dar* for *dad* ‘give,’ *callaros* for *callaos* ‘shut up,’ *iros* for *idos* ‘go away’; addition of *s* to the second person preterite singular; *distes* for *diste* ‘you gave,’ *hablastes* for *hablaste* ‘you spoke’; pluralization of forms *haber* when it means ‘there is’/ ‘there are,’ *habían muchos* for *había muchos* ‘there were many’ (Butt & Benjamin, 2011).

Ideas of standard versus nonstandard or prestige versus stigmatized influence speakers’ attitudes towards their own regional variety, thus speakers show linguistic insecurity. Lippi-Green (1997) referred to linguistic insecurity as a term that describes how speakers of a nonstandard variety “subordinate and devalue their own language in line with stigmatization which originates outside their communities” (p. 174). At the same time, speakers enter the language loyalty debate to decide on their linguistic choices.

## **2.4 Language Loyalty**

Groups whose language is stigmatized may also have prejudices against their own variety. Therefore, they may decide to learn the standard to be part of a specific academic or social group. In those cases, people reserve the use of their own variety for family and other less formal social encounters, in this way exercising language loyalty towards their own linguistic variety. Language loyalty tends to unite diverse local groups and social classes whose members may continue to speak their own vernaculars within the family circle (Gumperz, 2009).

Regarding language loyalty, and specifically in the case of Latin American Spanish, Christiansen (2014) investigated the use of *vos* (second person singular) among speakers from Nicaragua where *vos* is part of their daily language. Findings of this study revealed that there is a

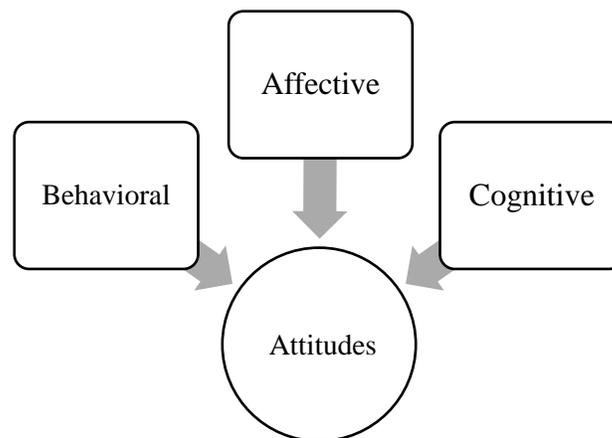
dichotomy between spoken and written language in this Spanish-speaking nation. The former uses *vos* and is considered more nonstandard oriented, whereas the latter, which is based on forms *tú* and *usted*, holds more prestige or correctness. In other words, education advocates in Nicaragua value the use of *tú* and *usted* but stigmatize the use of *vos*. Thus, the *voseo* speech community feels the pressure to fluctuate between their vernacular use of *vos* and the standard forms *tú* and *usted*. The stigmatization that labels the use of *vos* is also reflected in the language classroom (Shenk, 2014). Shenk's findings reveal that stigmatization, along with the pronoun's geographic limitations, its verbal pattern variability, and teachers' unfamiliarity with this form, are reasons for its absence in the Spanish classroom. The ideas of prestige versus stigmatized and standard versus nonstandard create or reinforce speakers' attitudes towards their own variety and others.

## **2.5 Language Attitudes**

McGroarty (1996) stated that attitude is “linked to a person's values and beliefs and promotes or discourages the choices made in all realms of activity, whether academic or informal” (p. 5). Sarnoff (1970) defined *attitude* as a “disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to a class of objects” (as cited in Garrett, 2010, p. 20). In addition, attitudes towards language differences are learned through socialization early in life (Wolfram et al., 1999). For example, a first grader notices the difference in the use of certain basic English grammar topics such as subject–verb agreement, (e.g., He does vs. He don't). The child's reaction to the previous example is that “he don't” is weird or wrong because the school and social environment reinforce the idea that nonstandard grammar is incorrect. Likewise, standard grammar is taken as a correct way of speaking. Thus, speech communities that use the standard language are often

looked up to by social groups that are considered from a lower category because their language is categorized as nonstandard.

Garrett (2010) further explained that attitudes hold three factors (summarized in Figure 4) described as (1) cognitive, which refers to beliefs about the world (e.g., learning Spanish will help to communicate with friends from Costa Rica); (2) affective, which involves feelings about an attitude object (e.g., interest in songs or literature in Spanish); and (3) behavioral, which predisposes us to act in a certain way (e.g., to learn Spanish).



*Figure 4.* Three Components to Analyze Attitudes. Adapted from *Attitudes to language* by P. Garrett (2010).

### **2.5.1 Main approaches to the study of language attitudes.**

**2.5.1.1 Direct approaches.** The study of language attitudes has taken direct and indirect approaches. Garrett et al. (2003) described the direct approach as one in which participants are asked directly to report about their own attitudes through interviews or questionnaires that are later analyzed through statistical or content analysis. As part of interviews, focus groups have also been used to understand, beyond statistical measures, why people feel the way they do.

Focus groups, as described by Krueger (1981), are organized discussions aimed around a single theme (as cited in Garrett et al., 2003).

Perceptual dialectology or the drawing of mental symbolic maps based on speakers' identification of dialects, taken from cultural geography, is another direct research method to investigate language attitudes. Participants draw dialect boundaries on a given map (based on the language that is being investigated) to identify the locations where they believe regional speech zones exist. Garrett et al. (2003) referred to a study conducted by Williams (1985) in which schoolchildren were asked to identify areas in which Welsh was spoken. As language groups are demarcated, different functions come into play: (a) a defensive function, which inhibits the entry of outsiders; (b) an avoidance function, which provide havens and sanctuaries for group members; (c) a preservation function, whose main purpose is to defend uniqueness; and (d) a resource base function, which provides a means for trying in time to alter the existing relationship with the dominant group (Garrett et al., 2003, p. 48). Garrett et al., concluded that perceptions reported about and by community members may inform in a better way critical judgments and policy initiatives than do actual demographic data.

Regarding the Spanish language, Quesada Pacheco (2014) conducted a study in 19 countries where Spanish is the official language. The study is part of the project *Actitudes lingüísticas e Identidad en Hispanoamérica y España* (Linguistic Attitudes and Identity in Hispanic America and Spain). Data were gathered through a series of surveys in which participants expressed similarities and differences between their regional variety of Spanish and other Spanish-speaking countries. More specifically, participants answered two types of questions: (a) opinions about the Spanish spoken where the survey took place, and (b) opinions about the Spanish spoken in other Spanish-speaking countries. Results from the study were used

to draw some mental maps, or symbolic representations, to show the dialectal division of Latin America reported by its own speakers, not by linguists or other language experts. These are the main regions that were identified:

1. México and the north part of Central America (Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras y Nicaragua);
2. The south part of Central America (Costa Rica and Panamá), plus the north part of South America (inland regions of Colombia and Venezuela);
3. The Caribbean, Panamá, and the coast of Colombia and Venezuela;
4. The Andean region;
5. The Southern Cone (Quesada Pacheco, 2014, p. 293).

From this division, it is important to highlight the fact that although participants were inclined to identify their way of speaking with that of their closer neighbors, there were other instances in which this tendency was not followed. Speakers from Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, and Paraguay reported similarities with Mexico, but not the other way around. Quesada Pacheco stated that these perceptions could be the result of the vast influence exerted by Mexico through music, film, and television.

**2.5.1.2 Indirect approaches.** Indirect approaches present questions “in a sense deceptive” and have been based on the matched-guise technique (MGT) developed by Lambert et al. (1960). MGT was created because of the apparent failure of direct approaches to explore people’s private attitudes and consists of playing audio-recordings to listeners (judges) who rate each speaker they hear on a number of personality traits that are presented on a seven-point bipolar adjective scale. Some of the positive outcomes of using MGT include its indirect format to explore private attitudes, its identification of most common factors found when investigating language attitudes

such as prestige, social attractiveness, and dynamism with which it is possible to explore the sociolinguistic ecology of language variation.

On the other hand, Garrett et al. (2003) referred to some MGT drawbacks that focus on the lack of authenticity that some of its techniques carry. When speakers read passages and mimic accents in the recordings, they put emphasis on accent, which deviates from natural examples where people speak with no inhibitions, with certain intonation and discourse patterns. This lack of genuineness may cause inaccurate evaluations because of the lack of suprasegmental features (e.g., stress, tone) that characterize oral discourse. At the same time, some reports about language attitudes based on MGT have generalized speech patterns for communities in which those generalizations may not even occur. In a study conducted by Carter and Callesano (2018) the participants had to choose between (as labeled by the authors) Cuban, Peninsular, and Colombian voices to guess what profession the person had. Although the authors explained that by using the labels Cuban, Peninsular, and Colombian, they did not mean to ignore regional variation in those areas, participants may have been primed by those labels to conclude that all Colombians, Cubans, and Spaniards speak the same way.

In addition to the MGT drawbacks previously described, the reading of passages for the recordings has been questioned regarding its authenticity because it is decontextualized and unnatural. For this reason, research on language attitudes needs to include more contextualized language, where speakers use the language to communicate rather than read mechanically and accurately.

Although MGT has been the main core of studies in language attitudes, this current research focused on an online questionnaire to gather individual answers and classroom observations based on an ethnographic approach to be able to capture daily sided interactions

between instructors and students. Additionally, focus group discussions elicited participants' attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties to compare with what they did in the classroom and their answers for the online survey.

## **2.6 Previous Studies on Attitudes towards Linguistic Variation of Spanish**

Burns (2018) conducted a study to explore the status of sociolinguistic variation in the Spanish as a foreign language classroom at the university level in the United States. Data were gathered by analyzing the ideologies of standard and U.S. Spanish varieties in the textbooks for beginner courses *¡Dímelo tú!*, 6th edition (Rodríguez Nogales, Francisco, Samaniego, & Blommers, 2010), and in the intermediate courses, *Imagina*, 2nd edition (Blanco & Tocaimaza-Hatch, 2015) used at the institution where the study took place. In addition, nine instructors participated in a focus group interview to discuss the inclusion of linguistic variation in their language classes. Findings from the textbook analysis reflect an implicit and sometimes explicit preference for a so-called standard form of Spanish. As for the instructors, they explained that due to time constraints and the necessity to prepare for coordinated written exams, which most of the time focus on grammar and writing, they have little opportunity to include extra information such as language variation. To conclude, the researcher states that students need to know that Spanish is not spoken one way, but that there are regional varieties that at least need to be recognized.

Burns advocated for critical language inquiry within the language classroom. This study contributes to the field of language variation of Spanish in the language classroom because of the analysis given to the program textbooks, instructors' opinions about the topic, and the researcher's proposal for creating awareness of regional variation in Spanish language classes.

However, the study's gathering of data lacks class observations in which instances of regional language variation offer more insight into the type of classroom discourse.

Within the same line of use of regional variation in the classroom, Garcelli et al. (2018) explained that due to educational reforms that have benefited Spanish learning and the current immigration trend in which people from Spanish-speaking countries in South America are moving to Italy, it is important to explore whether this sociogeographical phenomenon is being taken into consideration in the language classroom. Data were gathered in two different ways: (a) evaluation of 14 textbooks, students' books, and online sources; and (b) the distribution of two different surveys, one among students at higher levels of Spanish to analyze whether their language training has included American Spanish varieties (term used by the authors), and the other survey distributed among 230 teachers at different high schools and universities in Italy to explore their knowledge of American Spanish and how they used it in their classes. Findings demonstrate that the use of Peninsular Spanish prevails in materials that include textbooks and online sources, as well as in Spanish teachers' views, which may have been influenced by their training and the materials that they use. The authors suggested that teachers and students need to be exposed to American Spanish and its varieties in the classroom. The researchers also advocated for the development of materials that take into consideration these varieties.

Regarding students' attitudes towards other varieties of Spanish, Montes-Alcalá (2011) explored attitudes towards other varieties and the reasons behind their choices among a group of 11 college-educated students who live in the United States, but whose native language is Spanish. Participants answered a questionnaire to determine where the best or the worst Spanish is spoken. Although participants pointed out that the best Spanish is spoken in Spain, the study also revealed language loyalty towards participants' regional varieties, but not in all cases. For

instance, the author explained that speakers from Puerto Rico did not identify their own variety as prestigious but at the same time did not label it as stigmatized, as they did the variety from the Dominican Republic. Participants also categorized Spanish spoken in the Caribbean as the worst Spanish. Out of all the factors that influence participants' attitudes about regional varieties of Spanish, the number one factor had to do with accent and pronunciation. Thus, if speakers communicate clearly and are articulate, their Spanish is prestigious. This study contributes greatly to the study of linguistic attitudes towards regional varieties of Spanish because it corroborates previous studies in which Peninsular Spanish was recognized as the most prestigious. However, self-reported questionnaires are subject to variables that are difficult to control, such as the time or moment when the questionnaire was administered, assumptions that participants are telling the truth, and participants' lack of familiarity with regional varieties of Spanish.

Droege et al. (1994) surveyed students and teachers in the Spanish program about their opinions on language varieties. Findings show that students focus on an instrumental motivation to learn Spanish language varieties. They want to learn Spanish to use it at work or to travel. Regarding teachers, the authors surveyed Spanish native and non-native speakers. Based on the results, the native speakers seem to be more interested in providing supplemental material that addresses language varieties that differ from the textbook, whereas non-native speakers seem to follow the textbook more closely without using additional material. Contributions of this study help understand motivations behind teaching and learning language varieties from the perspectives of native and non-native speakers. However, because the research methodology relied on self-reported information, findings may deviate from the actual situation in the classroom, which is the gap that the present study is intended to address.

In another study that focused on attitudes towards regional varieties of Spanish, Herrero (2009) asked 42 Spanish instructors to answer an online survey that addressed Spanish instructors' varieties and their attitudes and perceptions regarding teaching materials, tests, and language use in the classroom. After gathering the information from the surveys, the researcher reported that although some Spanish teachers feel pressure from academic authorities and materials, they are also inclined to teach their own Spanish variety even when that variety does not represent what the academic context demands. This means that instructors consider their individual choice of the language to be taught along with the institutions' alternatives for the same purpose. Findings of this study address teachers' agency. The instructors in the study manifested their decisions in teaching their own Spanish variety, although it was against their institutions' goals. Nonetheless, the data were also self-reported which, once more, may be different from instructors' actual teaching practices.

In the same vein, Figueroa (2003) performed a study in which she investigated the language attitudes of 26 speakers of high- and low-prestige varieties of Spanish towards other Spanish dialects. The researcher explained that high-prestige varieties include the varieties spoken in northern and central Spain followed by some Latin American areas such as Bogotá, Colombia, and Mexico City. In contrast, low prestige areas include the Caribbean and Andalusian varieties. The researcher based her study on the World Englishes paradigm proposed by Kachru (1990). Kachru developed this diagram (Figure 5) to explain the historical, sociolinguistic, and literary relationships between the countries in the different circles. Figueroa (2003) used the same circle (Figure 6) with information about Spanish to explain the relationship between Spanish varieties.

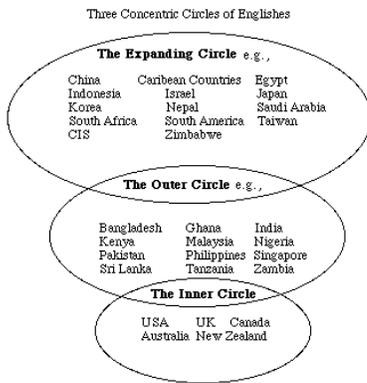


Figure 5. Concentric circles of English (Kachru, 1990).

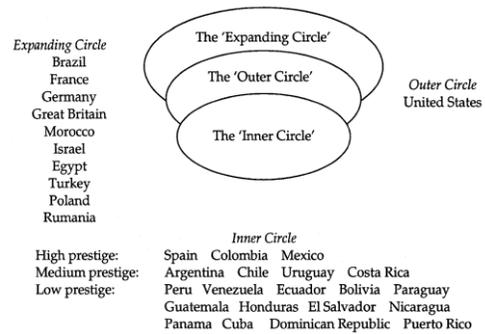


Figure 6. Concentric circles of Spanish (Figuerola, 2003)

What these circles have in common is that the inner circle is where the language, Spanish or English, is spoken as a native language. This inner circle also sets language norms. The outer circle, due to historical reasons, uses the language, but it is not adopted as the native language of the nation. The expanding circle, which follows the norms dictated by the inner circle, represents those places where the language is becoming important for reasons such as commerce, communication, and tourism, among others.

Findings of this study show that the participants were inclined to having grammar-based instruction that is based on the Castilian norm, which is widely addressed in Spanish textbooks, complemented with lessons on dialectal variation. Figuerola's (2003) contributions to the field focus on the inclusion of participants who represented both high-and low-prestige Spanish varieties because it allows for a more varied and objective perspective. On the other hand, Figuerola's study is also based on self-reported questionnaires and group discussions that may disguise real pedagogical practices.

Within the field of heritage speakers, Campanaro (2013) implemented a study that explored students' and teachers' attitudes towards sharing a language class with Spanish heritage speakers. The researcher administered a written language background questionnaire to all

students, which was also supplemented by individual semi structured interviews to achieve reliability. Campanaro reported that the students judged the experience of having a heritage learner in class positively because of the opportunity to hear and speak different Spanish varieties. The teachers also reported that the students liked and appreciated learning different forms of Spanish, like regional terms or colloquialisms. The findings of this research support the inclusion of language varieties in the second or foreign language classroom.

Continuing with studies that have taken into consideration students' attitudes towards other regional varieties, Bugel and Santos (2010) researched attitudes towards Rioplatense/Argentinean Spanish and Peninsular Spanish—and towards the speakers of each of these varieties—held by Brazilian learners of Spanish as a foreign language. Data were gathered through a questionnaire on explicit representations, an MGT of implicit attitudes, and a written paragraph in which students expressed their opinion about the Spanish varieties at hand. Findings indicate that students see Peninsular Spanish as a symbol of prestige, strengthened by the idea that Peninsular Spanish is the original from which the other varieties have derived.

On the other hand, the Rioplatense variety was evaluated as a derivation of Peninsular Spanish and compounded with many influences and borrowings. The researcher explained that these findings also reflect the Spanish language policies that govern the current Spanish teaching/learning movement in Brazil and Spain's dominance over that market. Based on the findings, Bugel and Santos (2010) also suggested that instructors are agents who can take part in the dissemination of different Spanish varieties in the language classroom by presenting other ways of speaking and using teaching materials that entail Spanish linguistic varieties.

To conclude this section, the previously discussed studies have taken different perspectives and, at the same time, have shown similar results. One of the commonalities has to

do with the dominance of the standard variety, which is also framed as the most prestigious variety. Another similarity is related to the research tools. Most of the studies were based on self-report questionnaires, textbook analysis, and language policy and planning. The current study aims to include the actual classroom discourse, a missing gap in the previously cited studies, to compare to what the instructors reported in the online questionnaire and the focus group interviews.

## **2.7 Language Policy in Education and Language Varieties**

Tollefson (1991) stated that “language policy is one mechanism by which dominant groups establish hegemony in language use” (p. 16). Language policy could be analyzed at the macro (government institutions), meso (universities, schools), and micro (classrooms, teachers, families, small communities) levels, to include the interaction of these levels. In the case of Spanish institutions, the Real Academia Española (Spanish Royal Academy; RAE) has created language policies to perpetuate the idea of *español común* (common Spanish), which has no other purpose than the expansion of “a hierarchical model led by Madrid” (Mar-Molinero, 2000, p. 206). In general terms, language policies have been created so that a group of speakers who consider their use of the language prestigious can influence or exert control over socioeconomic and educational areas of their society.

Regarding education, Shohamy (2003) explained that language education policy has to do with decisions that people make about languages and their use in schools and universities in relation to home languages and foreign or second languages. Decisions are determined by “which language should be taught, when (at what age), for how long (number of years and hours of study), by whom and for whom (who is qualified to teach and who is entitled to or obligated to learn), and how (which methods, materials, tests, etc.)” (Shohamy, 2003, p. 279)

In the case of Spanish, factors such as its strong role as an official language in most of the Spanish-speaking world and being offered in non-Spanish countries as a foreign or second language have strengthened language policies dominated by the RAE and Instituto Cervantes, two Spanish academic institutions that have been created to “watch” the Spanish language. RAE commands the Spanish-speaking world through its hard copy and online dictionaries and by the creation and inclusion of language academies in different Spanish-speaking countries whose main purpose is intended to embrace different Spanish varieties. As stated by Garcia de la Concha, one of the executive directors, *“Todo ello es obra de las veintidós academias asociadas en su trabajo al servicio de la unidad del español sin menoscabo de su rica y fecunda variedad”* [The creation of the association of the academies of the Spanish language is attributed to the 22 associated academies, which work for the unity of the Spanish language without derogation of its rich and fertile variety] (as cited in *Asociación de Academias de la lengua Española*, online source). However, Figueroa (2003) explained that although each Latin American country (as well as Puerto Rico, the United States, and the Philippines) has its own *academia* and each of these academies publishes work documenting the features of the Spanish of that country, these publications are not as widely accessible (or well known) as those from the RAE, and their objectives focus on the same precepts that characterize the Spanish Royal Academy, such as the defense of the unity of the Spanish language.

About Instituto Cervantes, Bugel and Santos (2010) specifically mentioned the case of the widespread of Spanish in Brazil. They reported that some of this institution’s activities focus on (a) teaching Spanish abroad as a foreign language to native speakers of other languages; and (b) updating the training of local instructors to work in their own countries (Bugel & Santos,

2010, p. 146). The authors also supported their report by documenting the vast influx of Spanish publishing houses in Brazil by means of buying existing Brazilian publishing houses.

It is evident how language policies that have been created at the macro-level (RAE) have impacted practices at the meso level (publishing houses) and the micro level (training of instructors). This example shows how the macro (government institutions), meso (universities, schools), and micro levels (classrooms, teachers, families, small communities) exert power on one another or how they interact between themselves. In the next lines, I refer to some of the most relevant studies in the field of language policy that have helped me orient my investigation.

Droege et al. (1994) conducted a study at the department of Spanish at the University of Ottawa. The main objectives of the study were to analyze to what extent Spanish language programs needed to establish specific language policies regarding Spanish varieties and how those policies were reflected in the curriculum and teaching materials. The authors mentioned three important rules implemented in the Spanish department where the study took place. (1) Linguistic traits specific to certain varieties such as *laísmo* (when *la/las* instead of *le* is used as a feminine indirect object. Castilla, Salamanca, and Cantabria are regions where this form is used) or *voseo* (the 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular pronoun of address that is an alternative to *tú*. It is used in countries such as Argentina, Chile, etc.) need to be avoided. (2) Instructors are encouraged to use their own phonetic and vocabulary traits. (3) Avoid asking students to adopt a specific variety but encourage them to be consistent in their choice. These rules are problematic because they constrain instructors' own Spanish varieties, thus depriving students from hearing an authentic pronunciation of the target language.

In terms of textbooks, Droege et al. (1994) offered a comparison between textbooks made in the United States and in Spain. They highlighted the fact that U.S. textbooks include more

Spanish varieties than Spanish textbooks from Spain, which are mainly focused on Peninsular Spanish. Equally important is the fact that textbooks' most frequent reference to varieties relies on lexical differences. However, what I have found in the textbooks that I have analyzed is a limited reference to Spanish varieties presented in small boxes as side notes in the vocabulary or review sections of the textbook.

Important conclusions of the study focus on the idea that the dilemma of which variety to use in the classroom should be solved by teachers, their use of textbooks, and supporting materials. It is also stated that when policies about language use in pedagogy are created, there should be a clear distinction between Spanish as a foreign language and Spanish as a second language. The study explored some aspects that are relevant to my own study. Among those are the analysis of how department policies are implicitly or explicitly influenced by macro-level practices and how this may affect teachers' pedagogical decisions.

Droege et al. (1994) made important contributions to the understanding of the use of language varieties in the classroom and the policies behind those practices. However, the study relies on self-report data that may deviate from what respondents do in real practice. In the current study, the self-report research technique will be enhanced by class observations and focus group sessions. At the same time, in their research study there are some concepts that raise a lot of questions. For instance, it is argued that the language department in which the study took place welcomes different Spanish varieties, but at the same time they set restrictions about using certain linguistic traits in the classroom such as *laísmo* and *voseo*, as was previously explained. Another debatable concept used is the dualistic language classification from which respondents had to choose: Peninsular versus Hispano-American varieties. This classification is problematic because within the two categories there are dialectal variations that also need to be valued.

In opposition to the broad approach regarding language varieties adopted by Droege et al. (1994) in their research, Bugel and Santos (2010) examined the representations of and attitudes towards Rioplatense/Argentinian Spanish and Peninsular Spanish—and towards the speakers of each of these varieties—held by Brazilian learners of Spanish as a foreign language. The introduction to the study takes into consideration the trajectory that Spanish language policies have taken and how they have been modified by political and economic interests.

The authors refer to the power exerted by the Spanish government in adopting their Spanish language policies in Brazil after the MERCOSUR treaty declared Spanish its official language. This factor determined what textbooks were used to teach Spanish, how to train teachers, and where to build language centers. Ironically, the neighbors' varieties, such as in the case of Uruguay and Argentina that were expected to be the major influence in the teaching of Spanish, were displaced by the omnipresence of Spain. Two other important aspects that reflect the power that Spain has had in Brazil regarding Spanish teaching are the following:

(1) In 1993, Brazilian legislators started to promote a bill to enforce Spanish teaching in elementary, middle, and high school. The Spanish crown sponsored this proposal by making constant diplomatic visits to Brazil and awarding Enrique Cardoso, Brazilian president at that time, one of the most important recognitions, *Premio Príncipe de Asturias*, for the promotion of the bill to be passed; and (2) Later, in 2008 Ignacio Lula da Silva, Brazilian president at that moment, was awarded the *Quijote* prize for passing the bill. These events clearly evidence the power of Spain in the Brazilian language policies and the idea of promoting Spanish as a unified language in which varieties are neglected (Bugel & Santos, 2010, p. 147).

These findings reveal preferences for Peninsular Spanish supported by an idealization of Peninsular Spanish as the so-called original language. In contrast, the Rioplatense variety was

understood as being a result of many different influences and borrowings. The authors explained that the results reflect the policies that have been disseminated in which Peninsular Spanish was more prestigious among students. Bugel and Santos (2010) contributed greatly to the field of language policy because they reported how the macro (government policies) and meso (schools and education institutions) levels exert power over micro-level practices, in this case, the Spanish as a foreign language student. In my research study, the power exerted by the RAE is analyzed in the design of textbooks, language department policies, and curricula, as well as in instructors' classroom practices.

To summarize this section, the current research study takes into consideration the fact that as the Spanish language enters globalization, linguistic institutions such as the RAE are interested in keeping their dominance by following their language ideologies in order to create language policies that implicitly (through textbooks) or explicitly (RAE website and their policies; Appendix B) determine the linguistic domains that are framed within standardization, which, in the end, impact teachers' agency and teaching practices. For that reason, the current study also analyzes attitudes towards regional varieties of Spanish through the lens of CLT, which focuses on providing opportunities for students to use the language for real purposes.

## **2.8 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Communities of Practice (COPs), and the ACTFL Standards**

**2.8.1 Communicative language teaching.** Valdman (2003) stated that communicative ability, both in its productive and receptive modes, can be attained only if learners are exposed to a variety of authentic communicative situations and written texts illustrating a broad range of genres and pragmatic situations (p. 77). In other words, second language classrooms need to prioritize communication. It is important to create the need for communication that happens in real life, which is far from repeating patterns or mechanical responses to prompts. Learners

usually have the idea that learning a language helps them to communicate with other people, so there should be an orientation that fosters this idea. Therefore, goals such as being able to communicate with others and activities that help achieve those goals are to be integrated in daily lessons.

Before continuing with the precepts of CLT, I will present a brief reference to some of the most important teaching methods that preceded Communicative Language Teaching. As observed in Table 2, previous approaches to CLT focused on specific linguistic skills that in some cases excluded others as in the grammar-translation method, where there was no attention to listening or speaking. In other cases, the development of linguistic skills followed a systematic path in which other skills were left to be addressed when students had learned more language and about the language as is the case for the audiolingual method, where emphasis was on aural-oral skills development.

The lack of the communicative component and the scarce-to-no integration of the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) that the cited approaches showed established the need to think about an approach that could combine the use of grammar with its use in real contexts. Thus, CLT was developed. Richards and Rodgers (2014) explained that American and British proponents described CLT as an approach that aimed to (a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching, and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication (p. 85). Littlewood (1981) one of CLT's pioneers, stated that learners needed to understand that the linguistic knowledge that they acquired through methods such as the grammar translation and the audiolingual was important if they were also able to understand the functional and social meaning that those linguistic aspects inherently have. Therefore, the

language classroom needs to be portrayed as a potential social environment where real-life situations may happen as preparation for out-of-the-classroom encounters. Thus, learners become aware of the language that is needed to be communicatively successful.

Table 2

*Four Traditional Approaches to Language Teaching*

Grammar-Translation Method (Seindestücker, Plötz, Ollendorf, Meidinger)	Direct Method (Sauver, Berlitz)	The Oral Approach or Situational Approach (Palmer, Hornby)	The Audiolingual Method (Fries)
Views language as a set of rules and facts that need to be memorized in order to be able to manipulate the morphology and syntax of the target language.	Only every day vocabulary and sentences were taught.	Items to be learned in the target language are presented orally before the written form is introduced.	Items to be learned in the target language are presented orally before the written form is introduced.
Main focus to reading and writing. Little to no attention to listening and speaking.	Speech and listening were taught.	Writing and listening skills were introduced as there was sufficient knowledge of grammar and vocabulary.	Aural-oral training is needed to provide the foundation for the development of other language skills.
Students' native language is the language of instruction.	The target language is the language of instruction.	The target language is the language of instruction.	The target language is the language of instruction.
Grammar is taught deductively. Items to be learned are presented explicitly to students.	Grammar was taught inductively. In other words, the meaning of words or structures were not explained but were assumed to be inducted from the way they were used in a situation. (p. 48)	Grammar was taught inductively. PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production)	Grammar was taught inductively.

Note. Adapted from *Approaches and methods in language teaching* by Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014).

Littlewood (1981) stated that the classroom is also a real context, where learners and teachers enter into equally real social relationships with each other (p. 44). At the same time, Littlewood explained how what is learned in the classroom has the potential to be used in current or future real-life encounters. This statement is compatible with what happens when a child learns a language. The input that he/she constantly receives is stored and retrieved later when a communicative event takes place. At this point, it is important to refer to Bakhtin (2009), who explained how humans are social actors that let their voices out for others to hear while also storing those they hear to find the right moment to appropriate them in their own discourse.

Continuing with the idea of the need for communication with other members of the community, Richards (2006) pointed out that globalization has created the need for people to learn a second or foreign language that allows them opportunities to interact with speakers of the target language. Thus, Richards focused on the most influential aspects of CLT in the field of second language education. These aspects include knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions, knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants (e.g., knowing when to use formal and informal speech or when to use language appropriately for written as opposed to spoken communication), and knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g., narratives, reports, interviews, and conversations; Richards, 2006, p. 3).

After a brief reference to the trajectory of CLT, Richards (2006) explained the main characteristics of CLT:

1. Communicative language activities seek to promote both the use of grammar and communication. Grammar has evolved from being an isolated, mechanical drill to a more contextualized and communicative event.

2. Activities such as problem solving, information sharing, and role play foster interaction, thus communication and negotiation of meaning take place.
3. Communicative activities are based on students' interests and are designed in a way that students can use their knowledge in daily discourse encounters.
4. Communicative activities also use authentic resources, in other words, material that has been designed by and for native speakers of the target language and their environment. By using authentic materials, the students are exposed to different regional variation of the target language (Richards, 2006).

The implementation of these precepts in daily classes directly relates to the goal of this research study. Class observations and instructors' opinions of the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties evidence that authentic materials are rich sources to expose students to regional variation. Therefore, when providing different models of the language, students' language awareness increases because they become more familiar with those models and might be able to recognize them once they actively engage in real interactions with speakers of the target language.

The language teacher also provides a good source of a linguistic model in the language classroom. Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro, and Mandell (2001) affirmed that "the instructor is the primary supplier of what Spanish sounds like and how it works as a language. Students rely on the instructor's use of language to learn how to process and produce their own" (p. 63). In other words, the instructor enriches daily lessons by using natural language that students may not use immediately but will play an important role once they are ready to put it into practice in real communicative events.

To conclude this section, it is important to highlight that CLT proposes the teaching of grammar and communication by moving from an isolated perspective to a more contextualized and communicative event in which learners need to be given opportunities to use the language within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world. This way of seeing the learning of languages is also related to the precepts of COPs, which are presented in the next section.

**2.8.2 Communities of practice.** The study of language has undergone different facets, from the traditional grammar-oriented emphasis that enhanced linguistic aspects in isolation to a more social orientation in which language is viewed as a dynamic entity that is developed through interaction and influenced by social aspects that surround its speakers.

Scholars such as Hymes and Gumperz (1972) explained that in order to move away from the traditional grammar-oriented approach to language it was necessary to analyze both linguistic or internal factors as well as social or external factors. To establish that specific relationship, Bloomfield (1933) proposed that “a group of people who use the same set of speech signals is a speech community” (as cited in M. Morgan, 2004, p. 6). This definition is controversial because it presupposes that linguistic communities are homogeneous. Nevertheless, M. Morgan (2004) stated that this kind of view reflected a monolingualism, one language, one nation-state notion of the time (p. 7).

Bloomfield’s view of language was questioned by linguists such as Chomsky (1965), who saw the need to explore “the human capacity to produce language” instead of language as a “social construct”. Thus, the idea of a speech community faded within this conceptual approach, mainly because the focus was on what individual internal mechanisms governed the production

of language. Thus, the speaker is analyzed in isolation and external factors are not considered or given the importance that is needed.

In search of recovering the concept and the value of speech communities in the studies of language usage, Hymes (1964) described the speech community as a “fundamental concept for the relation between language, speech and social structure” (as cited in M. Morgan, 2004, p. 8). Within this definition, Hymes gave specific importance to communicative competence because it determines the knowledge a speaker must have to function within a social group. Communicative competence is developed when knowledge of the language, more specifically linguistic traits, is used to socialize and how those social interactions are evaluated or validated by interlocutors. To expand Hymes’ conceptualization of speech communities, Gumperz (2009) reformulated the definition of speech communities as “any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage” (p. 8). In other words, language is taken as a social and cultural product. It is evident that this definition embraces values, attitudes, and ideologies about language, aspects not included in previous attempts to define speech communities.

Within the same line, linguistic anthropologists Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (1992) described the concept of COP as that in which a group of people work together to pursue a common goal. While pursuing their goal, ways of doing things, ways of talking, beliefs, values, power relations—in short, practices—emerge. For this reason, communities of practice are determined by their participants, and their roles as individuals and as members of a community (as cited in Ahearn, 2011, p. 115)

Wenger (2015) further explained that communities of practice “are dynamic and depend on the learning of everyone” (p. 3). In communities of practice there is a constant flow of people

with expertise and novices. Once they are all part of a community, the most experienced lead the newcomers without missing the opportunity to grow and learn as well. “It is the competence of the community that pulls the experience of the novice until the novice has a full experience of competence” (p. 4)

Wenger (2015) also focused on the relevance of COP in education. The author explained that learning does not have to be enclosed in a classroom setting. Instead, learning should help students learn from contexts beyond the classroom, real-life situations that enrich their whole self. For this reason, Wenger indicated that there are three aspects that determine COP. First, an internal aspect that focuses on how to connect school experiences within the school community and its different subjects. Second, an external aspect that seeks to link what is learned at school to what happens outside the school, Third, over the lifetime of students’ aspect that should focus on experiences that transfer into students’ life once school learning is over. Wenger concluded that “schools have to be in the service of the learning that happens in the world” (Wenger, 2015, p. 6). Farnsworth, Kleanthous, and Wenger-Trayner (2016) explained that for being identity the core of communities of practice where its members bring their own identity and shape on a new one based on their new experience and new community, there are three aspects that are inherent in the acquisition of a new identity: imagination, alignment, and engagement. If one of these aspects is missing, there is no negotiation of meaning (p. 150).

In terms of Spanish teaching/learning, imagination is related to that inspiring moment an individual decides to pursue a goal. For instance, when students decide to learn Spanish to be able to communicate with their Spanish-speaking friends or to acquire cultural knowledge. To reach their goal, they look for ways to learn Spanish, for instance having conversation partners, thus alignment comes into play. Knowing what they need to become competent in the language,

they also look for ways to be engaged more in depth in communities that could enrich their experience, for example, Spanish clubs at the university or conversations with Spanish speakers. The situation that has been described is a result of the dynamism that a community of practice implies. After students join different communities (classroom, friends, neighbors), their knowledge of the language, among other things, changes by being part of those communities. Evidently, aspects such as identification of same goals in the communities they join help them identify with the members of those communities. Otherwise, the impact is not the same.

Regarding the current research study, *Navigating a Pluricentric Language in the Classroom: Attitudes towards Regional Varieties of Spanish*, students and instructors belong to speech communities in which they already have developed attitudes towards the Spanish language. For example, one of the participants of this study commented that a student shared a not very positive experience while studying abroad in Spain. This idea may influence the student's attitudes towards the regional variety from Spain.

Once instructors and students join the foreign language classroom, they bring in their own identities from which they start building a new community of practice, and thus new identities are developed. In the classroom community, the instructor initially plays a key role for being the language role model and the person who guides learners in their learning journey. Considering the role of the instructor, Wenger (2015) clarified that “in many communities of practice decisions need to be taken, conditions need to be put in place, thus someone has to do it” (Wenger, 2015, p. 6). Hence, language learning activities and materials that support a Community of Practice notion are essential. Wenger (1998) stated the following:

Inventive ways of engaging students in meaningful practices, of providing access to resources that enhance their participation, of opening their horizons so they can put themselves on learning trajectories they can identify with, and of involving them in

actions, discussions, and reflecting that make a difference to the communities that they value (as cited in Fraga-Cañadas, 2011, p. 297)

Equally important to note is that a significant principle of CLT is to promote the use both of grammar and communication. Grammar has evolved from being an isolated, mechanical drill to a more contextualized and communicative event, which is very much related to what speech communities/communities of practice endorse. At the same time, the ACTFL guidelines for the 21<sup>st</sup> century base some of their principles on COPs' main precepts.

**2.8.3 ACTFL Standards.** ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) has adopted the same communicative understanding of language of CLT with its guidelines for the 21<sup>st</sup> century, more specifically, under the communication and communities' domains (See Appendix A). In the communication domain, "learners are expected to communicate effectively in more than one language to function in a variety of situations and for multiple purposes" (2015). While in the communities' domain, learners are expected to "communicate and interact with cultural competence to participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world." (2015). The ACTFL standards include five "C" goal areas: (1) Communication (Communicate effectively in more than one language in order to function in a variety of situations and for multiple purposes); (2) Cultures (Interact with cultural competence and understanding); (3) Connections (Connect with other disciplines and acquire information and diverse perspectives in order to use the language to function in academic and career-related situations); (4) Comparisons (Develop insight into the nature of language and culture in order to interact with cultural competence); and (5) Communities (Communicate and interact with cultural competence in order to participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world). These domains stress the application of learning a language beyond the instructional

setting. The goal is to prepare learners to apply the skills and understanding measured by the Standards, to bring a global competence to their future careers and experiences.

About the use of the ACTFL Standards in language teaching and learning, Magnan et al. (2014) conducted a study in which they surveyed postsecondary students to explore how their goals in learning a foreign language agreed with those of *ACTFL Standards for Foreign Language*. Students answered a questionnaire that was based on the *ACTFL Standards for Foreign Language Learning* and included 11 content standards from the Standards, modified slightly to state goals in the first person. Participants answered two questions about these goals: (1) Is this goal for you? and (2) Do you expect to achieve this goal by the end of your formal coursework? The results of this study showed that students gave priority to the Communities domain. In other words, students' goals for learning a foreign language focused on their desire to be able to speak with members of the target language community, who most likely will be speaking different regional varieties of the target language. Therefore, students need to be exposed to regional varieties of the target language for them to become familiarized with the language that is heard and used in real interaction in the target language community.

To conclude and, after reviewing CLT main precepts, the ACTFL standards, and COP's main tenets, the researcher of the current study found a strong relationship between the three because of their emphasis on learning languages to communicate in real-life encounters and participation in the communities where the target language is spoken.

### **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

This chapter begins with an explanation of why this study fits the category of qualitative research and continues with a description of the pilot study that preceded it. It then provides a detailed description of the participants, the setting where data collection took place, as well as an explanation of the data collection procedures and of the plan for data analysis. Finally, this chapter concludes with the presentation of the research questions.

Denzin and Lincoln (2003) explained that “Qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them” (p. 5). From this perspective, qualitative research means to study things in the contexts in which these things happen (Becker, 1986). In the current study, teachers were observed in their natural teaching setting: the classroom. They were observed to analyze the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties. Qualitative research also uses multiple methods to explain the phenomenon in question. In the current study, I gathered data by means of an online questionnaire, four consecutive class observations for each instructor that included field notes taken by the researcher, and a focus group interview. The order in which the instruments were used allowed the researcher to better understand instructors’ attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties through the comparison of answers given in the questionnaire, the discussion in the focus groups, and classroom observations.

In this chapter I present an explanation of the pilot study that served to develop new ideas on how to conduct the present study. I also provide participants’ background information and a description of the language program where the study took place to better understand participants’

points of view and the context in which the participants teach Spanish as a foreign language. Next, I provide a description of the data collection instruments starting with the online questionnaire, followed by video-recording of classes, and focus group sessions. To conclude this section, I offer a detailed explanation of how the data analysis took place.

### 3.1 The Pilot Study

Studying regional variation has always been an intriguing topic for me as a second language teacher and learner. While teaching a Spanish class, a student that could be classified as a heritage speaker expressed his concerns for not speaking proper Spanish. After investigating the reasons why he thought his Spanish was not proper, I concluded that his concerns were related to his attitudes towards Spanish regional variation because he said that his Spanish was not similar to mine or to that of the textbook. That conversation strengthened my desire to explore possible external or internal sociolinguistic factors that influence these views of the language.

The pilot study took place in Spring 2016. This study investigated how six participants (instructors and graduate teaching assistants) presented *pretérito perfecto de indicativo* (the present perfect indicative), as in (1) and the *pretérito* (simple past), as in (2) in a Spanish as a foreign language setting due to differences in use that these two grammar topics have in Spain and Latin America.

(1) The present perfect indicative: *Maria ya ha llegado*. 'Maria has already arrived.'

Butt and Benjamin (2011) stated that the present perfect indicative is often ambiguous in Spain because it can refer to both completed and incomplete events. These authors states that Bolivia and Perú also follow Spain's rules with regard to this tense. However, in everyday speech in Buenos Aires, a sentence such as (1) sounds bookish. On the other hand, Butt and Benjamin

pointed out that the *preterite* refers to events that were completed in the past and refer to it as the preferred form in Latin America.

(2) The preterite: *María ya llegó*. ‘Maria already arrived.’

The pilot study analyzed the role of the instructor’s Spanish variety during delivery of the lesson and the presentation of the target grammar topics. Instruments for this study included analysis of the Spanish textbooks: *Imagina* (2015) and *Protagonistas* (2012), video recordings of the classes where the research topic was presented, individual interviews with instructors, and discourse analysis of interviews and video recordings. Findings demonstrate that, grammatically speaking, the textbooks analyzed offered a strong focus on the standard form of the target grammar topics where there is no reference to the regional variation that exists when speakers use the present perfect indicative and the preterite. However, the textbooks offered a more varied orientation in terms of vocabulary by using charts with lists of vocabulary from different Spanish-speaking countries.

Findings also evidenced instructors’ high preference for following what the textbooks present in terms of grammar explanations about the present perfect indicative and the preterite, even when the grammar topic differed from the instructor’s actual use of the target form. For example, a participant from Central America asked her students: *¿Qué has desayunado hoy?* ‘What have you eaten for breakfast?’ instead of *¿Qué desayunaste hoy?* ‘What did you eat for breakfast?’ which is more common in her regional variety. The instructor did not make any references to these regional differences.

In conclusion, this pilot study found that a standard form of the Spanish language keeps its privilege among Spanish instructors and textbook designers. Although it is understood that written and oral language are different, this understanding of the language reinforces the idea of

using supposed correct linguistic forms that in most cases are not related to the actual use of the language or the Spanish regional varieties. Because the data indicate little or no reference to Spanish regional varieties, the researcher decided to conduct the main study by observing not only the grammar section of the class but also vocabulary, reading, a short film, and culture. At the same time, focus groups replaced individual interviews in order to observe interaction among the participants and to hear their opinions about the research topic. A brief description of the program where the study took place is presented in the next section to provide the teaching context that surrounded the study.

### 3.2 The Focused Context

Data collection for the current project took place at a university in the Southeastern United States. This university's basic Spanish language program has full-time and part-time instructors as well as Graduate Teaching Assistants (GTAs) who teach first-year Spanish (101 and 102) and second-year Spanish (201 and 202). The program has the characteristics of a coordinated program, which means that instructors need to follow a given syllabus, have a common textbook, and give their students the same written and oral projects and tests. For the current study, a group of GTAs volunteered to participate in the study. Table 3 shows the textbooks used at each level, coordinated tests, and oral and writing projects that are designed by the coordinator of the program in collaboration with the instructors.

Table 3

*Spanish Basic Language Program Characteristics*

Spanish Level	Semester	Textbook	Coordinated tests	Oral/writing projects
101	1 <sup>st</sup>	<i>Protagonistas</i> (2012)	Yes	Yes
102	2 <sup>nd</sup>	<i>Protagonistas</i> (2012)	Yes	Yes
201	3 <sup>rd</sup>	<i>Imagina</i> (2015)	Yes	Yes
202	4 <sup>th</sup>	<i>Imagina</i> (2015)	Yes	Yes

### 3.3 The Participants

In this section I provide pertinent information about the participants in the current study. Participants included both native and non-native speakers of Spanish. Richards and Schmidt (2013) identified native speakers of a language as those individuals who have acquired the language they speak in early childhood because this language was the language spoken in the family and/or in the country where he or she was living. Non-native speakers are those language users for whom a certain language is not their first language. Table 4 provides further details about the participants in this study.

Table 4

*Participant's Demographic Data*

Participant	Native Language	Spanish Teaching Experience	Self-Reported Spanish Regional Variety Spoken
Alf	English	5 years	Andalusian, Nicaraguan
Laf	Spanish	7 years	Castilian, Spain
Gim	Spanish	6 years	Bogotá, Colombia
Claf	Spanish	6 years	Latin America
Am	English	3 years	Mexican (Northern)/Southwestern US
Cam	English	3 years	Peninsular Spanish
Kaf	English	1 year	Neutral, Latino
Raf	English	3 semesters	Madrid, Spain
Staf	English	1 year	Mexican and Spanish from Spain
Zam	Italian	4 years	Mix of varieties from Spain
Baf	English- Spanish	4 years	Madrid, Spain

Among instructors who self-identified as native speakers, three Spanish-speaking countries are represented: Honduras, Spain, and Colombia. There was also a native speaker of Italian as well as seven English native speakers from the United States. Although these instructors were teaching assistants, they were the instructors of record, which means that they taught the class on their own. Also, instructors in this program were encouraged to focus their classes on the main precepts of the CLT approach described in the literature review. Instructors also followed the Spanish program's guidelines that included the use of a given textbook, a syllabus, and a course calendar.

### **3.4 Data Collection Procedures**

Recruitment of participants took place when the researcher distributed consent forms in the first GTA-instructor general meeting of the Fall 2017 semester. This meeting usually takes place 1 or 2 days prior to the first day of classes. Once volunteers were contacted by the researcher, she emailed them back the first part of the study, an online survey designed in Qualtrics (See Appendix C). After participants completed the online questionnaire, the researcher met with the participants to schedule class observations of the unit that included the researched grammar topic: the present perfect indicative and the simple preterite, in addition to other sections such as presentation of vocabulary, cultural aspects, reading, writing, and a short film. After class observations finished, participants were invited to take part in a focus group interview. Due to time conflicts, two separate groups were scheduled. Each instrument is explained in detail in the following paragraphs.

**3.4.1 Online questionnaire.** This questionnaire was designed in Qualtrics (See Appendix C) and includes questions about personal background and about teaching experience. It also includes open-ended questions to explore instructors' attitudes towards the use of regional

varieties in the classroom. Instructors who volunteered to participate in the current study contacted the researcher via email so that she could provide the link for the online survey in Qualtrics. After the group of GTAs completed the online survey, the researcher organized a schedule of video recordings.

**3.4.2 Video recording of classes.** The researcher scheduled 4 days of video recordings of Spanish classes. According to the Spanish program and calendars, instructors and GTAs spent about 4 days teaching a complete unit. Observing a whole unit, which includes a vocabulary list, a short film, grammar, reading, and writing allowed for more opportunities to see the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish linguistic variation. These observations followed an ethnography of communication approach because it allowed for a more natural way of gathering data. In other words, interactions among teachers and students and the type of language used during those interactions provided insights into their implicit or explicit language choices. Hymes (1964) explained that the main goal of ethnography of communication is to investigate directly the use of language in contexts to explain patterns that underlie speech activities, and patterns that may be overlooked by grammar-oriented approaches. The researcher videotaped each of the classes selected as well as took field notes, which, according to Charmaz (2006), are good to support all data collected by providing information about language use, gestures, descriptions of interesting events, and so on.

**3.4.3 Focus group sessions.** After the videotaping of classes took place, instructors were invited to participate in focus group interviews (See Appendix D). D. Morgan (1998) asserted that focus group interviews allow for more interaction within the group of participants. Thus, they help to gather data that would not be revealed otherwise. Charmaz (2006) explained that focus groups, as opposed to individual interviews, allow one to document social interaction. She

further stated that the interaction occurring within the group stresses empathy and commonality of experiences, and therefore it promotes self-disclosure and self-validation (Charmaz, 2006, p. 375).

In the current study, the participants formed two groups. One group comprised five non-native speakers of Spanish. The other group included the three native speakers of Spanish plus two non-native speakers of Spanish. The investigator guided the focus groups and used data collected from the online survey and from the video recordings to carry out the session and explore in greater depth instructors' attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties and the inclusion or exclusion of these varieties in the language classroom.

### **3.5 Data Analysis**

After gathering all the data, the researcher transcribed the focus group interviews and analyzed the video recordings using the categories of lexical variation, pronunciation, grammar, use of L1 and L2, culture integration, CLT, COPs, and ACTFL guidelines. The researcher extracted the data manually from the transcripts and summarized the data in a series of charts. Appendix F shows the list of categories and themes that emerged after doing a line-by-line analysis, which included common words or concepts related to the research topic and the linguistic attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties in the language classroom. Data from each instrument (online interview, transcripts of video recordings, transcripts of focus group interviews, and field notes) were analyzed in detail by putting recurrent words, phrases, and sentences in a chart (See Appendix E). After completing the charts, the researcher followed a focused coding approach to synthesize and explain broader terms. After identifying 15 categories, the researcher summarized them into five themes (See Appendix F). These themes were aligned with the research questions of the study. In other words, a theoretical coding approach was used to focus the themes within the research questions, which entailed the main

concepts of the study: (a) language attitudes, (b) standard and nonstandard languages, and (c) the integration of CLT, COPS, and ACTFL guidelines.

### **3.6 Research Questions**

The following are the research questions for the current study:

Research Question 1. How do university Spanish instructors incorporate Spanish regional varieties in their language classroom discourse? What linguistic areas are commonly addressed? Pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, others?

Research Question 2. What motivates or discourages instructors' inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties?

Research Question 3. How do instructors' use of Spanish regional varieties fulfill the precepts of CLT, COPS, and the ACTFL guidelines for the 21<sup>st</sup> century?

To conclude this chapter, I present a description of why this current study fits the category of qualitative research, along with a summary of the pilot study that helped to generate new ideas to develop the current research. Also, a summary of the main characteristics of the language program where the study took place provides a better understanding of the context in which the class observations took place. Next, I provide a description of the participants' background. Then follows a description of the data collection procedures, which included an online questionnaire, video recording of classes, and focus groups. The final section describes how data analysis was developed. Chapter 4 presents the main findings of the current study.

## CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

In this chapter, I describe results of the current study after analyzing data gathered through the different instruments, starting with the online survey, followed by the video recordings, and concluding with the focus group sessions. This section has been organized according to the themes synthesized in the analytical stage and relies on quotes or spoken words used by the participants for the following purposes: as the matter of enquiry; as evidence; as explanation; as illustration; to deepen understanding; to give participants a voice; and to enhance readability (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006, p. 11). The researcher translated participants' original Spanish statements verbatim into English.

### **4.1 Communicating with the Target Language, Spanish: Teacher and Student Language Exposure**

Ballman et al. (2001) and Kramsch (2014) have referred to the language instructor as one of the first contacts that students may have with the foreign language. For that reason, instructors' use of the language is vital for students to learn its grammar, vocabulary, functions, pronunciation, and pragmatics, among other linguistic and nonlinguistic aspects. Thus, how the instructor presents the Spanish language in class is the focus of this section.

#### **4.1.1 Online survey**

**4.1.1.1 Spanish regional variety used during instruction.** The Qualtrics questionnaire included the following questions: During instruction time, what regional variety of Spanish do you use? Which factors influence your choices? Table 5 presents a summary of participants' answers to this question. This question explored the inclusion or exclusion of regional varieties

during daily lessons as a starting point for students to be exposed to natural language. As can be observed in Table 5, six instructors (54.54%) reported the use of their own regional variety of Spanish, followed by a preference for what participants called standard or neutral Spanish (varieties of northern and Central Spain).

Table 5

*Participants' Spanish Regional Variety Used in Class*

Spanish regional variety used during instruction time.	Participants	<i>n</i> (%)
Americanized version of Spanish	Alf (U.S.)	1 (9.09 %)
Own Spanish regional variety	Laf (Castilian, Spain) Gim (Bogotá) Claf (Honduras) Cam (Central-northern Peninsular Spanish) Baf (Madrid, Spain) Zam (Peninsular Spanish)	6 (54.54%)
Standard/ neutral	Am Staf Kaf Raf	4 (36.36 %)
		<i>N</i> = 11

Among the explanations for this frequent use of the language, one of the participants said that decisions were usually made based on what the textbook presents. Thus, classroom discourse fluctuated between speech modification and natural language.

- (1) “The factors that influence what I use are based on the material given in the book and my own classroom learning experiences.” (Raf)

*4.1.1.1.1 Modification of regional variety.* Some participants reported that they modify their speech to make themselves clear when they interact with other speakers. In example (2), the participant has had the experience of traveling to the countries mentioned and feels comfortable adjusting to her interlocutors’ variety. The same idea is also shown in example (3).

- (2) “I do notice that when I’m in Spain, for example, I speak with more of an Andalusian Accent, and when I’m in Nicaragua, I speak with more of a Nicaraguan accent. In the classroom, I feel like I monitor my accent so it’s not so strong, and I use more of an Americanized Spanish accent.” (Alf)
- (3) “I usually try to align my speech as much as possible with that of my conversation partner.” (Kaf)

On the other hand, other participants expressed their hesitation to use their variety with other interlocutors because they were afraid of not being understood (4).

- (4) “I would say that my variety is not very popular among my friends and co-workers. That is why I often hesitate to speak Spanish from my region and opt to speak a more standard Spanish, so people can understand me better.” (Claf)

This participant found linguistic accommodation as a tool to fit into her environment, where another regional variety was more common among speakers, and because she saw that it was important to speak clearly so that her students and other interlocutors could understand her. Along the same lines, examples (5), (6), (7), and (8) illustrate that instructors believed that it is necessary to speak clearly, modifying their natural speech and sometimes their own regional variety so that their students could understand them.

- (5) “When I am teaching, I try to use the Spanish variety as much as I can. I try to make sure that I pronounce everything in a manner in which my students can understand.” (Staf)

- (6) “I don't use any specific regional variety of Spanish. I attempt to speak clearly so that my students can understand. I attempt to pronounce all sounds of a word, not aspirating or eliminating any. I use the vocabulary I regularly use. I don't incorporate words from other varieties that I don't normally use” (Kaf)
- (7) “During instruction time I actually try to be as neutral/standard as possible, with something like the Spanish equivalent of newscaster English.” (Am)
- (8) “I try to use a more standard variety even if it means changing the variety that I am used to speaking with my friends and family.” (Claf)

4.1.1.1.2 *Natural speech*.<sup>2</sup> In opposition to modification of instructors' regional varieties, using a more natural way of speaking seems to characterize other participants who stated that they felt more comfortable using their natural way of speaking than trying to modify their speech to linguistic parameters that they were not familiar with, as mentioned in examples (9) and (10).

- (9) “I use my own variety, but sometimes I comment on differences in pronunciation, Vocabulary, and syntax between my variety and others.” (Gim)
- (10) “*La mía, la española-castellana. Es la más natural para mí. En algunas situaciones he tratado de adaptarme a otras variedades para adaptarme al contexto en el que me encontraba, por ejemplo, ante hispanohablantes de otras variedades, pero me siento a mí misma 'medio ridícula' forzándome a usar algo con lo que no estoy familiarizada.*” (Laf) [“Mine, Castilian Spanish. It is more natural for me. Sometimes, I have tried to adapt to other varieties to fit into the context I was in, for example, with Spanish speakers of other varieties, but I feel kind of ridiculous forcing myself to use something I am not familiarized with.”]

The participant who referred to example (10) expanded the previous idea by addressing the importance of using the language of instruction in a more natural way, as seen in example (11). Another participant provided example (12), which also supports the same idea of using the language naturally. This natural approach of using the language in the classroom allows students

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<sup>2</sup>Natural speech is understood as that “which allows the user to either formulate or interpret an utterance which is not only linguistically accurate, but which is also phrased as it would be by speakers of a particular dialect or variety of a language” (Bachman, 1990, p. 97)

to be exposed to the language that they will more likely hear in a real environment, whereas modification of speech may deprive them from these opportunities.

- (11) “*Personalmente creo que cada persona es lo que es, y ha de presentarse como tal, incluido la forma de hablar, sobre todo dentro de nuestro campo de la enseñanza.*” (Laf)  
[“Personally, I think that people should introduce themselves as they are, and that includes their way of talking, especially within the teaching field.”]

- (12) “I usually speak in a more or less normal way as I would speak to any group of students in my home country.” (Gim)

**4.1.2 Class observations.** During class observations, most of the participants used their own regional variety features, which included vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. At the same time, the inclusion of supporting material in which different regional varieties were identified was an additional resource to expose students to Spanish regional variation.

**4.1.2.1 Use of regional phonetic variation.** The opposition /s/ - /θ/ that characterizes all Peninsular varieties except for western and Central Andalusia (Lipski, 2012) was identified as a common linguistic feature used by instructors. The presence of this phonetic feature is illustrated in examples (13) and (14).

- (13) “*Vamos a hablar sobre ciudades en este capítulo. Veamos que ciudades tenemos*” (Laf) [we are going to talk about cities in this chapter. Let’s see what cities we have]

/θ/ Ciudad [θju.ˈðað] ‘city’

- (14) “*El transporte es más fácil*” (Raf) [the transportation system is easy]  
fácil [ˈfa.θil] ‘easy’

The neutralization of /s/ - /θ/ in favor of /s/ known as *seseo* was present in the speech of participant Gim. In example (15) instructor Cam pronounced the palatal lateral phoneme /ʎ/

- (15) instructor Cam pronounced *talla* ‘size.’ The instructor pronounces /ll/.  
talla [ˈta.ʎa] ‘size’

**4.1.2.2 Use of forms of address.** Use of the second person plural *vosotros* without the pronoun is more common because Spanish is a pro-drop language. These are characteristics of the language that its speakers use frequently but that are not explicitly presented in the information given in the textbooks. Thus, everyday exposure to them will transmit important information to students about the pro-drop feature of Spanish. Examples (16) and (17) illustrate these characteristics. In example (16), *recordad* is the imperative for *vosotros*, *vuestros* is the possessive form for *vosotros*, *sacad* is another imperative, and *habéis escrito* is the present perfect indicative. Note that in all the examples the pronoun *vosotros* was not explicitly used. On the other hand, in example 17 instructor Am addressed the student with the pronoun *usted*, which is more used in his variety.

(16) “**Recordad** que el otro día estábamos hablando de ... en grupos habéis comparado **vuestros** horarios. **Sacad** esa hoja. Quiero escuchar lo que **habéis escrito**” (Zam) [“Remember that the other day we were talking about ... in groups you have compared your schedules. Take out that sheet. I want to hear what you have written”]

(17) Instructor: *¿usted practica los deportes?* ‘do you practice any sports?’  
Student answered: “*si practico el baloncesto.*” ‘yes, I play basketball’

**4.1.2.3 Use of Spanish regional vocabulary.** During class observations, instructors who used the language naturally constantly referred to regional variation in terms of vocabulary differences as seen in examples (18) and (19)

(18) “*En mi país, si tenemos **deudas** decimos que tenemos **culebras**. Es una palabra informal* (a student takes notes) (Gim) [“In my country, if we have debts, we say we have “snakes.” It is an informal word]

(19) “*Ahora quiero ver a todo el mundo con una **pluma** en la mano para escribir sus respuestas*” (Am) [“Now I need to see you all with a pen in your hand to write down your answers”]

There is variation for the word *pluma* (pen) in the Spanish-speaking world: *pluma* (México); *lapicero* (Colombia); *lapicera* or *birome* (Argentina); *bolígrafo* (Spain); *esfero* (Ecuador, Colombia).

**4.1.2.4 Spanish regional variation through authentic material.** When defining the main characteristics of the Communicative Language Teaching approach, as presented in the literature review of the current study, Richards (2006) explained that communicative activities also use authentic resources. In other words, focusing on the main topic of the current study, authentic resources (e.g., movies, songs, news, etc.) embody countless examples of regional variation. A summary of some of the activities found in the observations is presented in Table 6. Instructors implicitly brought in different Spanish regional varieties to the classroom. However, at the lower levels (101, 102) there is a strong focus on Spanish from Spain in the recordings used in the textbook, *Protagonistas*, activities, the vocabulary, and the grammar explanations. On the other hand, the textbook *Imagina*, which is used for Spanish 201 and 202, presents more examples of Spanish regional varieties. Nevertheless, after analyzing the regional variety for each of the short films used in each unit of *Imagina*, out of 10 units, four units included regional variation from Spain, four from Mexico, one from Argentina, and one from Venezuela. In other words, the hegemony of Iberian Spanish followed by the variety from Mexico also labeled as a prestige variety is evident in these resources.

It is worth noting that classroom dynamic instances in which different kinds of music or other real examples of the target culture open doors for the presentation of regional varieties and may raise students' interest in searching for more information about it to expand their knowledge about the target language culture in which the language is embedded. For example, while the researcher was video recording one of the classes in which the instructor was playing some

music in Spanish, she observed how a student asked the instructor to give her the name of the singer and where he was from to search for more of his music.

Table 6

*Spanish Regional Variation through Authentic Material*

Authentic resource	Spanish variety presented	Purpose
Short film (Recursos Humanos) Unit 7. Textbook: <i>Imagina</i> (2015)	Spain	To present vocabulary and cultural aspects of a job interview.
Documentary: el mundo del trabajo. Flashcultura. Unit 7. Textbook: <i>Imagina</i> (2015)	Ecuador	To present differences in occupations.
Short film (Adios mamá) Unit 2. Textbook: <i>Imagina</i> (2015)	Mexico	To present preterite vs. imperfect, vocabulary about the family
Instructor's playlist of different Spanish-speaking artists: Luis Fonsi (Pto Rico), Maluma (Colombia), Shakira (Colombia), Selena (Mexico), Enrique Iglesias (España)	Pto. Rico Colombia Mexico Spain	To listen to while students were working on an assignment.
Recordings from the textbook <i>Protagonistas</i> (2012) (levels 101-102) activity 10, p. 62.	This is an interview in the streets of Madrid. The speakers use the regional variation from Spain.	To complete a fill-in-the-gap listening exercise.

*Note.* Evidence was gathered during class observations.

**4.1.2.5 Explicit reference to Spanish regional variation.** Although most of the references that participants made about Spanish regional variation were implicitly stated through examples such as the ones presented in Table 6, some instructors decided to openly explain to

their students about the importance of being aware of Spanish varieties and provided examples of countries where Spanish is the official language as seen in examples (20) and (21).

(20) *“Tenéis que trabajar, hablar en español, es importante practicar español con diferentes personas porque no quieres siempre oír el mismo acento, el mismo dialecto, siempre quieres trabajar con diferentes personas”* (Baf) [“You have to work in class, speak Spanish, it is important to practice your Spanish with different people because you don’t want to hear the same accent or dialect over and over. You always want to work with different people”]

(21) *“El español se habla en un montón de países, se habla en España, se habla en Colombia, en México y otros países.”* (Zam) [“Spanish is spoken in many different countries, it is spoken in Spain, Colombia, Mexico, and other countries”]

These direct explanations contribute to demystifying the idea that Spanish is spoken one way, in one or two countries. To conclude, in this section I have presented implicit and explicit ways in which Spanish regional varieties were present in the observed classes.

**4.1.3 Focus group 1.** The five participants in this group self-identified as non-native speakers of Spanish and have been teaching Spanish for about 2 years (See a complete description of the participants under methodology in chapter 3). Participants’ opinions about the type of language used during instruction can be summarized in three main categories: speech modification, natural speech, and use of address forms.

**4.1.3.1 Speech modification.** In example (22), the participant explained that she pronounces very carefully so that her students can understand her even if that type of pronunciation is not particular of her regional variety. In example (23) the instructor clarified that what they are supposed to teach in class has to align with what the textbook presents so that students get better chances to be successful on their unit tests.

(22) “When I plan my lesson depending on the material, I take into account like the vocabulary and how the grammar is presented in the textbook but when I think about how I present that material, in my language, in Spanish, I just try to be very careful in how I pronounce things.” (Staf)

(23) “Rather than saying, this is how I say it ((proud gesture)) but a grammar concept is more important that they are taught it in the way they are going to be tested on it.” (Raf)

**4.1.3.2 Natural speech.** For a definition of what natural speech means in this study see Footnote 3. One of the participants reported that she speaks naturally, and she identifies herself with the regional variety presented in the textbook. For that reason, she had not thought about addressing other regional varieties in her classes until she participated in this study; see example (24):

(24) “I’d probably say that my variety is closest to Madrileña (Spanish from Madrid, Spain), Centro Norte de España and the book caters to that so there is no, or at least the books that I have seen so far cater to that, so there is no real push for me to think outside other regional varieties because the regional variety that I am comfortable with is presented in the book, the way that I speak is reinforced by the book ((chuckles)), so I don’t really, I mean, up until doing this study I didn’t really think of any sort of regional varieties.”

After analyzing this opinion, it is understood that because the instructor’s and the textbook variety correspond, and Peninsular Spanish is almost always considered prestigious, the instructor does not see the need to explore more about the Spanish linguistic world.

**4.1.3.3 Use of forms of address.** In example (25), the instructor clarified that although the second person plural *vosotros* was not part of her regional variety, she encouraged students to become familiarized with it to be able to use it in a given situation. The same situation is observed in example (26) but with the second person singular *vos* (for a more detailed explanation of *vos*, refer to the section on address forms in the literature review). The instructor exposed her students to this form, even though she is not a *vos* user.

(25) “I tell them, I don’t use *vosotros*, I’ve never learned it and I tell them, you know if you are interested in Spain you should definitely need to pay attention to this.”

(26) “I actually do point it out almost every year, especially when I do an activity with *A Dios le Pido* which is a song by *Juanes* who is from *Medellin*, where they use *vos*.... So, I always put the song with the lyrics on the screen and I point it out to my students and I tell them it’s very important if you’re gonna be, if you’re interested in any place in South America, a lot of places use it.”

Participants’ opinions reflect a dualistic approach to what type of Spanish variety to use in the language classroom. Although some opted for modifying their speech so that their students could understand them, others preferred to speak naturally. At the same time, other instructors raised linguistic awareness by referring to the uses of *vosotros* (25) and *vos* (26).

**4.1.4 Focus group 2.** This group was composed of three self-identified Spanish native speakers who have taught Spanish for more than 5 years and two self-identified English native speakers who have taught Spanish for about 4 years. Participants’ opinions about the type of language used during instruction can be summarized in three main categories: speech modification, natural speech, and use of address forms.

**4.1.4.1 Speech modification.** Example (27) shows a participant’s opinions about modifying her regional variety linguistic features to avoid “misunderstandings.”

(27) “*Yo me relaciono mucho con mexicanos y ellos están acostumbrados a hablar como ellos hablan, cada quién entiende su acento. Entonces que alguien como yo les hable se quedan así como ((cara de extrañeza)) ((everybody chuckles)) yo bueno, tengo que cambiar al tú. Yo soy libre hablando de vos, yo hablo de vos, pero tengo que cambiar al tú porque si no, no me entienden.* (Claf) [I speak a lot with Mexicans and they are used to speaking as they do, they understand each other. So, when someone like me talks to them, they look at me like ((astonished facial gesture)) ((everybody chuckles)) so, I have to switch to *tú*. I feel free when I use *vos*, I speak with *vos*, but I have to switch to *tú*, otherwise they can’t understand me.]

In this regard, in example (28) the participant stated her desire to change her use of *vosotros* to *ustedes* because it was more common in her work and study environment. However, she failed to continue because she did not feel it as something natural. Thus, she decided to continue using her language naturally and encouraged her students to ask questions if they did not understand something.

(28) “A mí me pasó que al enseñar escuché que todo el mundo utilizaba *usted/ustedes* y traté de cambiar. Y al dirigirme a mis estudiantes con la forma *ustedes*, pero yo misma sonaba tan ridícula, tan artificial que dije no, yo soy yo y esta es mi manera de hablar y yo les hablo en *vosotros* y yo se los digo: no hay problema si no entendéis, me lo decís, si queréis utilizar *ustedes* porque en la escuela habéis aprendido a utilizarlo, yo no tengo ningún problema, pero yo hablo así porque de dónde vengo hablamos así y no utilizamos el *usted*.” (Laf) [It happened to me when I started teaching. I heard everybody using *usted* and so, I tried to change. However, as I was addressing my students with the pronoun *usted*, I sounded so ridiculous and so artificial that I said to myself: No, I am who I am, and this is the way I talk. I speak with *vosotros* and I tell my students that there is not a problem if they don’t understand, they can tell me. If they want to use *usted* because they have learned to use it in high school, I don’t have any problem, but I speak like this because of the region where I come from where we don’t use *usted*.]

Accordingly, participant Gim (29) shared that he has also tried to switch from using *usted* more common in his regional variety to using *tú* but has also encountered difficulties because it represents an artificial linguistic feature from what he is used to speaking. Consequently, a more natural way of using the language is implied.

(29) “Sí, es difícil porque yo también traté. Bueno, yo, de mí, por cuestión generacional creo, poco tuteo. Yo a las mujeres si las tuteo y he tratado de tutear a los hombres acá pero no sé, ((gesture)) me siento mal. Me siento que no soy yo. Me siento incómodo.” (Gim) [“Yes, it is difficult because I have also tried (referring to the use of *tú* which is a linguistic feature that he does not use regularly). Well, I do not use the pronoun *tú* very often because my generation is more used to using *usted*. I address women with *tú* and have tried to do the same with men here (in the U.S.), but I feel uncomfortable. I feel that I am not myself. I feel uncomfortable.”]

**4.1.4.2 Natural speech.** The instructor in example (30) stated that he tries to use his regional variety in a very natural way which, in the long run, benefits students’ opportunities to hear the target language as it is used in real life.

(30) “Yo cuando estoy en clase, hablo español muy parecido a lo que yo hablo en mi país, más despacio obviamente, mucho más despacio, pero y bueno el vocabulario trato de que no sea tan informal y uno por lo general habla de una manera informal, pero yo no utilizo digamos las palabras del libro que no son de mi vocabulario.” (Gim) [“When I am teaching, I speak very similar to the way I do it when I am in home country, a little slower, obviously, a little slower. But I try to use less informal vocabulary, but I do not use words presented in the book that don’t belong in my vocabulary”]

Hearing the language as it naturally occurs gives students options to use what they hear when they interact with others and to investigate more about the instructor's regional variety. In example (31) the participant commented that some of his students used vocabulary that—although he never uses in class—represents his regional variety.

(31) “*A mí me ocurrió con un grupo este semestre. Que yo creo que por hacer, como por conectarse conmigo salieron con un colombianismo, bacano. Que quiere decir como chévere, bonito, y lo dijeron en la presentación, que su producto era bacano ((everybody chuckled)).*” (Gim) [“It happened to me with one of my groups this semester. I think that to try to establish a connection with me, they used a Colombian expression, *bacano*, which means cool, awesome and they used it during an oral project to describe their product as *bacano*.”]

**4.1.4.3 Use of forms of address.** Participants in this group also mentioned the use of forms of address as a linguistic feature that varies in the Spanish-speaking world. In examples (30) and (31) the participants talked about their attempts to modify the way they use address forms but have encountered difficulties because it is not part of their language identity. Example (32), on the other hand, illustrates the change that the speaker made from *vos* to *tú* so that her interlocutors could understand her. The motivation for becoming part of a group is an influential factor when making a linguistic decision such as the use of address forms in Spanish and other languages.

(32) “*Yo soy libre hablando de vos, yo hablo de vos, pero tengo que cambiar al tú porque si no, no me entienden.*” (Claf) [I am free using *vos*, I use *vos*, but I have to change to *tú*, otherwise people don't understand me.]

In conclusion, this section has described in detail how the use of Spanish is presented in the language classroom. Recurrent topics have to do with the instructor's choice of modifying her/his speech/regional variety to be understood and the use of natural speech to expose students to real language. Second, the use of forms of address (*tú, usted, vos, vosotros*) varies according

to the regional variety of the instructor or the environment in which the communicative event takes place. Instructors' decisions to modify their own variety or use it as natural as possible are also influenced by a traditional division between Spanish from Spain and Spanish from Latin America, the topic of the following section.

## **4.2 Keeping the Division of Spanish: Spain and Latin America Under Traditional Perspectives**

In the 1600s, there was a tendency to a strong division between Spanish from Spain and Spanish from Latin America. Quesada Pacheco (2008) referred to Aldrete and his opinions about the division between these two areas. He explains that Spanish from Toledo was graded with an *A*, followed by Spanish from other regions of Spain, which received a *B*, whereas Spanish from outside of Spain received a *C*. This grading system confirms that although many centuries have passed, it is still common to hear comments related to the division between Spanish from Spain and Spanish from outside of Spain. This judgment influences instructors' choice of the language used in class. On the following pages, I explain findings from gathering the data in this regard. I start with the online survey followed by the video recordings and conclude with the focus group sessions.

**4.2.1 Online survey.** In examples (33) and (34), one observes that in the participants' way of seeing the Spanish language, there is still that dualistic division between Spain and South America in which Spanish from Spain is considered a more prestigious variety.

(33) "Varieties from South America are not as prestigious as varieties from Mexico or Spain." (Am)

(34) "*Dentro de España se considera la andaluza como la menos prestigiosa porque se 'comen' letras y, por ende, dentro de Latinoamérica el español caribeño ya que presenta características similares a la variedad andaluza.*" (Laf) ["Within Spain, the Andalusian variety is considered less prestigious because they 'eat their letters.' Similarly, in Latin America Caribbean Spanish is less prestigious because of its similarities with the Andalusian variety."]

In example (35) the participant's regional variety from Latin America has been judged by others as not very prestigious in comparison to Castilian Spanish. Thus, the dualistic division and judgment prevails.

(35) "I would say public opinion in general is that it isn't as prestigious as Castilian Spanish." (Am)

When participants were asked what regional variety they considered more prestigious, there were answers that supported the grading scale provided in the introduction to this section. Spanish from Spain (Northern and Central Spain) carried the most prestige, meaning that the rest of the Spanish-speaking world still keeps the label of non-prestigious varieties, as seen example (36).

(36) "I would say that the Spanish variety from Spain is very prestigious. People consider it the most standard variety there is. It is probably because Spain is the mother of all the Spanish varieties." (Claf)

**4.2.2 Class observations.** Instructors showed a tendency to compare what is being said in Spain to what is being said in Latin America when they were teaching, especially in terms of vocabulary, cultural aspects, and the use of pronouns.

**4.2.2.1 Lexical references.** Making comparisons about lexical differences between Spanish regional varieties was one of the most frequent practices in the classes where the instructors reported the use of the target language in a natural way, as illustrated in examples (37) and (38).

(37) "*El cura es el pastor en una iglesia católica. Podemos usar la palabra, pastor, sacerdote o cura. En España es más común cura. Yo no sé en Colombia.*" (Laf)  
["The priest is the pastor at a Catholic church. We can use pastor or priest. In Spain it is more common to say priest. I don't know in Colombia."]

(38) In a fill in the blank exercise a student said, "*Se me rompió el reloj.*" [My watch broke] The instructor replied, "*Yo no diría eso. Yo diría se me dañó, del verbo dañar. Debe ser algo español.*" (Gim) ["I wouldn't say that. I would say my watch broke. It

broke, must be something used in Spain.]

**4.2.2.2 Grammar references.** Explanations about the grammar topic (the present perfect indicative and the preterite) that concerns this study was found, as in example (39). It also explicitly referred to the dualistic division of Spanish between Spain and Latin America. In example (39) the participant implicitly opted for eliminating the use of *vosotros* so students would not get confused or overwhelmed. In other words, the instructor perpetuates the idea that *vosotros* is not used in the Spanish-speaking world.

(39) *"Yo en lo personal contestaría así (referring to the preterite) "tomé café" por ejemplo en España, a veces o la mayoría de las veces el pretérito perfecto sustituye al pretérito. Para la pregunta que has hecho hoy, yo diría que hiciste. En los países latinoamericanos utilizamos el pretérito perfecto como en inglés"* (Claf) ["From my personal point of view (referring to the preterite) "I had coffee" for example in Spain most of the time the present perfect substitutes for the preterite. For the question: what have you done today? I would say, what did you do today? In Latin America we use the present perfect as it is used in English."]

(40) The instructor asked students to conjugate the verb *querer* (want) in all forms but when they do the *vosotros* form, the instructor (Kaf) said: *"no se preocupen"* [don't worry about this conjugation.]

**4.2.2.3 Cultural references.** Some participants referred to cultural aspects that play an important role when visiting Spanish-speaking countries. In example (41) there is a reference to sizes for clothing, and in example (42) the instructor mentioned differences in weight measurement.

(41) *"En países hispanohablantes usan S-M-L (nombre de la letra) pero en países europeos es diferente porque usan números."* (Am) ["In Spanish-speaking countries the letters S-M-L are used, but in European countries it is different because numbers are used.]

(42) *"En España y también en Suramérica se usan kilos en vez de pounds. Entonces, por ejemplo, cuando vais a comprar la carne, pueden comprar..."* (Zam) ["In Spain as well as in South America, kilos are used instead of pounds. So, for example, when you go and buy meat, you can buy..."]

To conclude this section, it was observed that there is still a strong dualistic idea of Spanish from Spain and Spanish from South America, which also carries the categorization of prestigious or non-prestigious. The positive aspects, although generalized, found during these observations related to the cultural references made by the instructors because they prepared students for future cultural encounters in which it would be necessary to retrieve the type of information presented by the instructor.

**4.2.3 Focus groups.** Observation and analysis of the two focus groups showed that in the first group, although references to the dualistic division of Spanish were made, its participants appeared less concerned about this topic than participants in Focus Group 2.

**4.2.3.1 Focus group 1.** In example (43) the participant's way of reporting the situation implies that he saw that his regional variation from Spain was being mocked by a person from Latin America.

(43) "It happened to me just a couple of weeks ago when I was sitting with XXX. We were sitting at XXX where we were drinking some coffee, grading some papers and a native Spanish speaker was sitting across from us, and XXX and I were speaking and sometimes in Spanish, sometimes not and she like heard ((Hand gesture for hearing)) some Spanish and she was like, oh! You guys speak Spanish, I'm from, where, I can't actually remember, somewhere in Latin America, but I cannot remember where. And she was like oh! You speak like these ((stylish hand gesture)) "*hablas español, así*" ((exaggerating the /z/)) ((everybody chuckles)) and I'm like, you know not quite, that's not quite right but I'm yeah! It's a, yeah, it's a." (Cam)

The participant also reflected the tension that exists between speakers of different Spanish varieties, especially when taking the dualistic division (Spain vs. Latin American) into consideration. Perpetuating ideas of a dualistic division and their positive or negative labels also influences students' choices when making decisions about study abroad programs. Example (44) corroborates this statement.

(44) "If you take a poll of your students and ask them what country you are most interested in studying, I have actually done this several times, the winner is

always Spain.” (Kaf)

**4.2.3.2 Focus group 2.** This group showed greater interest in discussing the dualistic division between Spanish from Spain and Spanish spoken elsewhere. It is a point of reference for some instructors to understand and be able to explain possible regional variation as observed in example (45).

- (45) *“Y en el contexto de enseñar cómo, no puedo hacerlo sin pensar en la división entre el castellano y lo demás ((participant air quotes)) como se dice en muchos textos.”*  
(Am) [“And within the teaching context, I can’t think about it without linking it to a division between Castilian Spanish and everything else ((quotation mark gesture)) as many textbooks present it.”]

It is evident that this type of dualistic approach or understanding is perpetuated within the Spanish classroom, and it is passed on from teachers to students, which helps it become stronger and difficult to fade as the participant in example (46) explained.

- (46) *“Entre como castellano y los otros ((participant air quotes))”* (Am) [“(that division) between Castilian Spanish and the others ((quotation marks gesture))”]

Although this group of participants has been exposed to the concept of a dualistic division of Spanish, other participants, in examples 47 and 48, clarified that they have learned to understand the division between Spain and the rest of the Spanish-speaking world here in the United States where they have observed that this division stands out.

- (47) *“Sí, yo realmente yo nunca o al principio cuando empecé a enseñar ni siquiera me lo planteaba. Pero es verdad que ahora muchos libros de texto hacen esa diferencia y en mis clases en unas actividades que hacemos sí que se lo clarifico a los estudiantes. Bueno, esta actividad sí que está enfocada en el español de España.”*  
(Laf) [“Yes, when I first started teaching I never thought about that division. But it is true that many textbooks show the difference and when I find something like this in my classes I clarify this to the students by saying, this activity is focused on Spanish from Spain.”]
- (48) *“Entonces fue acá en Estados Unidos para mí que yo llegué como a escuchar esa división tan marcada entre español y el resto del español...”* (Gim)  
[“It was here in the United States where I started to hear about that division between Spanish from Spain and the rest...”]

In conclusion, it is important to observe that behind the dualistic division of Spanish, judgments of prestigious or non-prestigious varieties prevail and keep being perpetuated. It is also worth noting that the native speakers of Spanish in Focus Group 2 learned about this duality while teaching Spanish here in the United States.

### **4.3 Exploring Participants' Attitudes Towards Other Varieties and Their Own**

The ideas of superior or inferior that are embedded in the concepts of standard and nonstandard influence teachers' attitudes towards other languages as well as their own. Preston (2002) explained that the study of language attitudes focuses on the linguistic clues that both guide a hearer to a speaker's group membership and trigger the hearer's beliefs about the group. Furthermore, McGroarty (1996) stated that attitude is "linked to a person's values and beliefs and promotes or discourages the choices made in all realms of activity, whether academic or informal" (p. 5). In the following paragraphs, I present data that show participants' attitudes towards their own variety or other regional varieties gathered through the different instruments: online survey, in class observations, and focus groups.

**4.3.1 Online survey.** Data analysis of this instrument showed that some instructors believed that their own variety is a mix of different regional varieties because of the different language contact they have experienced while learning the language as a native language or as a foreign or second language. Being in contact with different varieties has also influenced the way they evaluate other regional varieties.

**4.3.1.1 Attitudes towards instructor's own variety.** Some instructors considered their variety a mix of what they have been exposed to, mainly because they have had the opportunity to travel to different Spanish-speaking countries and have been in contact with different Spanish speakers. These opportunities are characterized by formal and informal experiences. In other

words, formal experiences have to do with study abroad in a Spanish-speaking country, whereas informal refers to opportunities such as going on a vacation trip or interacting with people at the workplace. Therefore, opinions about instructors' own variety showed different views. In example (49) the instructor perceived her variety as very formal and identified the regional variety that she liked.

(49) "I think I do not align completely with any one regional variety of Spanish. I enjoy learning and using different regional dialects. At times I feel that my Spanish is too academic or formal for daily conversation... my favorite dialect to learn and speak is Spanish from the Caribbean coast of Colombia." (Kaf)

Another participant commented, in example (50), that her regional variety of Spanish is not very popular among coworkers, neighbors, or friends and that is the reason why she has decided to modify her regional variation to a more neutral or standard Spanish. Along the same lines, example (51) illustrates how the participant judged his own variety as not as prestigious as Castilian Spanish, but still he felt a strong connection to it.

(50) "I would say that my variety is not very popular among my friends and co-workers. That is why I often hesitate to speak xxx Spanish and opt to speak a more standard Spanish, so people can understand me better." (Claf)

(51) "It is the variety I have interacted with most outside of an instructional setting, so it carries a feeling of familiarity and friendliness with it that is more a personal attachment than any sort of judgement.... A variety learned informally is considered not as prestigious as Castilian Spanish." (Am)

**4.3.1.2 Attitudes towards other varieties.** Participants reported that Spanish-speaking regions tend to discriminate/judge among themselves due mainly to whether a variety is considered prestigious or not, as is seen in example (52).

(52) "Colombian Spanish is very good, elegant, clear, and correct. Spaniards, obviously, do not share the same opinion." (Gim)

However, in example (53) the participant did not want to be related to the variety that is

considered the most prestigious. The instructor seemed to be bothered—“I don't like that”—when her Spanish is associated with the Iberian Spanish variety, which differs from the Latin American variety that the instructor recognized as having learned when she was learning Spanish as a foreign language.

(53) “Most Latinos here in the U.S. who comment on my Spanish say it sounds like it's from Spain. I don't like that. I am not particularly interested in Spain, and don't use any slang or grammatical structures specific to Spain, so I don't agree that I speak like a Spaniard....” (Kaf)

Among all the Spanish regional varieties, the regional varieties from Colombia and Spain are considered the most prestigious varieties among participants in this study, as observed in examples (54) and (55)

(54) “The Colombian variety is conservative, neutral and easy to understand.” (Claf)

(55) “The variety from Spain is very prestigious. It is probably because Spain is the mother of all the Spanish varieties.” (Claf)

For being considered a very prestigious variety, some participants reported that the regional variety from Spain is the model followed in many academic environments, and more specifically by publishers, as can be seen in examples (56) and (57)

(56) “Regional varieties from Spain are more prestigious. That's the reason why this variety is always used in academic textbooks.” (Staf)

(57) “Spanish from Spain is more prestigious because it is always used in academics.” (Kaf)

Despite the preferences expressed towards the regional varieties from Colombia and Spain, some participants also stated that all regional varieties should be considered prestigious, as illustrated in examples (58), (59), (60), and (61).

(58) “All varieties should be considered equally important.” (Alf)

(59) “I don't feel that one variety is more prestigious than another.” (Zam)

(60) “I wouldn’t consider any regional varieties to be more prestigious than others.” (Baf)

(61) “I don't consider any to be more prestigious than others. Teachers taught me in many different varieties, so my introduction to Spanish wasn't rooted in a single regional variety.” (Raf)

**4.3.2 Class observations.** During class observations, the participants showed different implicit and explicit attitudes towards other varieties and their own. Example (62) explicitly shows that the instructor wanted her students to be in contact with other Spanish varieties to become successful in using the Spanish language.

(62) “*Tenéis que trabajar, hablar en español, es importante practicar español con diferentes personas porque no quieres siempre oír el mismo acento, el mismo dialecto, siempre quieres trabajar con diferentes personas*” (Baf)  
[“You have to work in class, speak Spanish, it is important to practice your Spanish with different people because you don’t want to hear the same accent or dialect over and over. You always want to work with different people.”]

The instructor not only promoted integration with people from different academic backgrounds in Spanish, but also by speaking naturally and using the verb conjugated in the *vosotros* form *tenéis*, she implicitly exposed students to the pro-drop feature of Spanish.

Implicitly speaking, other participants promoted Spanish regional varieties through music they played in class while students worked on an assignment. An instructor played music by Gustavo Santaolalla, an Argentine musician. Although it is instrumental music, I noticed how a student sitting next to me wrote down the name of the artist. Another instructor played music by different Spanish-speaking artists that included Luis Fonsi (Puerto Rico), Maluma (Colombia), Shakira (Colombia), Selena (Mexico), and Enrique Iglesias (Spain).

Although some participants made implicit or explicit positive references to other varieties during instructional time, there were also other references that rejected features from other varieties. Instructor Kaf asked students to conjugate the verb *querer*, but when they did the *vosotros* form, the instructor said, “*No se preocupen*,” meaning don't worry about this

conjugation. This remark promotes the idea that it is not necessary to learn how to conjugate the verbs in the *vosotros* form. Factors such as the participant's preference for her own regional variety may have influenced this comment.

In another situation, after a native Spanish guest informed a class about an opportunity to practice Spanish outside of class, the instructor, a non-native Spanish speaker, asked her students if they understood the “blah blah” of the guest speaker, “Did you understand the blah blah?” (Students laughed). These types of remarks focus on accents and promote stigmatization towards Spanish-speaking people in general.

**4.3.3 Focus groups.** Differences between the two focus groups on how they approached the topic of attitudes towards other varieties and their own are explained in the following sections.

**4.3.3.1 Focus group 1.** During this session, participants expressed their positive and negative attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties. Once again, the subjects in this group identified Spanish from Spain as the variety that carries more prestige as in examples (63) and (64):

(63) “I would say that Spanish from the central northern region of Spain is prestigious in most places.” (Kaf)

(64) “and standard, too. I mean what we see in the textbooks that we use in our department.” (Raf)

Based on the answers in which Spanish from Spain is considered prestigious, the researcher asked one of the participants to provide a definition for the word prestigious.

(65) Prestigious: “to me, prestigious means, there are few aspects that would say, there is the aspect that has to do with popular opinion, if a lot of people ((chuckles)) agree that something is good or better is kind of like a self-perpetuated thing. But there are also issues of, there is a lot of politics to it, which countries have more power, which countries are more present in media like TV. Which countries are producing

*telenovelas*, which countries are producing the artist of the moment, that type of thing says those dialects are prestigious.” (Kaf)

It is evident that factors such as media influence what variety is considered more prestigious, because media reaches big audiences, thus more people believe that Spanish from Spain is more prestigious. Consequently, publishing houses promote their products by putting emphasis on Spanish from Spain as seen in example (66).

(66) “Textbooks and educational materials, stuff like that, I think that also has a lot to do with what we think, prestigious is the one that deserves to be taught. Uhm.” (Raf)

And because the prestigious variety deserves to be taught, students are implicitly or explicitly encouraged to learn that regional variety. For that reason, some participants did not understand why students of Spanish were not familiar with the pronoun *vosotros*, a second person plural pronoun used in Spain to refer to a group of people.

(67) “I mean some students don’t even know that it exists ((the rest of the participants: yeah!)) like when they learn it, they learn, *yo, tú, él, ella, nosotros, ellos, ellas, ustedes*, they don’t even know that *vosotros* exists, which is ridiculous.” (Raf)

The participant who made the statement in example (68) was very emphatic on the need to teach *vosotros* because it is more standard than forms such as *vos*. It is important to note that this instructor self-identified as a Spanish speaker from Spain, but not a *vosotros* user, so a sense of language loyalty is also reflected in her words.

(68) “As a *vosotros* nonuser or sort of, I think it’s important to kind of do the same thing that you would do with *vos*. I think it is kind of whether more important, not more important but more standard to teach *vosotros* or at least show it on the, you know....” (Raf)

The participant tried to state that *vos* (second person singular pronoun) needs to be taught, but she ended up giving more importance to teaching *vosotros*, for being more standard.

On the contrary, another participant had a different attitude towards the use of *vosotros* as seen in example (69).

(69) “If it’s (referring to the pronoun *vosotros*) on the quiz, I tell them cross it out if you don’t use it [( )] I tell them cross it out and use *ustedes*.” (Kaf)

This conceptualization of the regional varieties of Spanish in which the use of some regional variation features excludes the use of others does not benefit students. Learners need to be aware of the grammar and social use of the pronouns. For that reason, example (70) offers another perspective on the matter discussed previously.

(70) “You don’t have to speak with the *vosotros* form in Spanish, sorry in class, if you don’t use that form, if that’s not part of your dialect but it’s in the book, it’s a form that needs to be tested just like the *tú* form, just like the *ustedes* form, just like all of them. So, I think it’s a terrible idea to say cross it out on the quiz and you make it to what you want it to be. That’s ....” (Cam)

In this case, the instructor assured that although some regional variation features may not be part of Spanish instructors’ own repertoire, they still need to make references to other Spanish varieties features in their daily instructional activities and avoid eliminating those differences from the students’ linguistic repertoire.

In other instances, when a regional variety differs from what most textbooks or media present, in general, a sense of disbelief comes into play. One of the instructors showed his disbelief after another participant described the regional variety of her preference as prestigious. See example (71):

(71) “I’ve heard that about Perú, also. Perú, I’ve heard that, I don’t know why, but” (accompanied by hand and face gestures that support his disbelief) (Cam)

Example (71) also shows that the instructor’s lack of contact with regional varieties different from the one he has been exposed to the most contributes to the way he judges those varieties.

Along the same lines, in example (72) another participant expressed her opinion on being mistaken for a speaker of another variety because of the way she looks or speaks.

(72) “It’s always really interesting to see how people react when I am speaking to them in Spanish and then they continue to ask me where I’m from and when I tell them I’m from XX they always just assume that I am Mexican ↓ ((sad face)) ((everybody chuckles)) because of how I speak.” (Staf)

The participant lowered her voice when referring to the variety from Mexico and supported it with her sad facial expression, which could mean that the participant seemed to be bothered or ashamed by the mistake. She explained that she always has to tell her story about how she learned Spanish in order to emphasize what variety she identified with and has been exposed to the most.

**4.3.3.2 Focus group 2.** Within this group of participants, two categories related to attitudes emerged: on the one hand, participants’ views of other regional varieties and on the other hand, participants’ perception of their own variety.

*4.3.3.2.1 Participants attitudes towards other varieties.* This group of participants agreed with participants in Focus Group 1 about how speakers from different regional varieties judge among themselves, and some of them consider their own variety more prestigious than others, as in examples (73) and (74).

(73) “*Yo lo que he visto con muchos hispanos es que cada uno tira para su lado.*” (Gim) [“What I have seen is that many Spanish speakers see their own variety as prestigious”]

(74) “*Si estoy en Nicaragua ellos dicen: ¡oh, los costarricenses! ((everybody chuckles)) tienen este acento. Pero en Costa Rica ellos dicen, ¡oh, los nicaragüenses! Dicen o en España dicen algo, como en cada país hay algo, no sé qué es peor, dicen bromas o cosas.*” (Alf) [“If I am in Nicaragua, they say: Oh, Costa Ricans! ((everybody chuckles)) they have this accent. In Costa Rica, they say: oh, Nicaraguans! Or in Spain, they say something, it is like there is something in every country, I don’t know what is worse, but they say things or make jokes about others.”]

Judging other regional varieties also includes the use of forms of address. That is how some varieties who use *tú* (second person singular, usually understood as more informal) see the use of *usted* (second person singular, usually understood as more formal) as pretentious. In

example (75) the participant made a reference to one of his friends and what he thought of the use of *usted* by people from Colombia.

(75)“*Yo tenía un amigo mexicano, decía que nosotros los colombianos éramos muy pretensiosos. Y me dijo; ustedes son muy pretensiosos y yo le dije ¿por qué? Sí, es que a todo el mundo tratan de usted.*” (Gim) [“I had a friend from Mexico who said that Colombians were pretentious. He said: “You, Colombians, are pretentious” and I asked, “Why do you think so?” He answered, “yes, you treat everybody with *usted*.”]

Participants agreed that these judgments are influenced by academic, economic, political, and social factors. In examples (76) and (77) the participants talked about how economic and political factors influence people’s attitudes towards other varieties.

(76)“*En España siempre es la de Andalucía. Es de las peores porque no vocalizan, porque económicamente van a ser más pobres.*” (Laf) [“In Spain, the variety from Andalucía is stigmatized. It is one of the worst varieties because they don’t enunciate well, because economically, they are poorer.”]

(77)“*Especialmente acá en Estados Unidos he escuchado por ejemplo esa estigmatización hacia el español caribeño, que a mí opinión me parece tan bonito, tan melodioso, tan vivo....*” (Gim) [“Especially here in the United States I have observed how Caribbean Spanish is stigmatized, which in my opinion is so beautiful, so melodious, so alive....”]

Participants explained that the stigmatization that Caribbean Spanish has may be influenced by the weak political relationships that the United States has with Caribbean countries, such as Cuba. One of the participants explained (78) that Spanish from the Canary Islands was not a stigmatized variety despite the fact that it shares linguistic traits with Spanish from the Caribbean.

(78) “*Es muy interesante, porque en España, el español de Canarias. (Pause)El español que se habla en el Caribe es muy similar al que se habla en Canarias por los motivos migratorios. Pero en España nadie acusa a la variedad canaria como que sea, tenga menor prestigio. Pero si hay un español caribeño.... En España, los canarios no hay ni bromas, ni nada contra los canarios*” (Laf) [“it is interesting, because in Spain, Spanish from the Canarias. (Pause) Spanish spoken in the Caribbean is very similar to Spanish spoken in Canarias due to immigration. However, in Spain, the regional variety from the Canarias does not have less prestige. But there is Caribbean

Spanish.... In Spain, there aren't any jokes or any other negative things against the Canarians.”]

Continuing with idea of prestigious versus stigmatized varieties, another participant mentioned (79) that she has observed how the academic aspect also influences different attitudes towards certain varieties. She explained that well-known authors disseminate their Spanish through literary pieces, thus their variety ends up being recognized as prestigious.

(79)“*Yo creo que tiene que ver mucho la literatura que hay en el sentido que por ejemplo de Honduras no hay muchas obras literarias. No hay muchos autores, escritores. O no hay muchas cosas que se conozcan de Honduras, poemas y todo eso. Entonces, de Colombia se conoce bastante, de España, también. Porque en la literatura se ve. De México, también.*”(Claf) [“I think that it has to do with literature. I mean, for instance, in Honduras there are not many well-known literary pieces. There aren't many authors or writers. There aren't many Honduran poems or things like that. On the contrary, there are many authors from Colombia or from Spain. We see it in the literature from those countries. From Mexico as well.”]

Despite the tendency to judge negatively other regional varieties, there are participants who stated the importance of encouraging students to use regional linguistic characteristics that they have learned with their previous Spanish teachers, as illustrated in examples (80) and (81)

(80)“*Voy a llamarle, y entonces yo le decía. En Latino América, al menos en Colombia, la mayoría diría, voy a llamarlo, voy a llamarla. Hacemos esa distinción. De pronto ahí yo digo, nosotros no decimos tanto esto, pero no digo que sea incorrecto el leísmo porque obviamente hay una región que lo usa y está reconocido, entonces no se puede decir que es incorrecto.*” (Gim) [“I am going to call her/him (*leísmo*: use of *le* (indirect object for he/she) instead of *lo* (direct object for he, la, direct object for she) so I told the student: In Latin America, at least in Colombia, most people would say I am going to call him/her. We make that distinction. At that moment I say, we do not say this that much, but I don't say that “*leísmo* (use of *le* instead of *lo* /*la*)” is incorrect because there is a region in which it is used and it is recognized, so I wouldn't say that it is incorrect.”]

(81)“*Yo tuve una estudiante que utilizó **vosotros** varias veces, a pesar de que yo no era español y que es obvio que se sabe que yo no uso vosotros. Y yo le dije si va a hablar con vosotros siga y yo le ayudo a mantener esa constancia porque pues cada uno escoge lo que uno quiere hablar.*” (Gim)

[“I had a student who used *vosotros* several times even though I am not from Spain and obviously I don’t use *vosotros*. So, I told her that if she was going to use *vosotros* she could continue doing it and that I would help her to strengthen that use because each person chooses how he/she wants to talk.”]

4.3.3.2.2 *Participants’ attitudes towards their own variety.* How some regional varieties are viewed influences the way its users feel and see their own way of speaking. Analyzing examples (82) and (83), I see a strong sense of language loyalty when the instructor decided to continue using *vosotros*. Along the same lines, in example (83) the instructor shared a similar example with the use of the second person singular pronouns *tú* and *usted*. It is also important to note that these instructors’ regional variety fell within the category of some of the most prestigious, which could have strengthened their decision in favor of the pronouns *vosotros* and *usted*.

(82)“*A mí me pasó que al enseñar escuché que todo el mundo utilizaba el usted y traté de cambiar. Y al dirigirme a mis estudiantes con la forma usted pero yo misma sonaba tan ridícula, tan artificial que dije: no, yo soy yo y ésta es mi manera de hablar y yo les hablo en vosotros y yo se los digo.*” (Laf) [“It happened to me when I started teaching. I heard everybody using *usted* and so, I tried to change. However, as I was addressing my students with the pronoun *usted*, I sounded so ridiculous and so artificial that I said to myself: No, I am who I am, and this is the way I talk. I speak with *vosotros* and I tell my students about it.”]

(83)“*Sí, es difícil porque yo también traté. Bueno, yo, de mí, por cuestión generacional creo, poco tuteo. Yo a las mujeres si las tuteo y he tratado de tutear a los hombres acá pero no sé, ((gesture)) me siento mal. Me siento que no soy yo. Me siento incómodo*” (Gim) [“yes, I have also tried (referring to the use of a linguistic trait that he does not use regularly). Well, I do not use the pronoun *tú* very often because my generation is more used to the use of *usted*. I address women with *tú* and I have tried to address men with *tú*, but I don’t know, I feel that I am not being myself. I feel uncomfortable”]

Although these instructors have tried to modify their speech to accommodate what is more common in their current environment, they decided to maintain their regular form of address because it portrays their identity.

On the other hand, another participant categorized her way of speaking as less prestigious because, as she said, it is full of slang and not many people understand it, as seen in example (84). Therefore, the instructor modified her speech so that her students did not get confused, as in example (85).

(84) “*Porque yo ya estoy predispuesta, ... a que digan ésta tiene un español bien pateado, como decimos nosotros, porque tenemos muchos hondureñismos, en nuestro español.*” (Claf) [“Because I am already predisposed, ... people say; this woman speaks bad Spanish, as we say in Honduras, because we have much Honduran vocabulary in our Spanish.”]

(85) “*Pues como digo, si yo uso mi variedad, no sé si los (los estudiantes) voy a confundir. Ese es mi problema.*” (Claf) [“As I say, if I use my variety, I don’t know if they (the students) are going to get confused. That’s my problem.”]

Along the same lines, example (86) supports example (85) because the instructor decided to avoid his regional variety for being considered incorrect.

(86) “I really can’t speak the way that I normally would as a teacher in the classroom because it is so different that it could be called incorrect.” (Am)

Although the participant in example (86) was hesitant to use his regional variety, he also made clear that the level of the class he is teaching influences the way he speaks, as seen in example (87).

(87) “I feel very discouraged to speak like that, not so much with students at a higher level, 300 (third year of Spanish), ...but, with the 101, I feel like I should stick more to what the text is instead of what I would say.” (Am)

Example (87) reinforces the idea that regional varieties need to be presented at higher levels, as has been reported in previous studies.

In conclusion, attitudes towards Spanish regional varieties are framed within ideas of prestigious versus stigmatized judgments. These ideas influence speakers’ positive or negative attitudes towards other regional varieties and their own. Therefore, these attitudes influence instructors’ decisions on the type of regional variety that is used in the language classroom.

#### 4.4 Understanding Spanish Coordinated Programs

In this section, I present findings related to the Spanish language program where this study took place. The importance of these findings lies in the fact that the program policies, curriculum, tests, and textbooks influence instructors' decisions on the type of regional variation that needs to be used in the classroom.

**4.4.1 Online survey.** Many of the participants thought that the coordinated program they taught for did not provide any specific guidelines about the use of regional varieties during instructional time. In other words, because there were no policies about it, instructors understood that they had freedom to use any regional variety. At the same time, some instructors stated that although there was no strict language policy to follow during instruction, the course textbooks emphasized Spanish from Spain, which means that they had to adapt to it because that is what students would be evaluated on, Figure 7 exemplifies instructors' opinions about the predominant variety found in their class textbooks. At a rate of 82%, participants identified the variety from Spain as the predominant regional variation in both textbooks, *Protagonistas* and *Imagina*.

Gutierrez and Fairclough (2006) explained that the majority of textbooks favor an invariant form, which inherently ignores regional variation. Shohamy (2006) also referred to the role of textbooks and tests when talking about language varieties. She explained that the language needs to be viewed as a free entity that embraces variations and allows creativity and that all these forms of policy (tests, textbooks) perpetuate prescriptive rules of the language and give room to the imposition of ideologies that may be adverse to the target community.

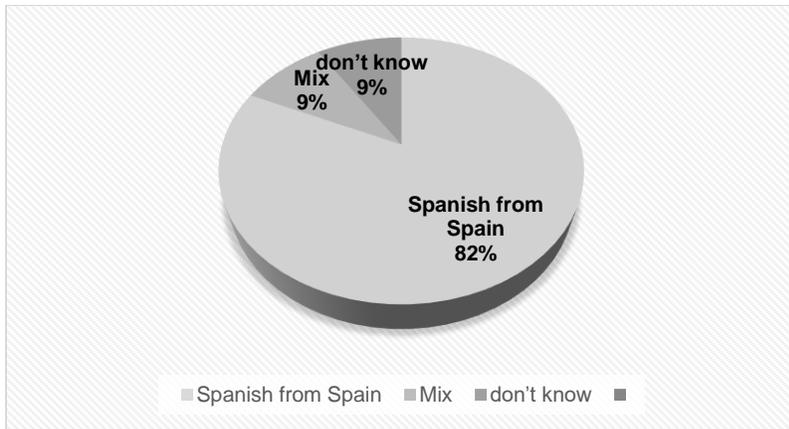


Figure 7. Spanish regional varieties identified in textbooks.

When participants were asked the question, in terms of regional variation, How often do you deviate from what your class textbook presents? five (45.45%) instructors admitted moving out of the textbook boundaries to include material that presents Spanish regional varieties. Another group of 3 instructors expressed that they sometimes deviate from textbook materials, whereas 3 instructors reported no deviation at all. These ideas are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7

*Frequency of Instructors' Deviation From Course Textbook*

Deviation. 5 instructors (45.45 %)	Some deviation. 3 instructors (27.27%)	No deviation. 3 instructors (27.27 %)
NNS (Alf)	NNS (Zam)	NNS (Staf)
NS (Gim)	NNS (Am)	NNS (Cam)
NNS (Kaf)	NS (Claf)	NNS (Raf)
NS (Laf)		
NS (Baf)		

*Note.* NNS: non-native speaker of Spanish; NS: Native speaker of Spanish.

Deviation is understood as the possibility of enhancing textbook teaching materials to account for the inclusion of Spanish regional varieties.

**4.4.2 Class observations.** In examples (88), (89), and (90) one observes that the instructors add extra information in their classes to account for regional variation and to make clarifications that textbooks don't include for many different reasons.

(88) "*Para mí la palabra suburbio tiene un significado negativo" Un suburbio en español es un lugar fuera de la ciudad, pero es un mal lugar para vivir. No sé por qué el libro lo ha puesto así.*" (Laf) ["For me, the word *suburbio* (suburb) has a negative connotation. A suburb in Spanish is a place outside of the city, but it is a bad place to live. I don't know why the book has presented it with a positive connotation."]

(89) "*En Colombia no decimos rubia, decimos mona o mono para hombre, pero tengan cuidado porque mono también es un animal" (students laughed) en Colombia, mono es el cabello claro.*" (Gim) ["In Colombia, to call a person blonde we use the equivalent to the word *monkey* in English, but be careful because you know, it is also the animal. In Colombia, *mono* has to do with light colored hair (blonde)"]

(90) "VHL (online component of the class) *quiere es la 1 menos 22, pero es más común las doce y treinta y ocho*" (Staf) ["VHL (online component) says it's 22 to 1, but it is more common to say it is twelve thirty-eight."]

In contrast, in example (91) the instructor decided to remind the student about the preferred word based on the textbook.

(91) *¿Cuál es la palabra para shorts?* [What is the word for shorts?] and the instructor answered: "*hay muchas palabras para short, pero la que el libro quiere es pantalones cortos*" (Kaf) ["There are many words for *shorts*, but what the book wants is *short pants*"]

**4.4.2.1 Activities to expose students to regional variation.** An instructor included videos from the textbook where a lot of different cultural aspects are highlighted. For example, there was a video about a job interview that took place in Spain. The development of this activity allowed students to listen to the Spanish regional variety and also compare and contrast it with an interview in the United States.

Equally important is that another instructor asked her students to make a comparison between American and the Hispanic ways of organizing supermarkets. Although it may seem too general, it was an opportunity to expand what the textbook presents and explore the culture of the target language, which can also be observed in example (92), where a comparison between holidays and vacation time in Spain and the United States is encouraged.

(92) “*Los trabajadores tienen 22 días de vacaciones al año. El calendario tiene 14 días festivos. En julio y agosto los niños no van al colegio.*” (Am) [“Workers have 22 vacation days a year. The calendar has 14 holidays. In July and August children don’t go to school.”]

Similarly, in another situation the instructor exposed students to the Spanish language by using real websites for the topic of the class, which was finding a place to rent. Although the textbook *Protagonistas* presents photos of El Salvador (Cuadrado et al., 2012, p. 98), the instructor decided to present real websites to find a place to rent in Madrid, Spain (pisos.com). This way, students were encouraged to use real information and real language to connect it to what was taught in class. However, it is also observed that the original photo from El Salvador was replaced with a photo from Spain, which might show loyalty to the instructor’s regional variety or avoidance of places where Spanish is not seen as a prestigious variety.

**4.4.3 Focus groups.** Findings about understanding the language program where the study took place during focus group sessions were more evident in Focus Group 1. Participants in Focus Group 2 were more oriented towards discussing attitudes towards other varieties.

**4.4.3.1 Focus group 1.** Participants’ discussions about coordinated Spanish programs revolve around three main topics: time constraints, that the textbooks needed to be followed strictly, and that students needed to be prepared for the tests.

**4.4.3.1.1 Time constraints.** In example (93), the instructor explained that due to time constraints he could not refer to information such as regional varieties that sometimes is

presented in the textbooks in the form of vocabulary lists. He thought that it is the students' job to do it, but they did not because they just prepared for the test, which did not explicitly include any references to Spanish regional varieties. Thus, in the end, neither instructors nor students reviewed the information provided in the textbook. An implied explanation in this statement is that strictly following the program impedes doing other things.

(93) "I do like that there is a section in *Protagonistas* dedicated to showing lexical variation, but it's very overlooked ((passing pages gesture)). I know students are not looking at that page because we don't have enough time to cover things like that in our classes." (Cam)

4.4.3.1.2. *Test preparation.* In examples (94) and (95), the participants explained that above anything else, students need to be prepared to take their tests. Thus, the information from the book needed to be covered in full to make sure students got a good grade.

(94) "But a grammar concept is more important that they are taught it in the way they are going to be tested on it ((uh-hum from other participants)) rather than saying: this is how I say it ((proud gesture, straight back)), this is my regional variety." (Raf)

(95) "I think, instructors should use their own varieties but then when you put in the quiz ((uh-hum from other participants)) I put just one that was found in the book because we have a quiz like for 20 classes and I want them to have the possibility to answer correctly. If we are a coordinated program, if we have common objectives [( )] and stuff, if in the quiz says *vosotros*, use *vosotros*, if in the quiz says *ustedes*, you use *ustedes*." (Zam)

The participant in example (96) understands that being in a coordinated program means that she needs to adapt her own language to the one presented in the textbook.

(96) It's important for a program to allow room for people to use their own regional varieties, so not to force native speakers or people who have learned specific varieties based on their backgrounds or whatever to conform to a specific way of teaching because I think that's what it often takes, and it does more to harm the teaching of the language than it does to help it." (Raf)

This way of evaluating a coordinated program was challenged by another participant, example (97).

(97) “In a coordinated program, as long as everybody is learning the same material, it shouldn’t matter the way in which it is presented as long as everybody is presenting the same material and testing on the same material. As long as all of the forms are acknowledged, and it’s fine for everyone to use the dialect that they are most comfortable with, as long as they make it clear. They have options.” (Cam)

In conclusion, although the language program in which the study took place does not have any policies related to the use of Spanish regional varieties, some instructors understand that they need to strictly follow what is presented in the textbook to help students prepare for unit tests. However, there was another group of participants who advocated for deviating from the textbook when possible, to account for the inclusion of regional variation. Thus, there seems to be a disconnect between the program expectations and instructors’ understanding of those expectations.

#### **4.5 Helping Students Develop their Communicative Skills**

Participants mentioned that one of the most important goals when teaching a foreign language is to help students gain skills to be able to communicate their thoughts. In the next paragraphs, I present some of the participants’ opinions about the role of communication and what they, as language instructors, do to foster this ability in their classes. I will start with what I found in the online survey, followed by the video recordings, and concluding with the focus groups.

**4.5.1 Online survey.** Answers to the online survey provided ideas that support and contradict the tenets of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (for a more detailed explanation of CLT, refer back to section 3 of the Literature Review). On the one hand, one of the tenets of CLT refers to the use of authentic resources in the classroom. Authentic is defined as materials (audio, video, reading, writing) that have been developed by and for native speakers of the target language. Some of the participants shared their ways of using this type of material in

their daily lessons. Some instructors reported the use of different resources from different dialects in teaching material such as audio or visual activities. Also, results from the online survey to the question, If you deviate from the material that your textbook offers, what other resources do you use? Seven out of 11 instructors reported the use of authentic materials.

On the other hand, opinions and practices that are in opposition to CLT precepts include instructor's speech modification and grading of oral and written assessment that give smaller values to content. Speech modification contradicts the idea that natural language should be used in the classroom so that students have the opportunity to hear the language as it is. See examples (98), (99), (100), and (101).

(98) "I try to make sure that I pronounce everything in a manner in which my students can understand." (Staf)

(99) "I attempt to speak clearly so that my students can understand. I attempt to pronounce all sounds of a word, not aspirating or eliminating any." (Kaf)

(100) "During instruction time I actually try to be as neutral/standard as possible, with something like the Spanish equivalent of newscaster English." (Am)

(101) "I try to use a more standard variety even if it means changing the variety that I am used to speaking with my friends and family." (Claf)

Also, CLT embraces a more content-focused approach as opposed to a more grammar-oriented approach. For this reason, when assessing students in their different skills more attention should be given to content. However, overall results of the online survey show that instructors pay more attention to pronunciation and vocabulary than content. The same case applies to assessment of writing projects. Participants pay more attention to vocabulary than they do to content. In sum, instructors tend to modify their speech because they think that their students won't understand them if they use their regional variety. Also, instructors pay more attention to linguistic features such as vocabulary and pronunciation over content. Traces of

traditional methods such as the grammar-translation and the audiolingual are present in these reports.

**4.5.2 Class observations.** Following one of the precepts of CLT that highlights the use of the target language because learners need as much exposure as possible to become aware of the linguistic features that surround the language of study, examples (102) and (103) illustrate participant's use of the target language. In both examples the speakers use c phonetically represented as /θ/: *dental/fricativa no sibilante* (T. Morgan, 2010), which is characteristic of their regional variety.

(102) “¿quién ha visitado ciudades en otros países u otros países?” [who has visited cities in other countries?]

(103) “El transporte es más fácil” [transportation is easy]

Examples (104), (105), and (106) show the use of pronouns of address, *vosotros* and *usted*, and the difference in use of the preterite and the present perfect indicative between Spanish from Spain and the majority of the Spanish speakers from Latin America.

(104) ¿Por qué **elegís** venir a Tuscaloosa? [Why do choose coming to Tuscaloosa]  
¿**Recordáis** quién era **vuestro** compañero? [do you remember who your partner was?] (Laf)

*Elegís* and *recordáis* imply the pronoun *vosotros*, mainly used in some regions of Spain (refer to the section on dialect classification in the literature review).

(105) “quiero que *usted* y su *compañero*” [I want you and your partner]  
Instructor asked a student: Nathan: ¿con qué frecuencia hace *usted* deporte?” [how often do you practice sports?] Use of the pronoun *usted*, the preferred address form in the instructor's variety. (Am)

(106) “yo diría; Shakira y Piqué **tuvieron** un bebé, en lugar de **han tenido** un bebé.” (Gim) [“I would say, Shakira and Piqué had a baby instead of they have had a baby.”] Use of preterite (*tuvieron*) and present perfect indicative (*han tenido*). The instructor explained that in this example, the preterite is preferred in Latin America.

These excerpts from the video recordings support the claim that some instructors use specific linguistic features that are part of their variety, even though some of them said that they preferred to modify their speech.

Another precept of CLT has to do with the use of authentic material in the language classroom. Some of the participants brought in authentic video material that exposed students to natural language. For example, an instructor presented a video about a job interview in which the speakers use Spanish from Spain and in another class, students watched video filmed in Ecuador with local people. In general terms, instructors brought into their classes songs from different Spanish-speaking artists, audio recordings, and short films that included regional varieties.

The inclusion of activities that promote both grammar (accuracy) and communication is another precept of CLT. Activities such as problem solving, information sharing, and role play foster interaction, thus communication and negotiation of meaning take place. In this regard, some of the participants presented activities in class that were designed to pursue this goal. For instance, an instructor asked her students about their place of residence to connect it to the main topic of the unit, the city, as seen in example (107):

(107) *¿qué lugares pensáis que hay que conocer antes de morir?* Laf  
[which places do you think you need to know before you die]

In the same way, instructor Cam helped his class to elaborate and connect the information to their daily life experiences, as seen in example (108).

(108) A student answered: "*yo hago las compras.*"  
[I go grocery shopping.]  
Instructor Cam: *¿Dónde haces las compras?*  
[Where do you go grocery shopping?]  
S: Publix. Another example; *¿tú qué haces cuando sales con amigos?*  
[what do you do when you go out with your friends?]  
S: *voy a Rounders*  
[I go to Rounders] (a bar in the school town).

Other activities included the following: (a) a Bingo game in which students had to find different people who have done a series of activities. The students walked around the classroom interacting among themselves; (b) a mock interview in which students pretended to be babysitters looking for a job so that they could simulate a job interview; (c) after watching a video about Ecuador, students had to write a letter to a friend telling them about their trip to Ecuador; (d) after students read a passage “*La Intrusa*” (Blanco & Tocaimaza, 2015, p. 297), they had a discussion about technology in relation to the Spanish class.

In sum, some instructors bring in authentic resources to class and speak the target language naturally providing opportunities for students to get accustomed to hearing the target language. This exposure contributes to their language awareness and development.

**4.5.3 Focus groups.** In these sessions, participants shared how they introduced themselves on the first day of their classes to account for the type of language or regional variety used and information given to document the kind of expectations created during instructors’ interactions with their students.

**4.5.3.1 Focus group 1.** When asked how instructors introduced themselves on the first day of class, the instructor in example (109) talked about using Spanish and asking students to interact among themselves using basic personal information in Spanish as well. This entry activity allows students to draw conclusions on the instructor’s expectations for the rest of the semester and also serves the purpose of developing students’ communicative skills.

(109) I start the first 3 to 4 minutes just in Spanish (everybody nods their heads). What I do is I basically say *Hola me llamo xxx* and then I start asking their names only Spanish if they try to speak English, I try to go back to Spanish because it’s just like they understand *me llamo xxx* then I write it down on the board just to see one word in Spanish (moving hands) then, after that so we get to *¿cómo te llamas? me llamo,* so get to know them.” (Zam)

In other instances, some participants took advantage of every opportunity to make connections with real use of the language, as seen in example (110). The instructor presented the use of the pronoun of address *vos* to raise students' awareness on this grammar topic that is usually neglected in Spanish language instruction for having different conjugations depending on the country and for being categorized as a stigmatized regional characteristic.

- (110) “When I do an activity with *A Dios le pido*, which is a song by *Juanes* who is from *Medellin, Colombia* where they use *vos*. I always put the song with the lyrics on the screen and I point it out to my students and I tell them it's very important if you're gonna be, if you're interested in any place in South America, a lot of places use it.” (Kaf)

**4.5.3.2 Focus group 2.** As noted earlier, one of the precepts of CLT refers to the use of natural language. Some participants in this group shared that they started their classes by using their natural way of speaking, in other words their regional variety of Spanish. On day one, they introduced themselves speaking Spanish, as in examples (111) and (112).

- (111) “*Hola buenos días, ¿qué tal estamos? Bienvenidos a la clase de español y escribiría en la pizarra, bienvenidos a la clase de español 201.*” (Laf) [“Good morning, ¿how are we doing? Welcome to the Spanish class, and I would write on the board: “Welcome to Spanish 201.”]

- (112) “*Bueno, yo creo que yo siempre saludo primero, buenos días o buenas tardes, mi nombre es... y coloco mi nombre en el tablero. Eh, y digo voy a ser su profesor y eso es todo. Les pregunto su nombre y de dónde son. Yo siempre les digo que soy de....*” (Gim) [“Well, I think I always greet them first, good morning or good afternoon, my name is ... and I write it on the board. And I say, I am going to be your instructor and that's all. I ask them their names and where they are from. I always tell them That I am from....”]

On the contrary, other participants prefer to speak English (their native language or most of the students' native language) as exemplified in (113) and (114)

- (113) “Hola, my name is Am, I'm gonna be your professor this semester, you can call me señor Am or if you are comfortable with it, you can call me (name) because I'm only 23.” (Am)

(114) “I’m a doctoral student in my last year, I’m studying second language acquisition to give a little bit of background. But in English at that point.” (Alf)

To summarize this section, participants think that the goal when learning a language is to communicate. However, some teaching practices presented in this study demonstrate that there needs to be more inclusion of the target language as well as other activities that foster the development of communicative skills such as role plays, and less frequent teacher–student interaction.

In conclusion, this chapter presented findings gathered through the different instruments used in the current study. Section 1 covered a detailed reference to how the target language is used in the classroom. I found that some instructors modify their speech to avoid communication breakdowns, whereas others speak the target language as naturally as possible to provide opportunities for students to be exposed to a more real use of the language. Section 2 reported on the dualistic division of Spanish (Spain vs. Latin America) that, one way or the other, influences speakers’ attitudes towards other varieties and their own, which is the topic of section 3. Section 4 is a presentation of ideas about what a coordinated program means and its implications in the absence or presence of regional varieties in the teaching material. This chapter concluded with references to how instructors helped students develop their communicative skills in order to prepare them to interact with speakers from different Spanish-speaking regions.

## CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study's purpose was to explore instructors' attitudes toward Spanish regional varieties and how they incorporate this topic in their daily lessons. Also, this research investigated the reasons behind including or excluding Spanish regional varieties, and how these practices aligned with CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines regarding the development of communicative competence. In the first section of the chapter, I examine Research Question 1: How do university Spanish instructors incorporate Spanish regional varieties in their language classroom discourse? What linguistic areas are commonly addressed? Pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, others? In order to answer this question, I focused on two categories that emerged during the data analysis stage. The first category was the instructors' own use of Spanish regional varieties. The second category dealt with how instructors use authentic teaching materials where Spanish regional varieties are present.

Section 2 covers Research Question 2: What motivates or discourages instructors' inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties? To answer this question, I identified four major categories: (a) selecting Peninsular Spanish over other regional varieties, (b) identifying instructor's attitudes toward other varieties and their own, (c) understanding Spanish coordinated programs, and (d) relating the native or non-native of Spanish factor to the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties in the classroom. Section 3 of this chapter addresses Research Question 3: How do instructors' use of Spanish regional varieties fulfill the precepts of CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines for the 21<sup>st</sup> century? To answer, I referred to the tenets of

CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines about natural use of the target language, communication, communities, and how the use of regional varieties aligns with those purposes.

## **5.1 Incorporating Spanish Regional Varieties in the Language Classroom Discourse**

Data gathered for this study showed that the inclusion or exclusion of regional varieties is manifested through instructors' own use of their variety and the use of authentic material.

**5.1.1 Instructors' own use of Spanish regional varieties.** Regional variation is a feature that characterizes any language due to factors such as geography, society, and the speech community within which it takes place. In other words, languages are heterogenous. Labov (1982) explained that "heterogeneity is an integral part of the linguistic economy of the community, necessary to satisfy the linguistic demands of everyday life" (p. 17). Through analysis of online surveys, class observations, and focus group sessions, this study found that some participants modified their own regional variety to adjust it to a more standard (usually associated with the variety from northern and central Spain) variety or to the discourse presented in their textbooks. Some participants also avoided modification, preferring instead to speak more naturally.

**5.1.1.1 Modification of Spanish regional varieties.** Participants who showed a tendency to modify their classroom discourse explained that their rationale for doing so lies in the fact that speaking clearly avoids misunderstandings, promotes a more standard variety, and helps students prepare for the tests. Some instructors reported the change of their own variety to the variety presented in the textbook to fulfill classroom needs, especially at the lower levels. Instructors' purpose in making these linguistic modifications seems to be intended to benefit their students and supports van Lier (1996), who asserted that foreign language teachers are "especially sensitive to and aware of what their students know and can cope with" (p. 130). Thus, teachers

modify their speech to accommodate learners' knowledge of the language. It is worth noting that the classroom has its own rituals. "Talk in classroom usually differs from talk in other situations because of the institutional constraints that operate in the setting, including the power relationships, the expectations of the various parties involved, and the goals that have been set." (van Lier, 1996, p. 157)

However, viewing the language classroom discourse as one that needs to be framed in a standard norm, as stated by the participants in the current study, is problematic. It limits students' target language exposure, which sometimes represents the only opportunity to experience authentic language, and "by doing so teachers deprive their students of the full array of language and expression that native speakers engage in" (van Lier, 1996, p. 130). It perpetuates the idea of a homogenous/standard language where the result is what Marisi (1994) has called *textbookish language* (Marisi, 1994, p. 518). Finally, it contradicts pedagogical learner-centered precepts in which, according to Train (2003), "negotiation of meaning prevails over imposition of authority (p. 10). In other words, speaking the target language naturally could help alleviate these deficiencies.

**5.1.1.2 Natural delivery of Spanish regional varieties.** Another group of instructors showed a more natural use of the language in the classroom. These participants recognized that they feel better when they speak in their natural way because it exposes students to a more real use of the target language. This statement goes in line with Pérez-Leroux et al. (2000) who stated that "an instructor's native words, pronunciation, and grammar enhance the richness of language that students are exposed to in the classroom" (p. 60). In examples (1) and (2), participants highlighted the importance of speaking the language as naturally as possible. Participants agreed that they should portray themselves as they are.

- (1) “*Personalmente creo que cada persona es lo que es, y ha de presentarse como tal, incluido la forma de hablar, sobre todo dentro de nuestro campo de la enseñanza*” [“Personally, I think that people should present themselves as they are, which includes their way of speaking, especially within the teaching field.”]
- (2) “I usually speak in a more or less normal way as I would speak to any group of students in my home country.”

Exposing students to more natural classroom speech presents positive aspects, for example, students hear the language as it is used in authentic communicative events. Nowadays, students have more opportunities to interact with target language speakers at work, at school, and in different social settings. Thus, the classroom discourse should be an environment that fosters the inclusion of Spanish regional varieties. Participant Laf shared the following remark:

- (3) “*mi experiencia, muchos estudiantes que trabajan como meseros, la mayoría con personas mexicanas, por ser la mayoría que hay aquí...*” [in my experience, a lot of students, most of the time, work as waiters/waitresses with people from Mexico because it is the most common nationality here” (Laf)

This situation shows that students get exposed to everyday language in which they listen to different regional varieties. Thus, if sensitivity to differences in dialects are part of language classroom routines, students will have more opportunities to convey their message to their interlocutors. Bachman (1990) explained that regional varieties are characterized by different conventions, and the “appropriateness of their use will vary, depending on the features of the language use context” (p. 95).

Although some participants explained their reasons for adjusting their regional variety to their classroom discourse, class observations showed that there are some recurrent linguistic uses that characterize instructors’ Spanish regional varieties. These linguistic aspects are phonetic use, vocabulary use, and use of pronouns of address. Some of the most common phonetic features are (a) the opposition /s/ - /θ/ that characterizes all Peninsular varieties except for western and Central Andalusia, and (b) seseo /s/, which is more recurrent in Latin America (Lipski, 2012). In

terms of vocabulary, regional vocabulary was constantly used to make comparisons among different Spanish varieties. Participant Gim used the word *deudas* ‘debts’ to explicitly present the variation in his variety *culebras* ‘snakes.’ Along the same lines, participant Am used the word *pluma* ‘pen,’ which is the common word in his regional variety, as opposed to *lapicero* (Colombia); *lapicera* or *birome* (Argentina); *bolígrafo* (Spain); *esfero* (Ecuador, Colombia).

Regarding the use of personal pronouns, the second person plural *vosotros* and *ustedes* implicitly stated in commands such as *sacad (vosotros)* ‘take out’ and *lean (ustedes)* ‘read’ clearly exemplify that Spanish is a pro-drop language. Pro-drop means that although the subject is not explicitly stated, its verbal features can be identified (Butt & Benjamin, 2010, p. 214). However, this is a discourse feature that students are not familiar with and get confused about because of the tendency to produce complete sentences that include a pronoun, a verb, and a complement as part of grammar-oriented practices.

These explicit and implicit references to Spanish regional varieties support my argument that participants’ use of regional varieties is conditioned, in this case, by the classes they teach. However, it does not impede them from using some features of their regional variety in the classroom. This finding corroborates the idea that relying solely on self-reported data (online surveys and focus groups) would have led the researcher to miss examples of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and pedagogical materials that support the use of Spanish regional varieties. In the self-reported data, participants explained that due to time constraints, as it has been previously reported by Burns (2018) and Garcelli et al. (2018), they almost never included regional variation in their classes. Nevertheless, after analyzing class observations, the researcher verified that participants not only used linguistic traits of their own variety, but also included different teaching materials in which Spanish regional varieties were present.

**5.1.2 Spanish regional varieties in classroom materials.** As noted previously, class observations allowed the researcher to identify other instances in which Spanish regional varieties were implicitly stated. Some participants presented Spanish regional varieties through music they played in class while students worked on a given assignment. For example, instructor Am played music by Argentine artist Gustavo Santaolalla while students were working on some grammar/vocabulary activities, and I noticed how a student sitting next to me wrote down the name of the artist. The student's reaction in this situation has the potential to raise his/her interest in exploring more about the Spanish language and its regional variation. It is worth noting that Gustavo Santaolalla is the creator of the soundtrack for the movie *Diarios de motocicleta* (2004), which presents a combination of different Spanish regional varieties because of the trips that its main character, El Ché Guevara, takes through South America and the Caribbean. Instructor Cam played music by different Spanish-speaking artists that included Luis Fonsi (Pto Rico), Maluma (Colombia), Shakira (Colombia), Selena (Mexico), and Enrique Iglesias (Spain). This variety included not only different regional variation, but also different type of music that might be appealing to students' interests. Auger (2003) asserted that different songs can be presented to "illustrate the diversity that characterizes the speech of different segments of the population" (p. 90)

In the same way, instructors who used *Imagina*, the intermediate level textbook, integrated a series of short films from different countries that were part of each textbook unit. These films had been originally created for native speakers of Spanish, so many examples of regional varieties were embedded. The only drawback of these films is that the majority of them present Peninsular Spanish followed by the variety from Mexico. This finding also aligns with Ramirez and Hall's (1990) findings that claimed that Mexico and Spain are usually the Spanish-

speaking countries represented in Spanish language textbooks. Surprisingly, after almost 30 years of Ramirez and Hall's findings, Burns (2018) and Garcelli et al. (2018) also reported the presence of Peninsular Spanish in language teaching materials such as online activities and textbooks. It is evident that the historical dominance of Peninsular Spanish is still present in Spanish language pedagogy.

To summarize this section, the analysis of the online survey and the focus group sessions demonstrates that although there were some participants who reported modification of the classroom discourse, there are others who prefer to communicate naturally. At the same time, and after analysis of classroom observations, this study found that instructors incorporated other types of teaching materials to implicitly fulfill students' exposure to the target language varieties. The next section addresses which internal or external factors influence instructors' decisions to include or exclude Spanish regional varieties in the language classroom discourse.

## **5.2 Factors that Influence Instructors' Inclusion or Exclusion of Spanish Regional Varieties**

In this section I discuss factors that influence instructor's implicit and explicit references to Spanish regional varieties. Factors identified include selecting Peninsular Spanish over other regional varieties, identifying instructors' attitudes toward other varieties and their own, understanding Spanish coordinated programs, and relating the native or non-native of Spanish factor to the inclusion or exclusion of regional varieties.

**5.2.1 Selecting Peninsular Spanish over other regional varieties.** Because of the high number of immigrants from Mexico and its proximity to the United States, it is possible to assume that this Spanish regional variety would be recognized as prestigious and, thus, influential in the teaching of Spanish as a second or foreign language in the US context. However, Burns (2018), Montes-Alcalá (2011), and Valdés et al. (2003) have reported the

identification of Peninsular Spanish as a prestige variety in the language classroom. In their study about US departments of foreign languages, Valdés et al. (2003) reported that “speakers of Peninsular Spanish have higher prestige than speakers of Latin American Spanish” (p. 9). In the current study, instructors also recognized Peninsular Spanish (Northern and Central Spain) as the most prestigious and as the most widely used in textbooks and other pedagogical resources.

These facts demonstrate how historical perceptions of the variety from Spain as prestigious still influence instructors’ language choice. Lope Blanch (1972) asserted that

*“la norma castellana —madrileña— culta puede seguirse considerando todavía hoy como la más prestigiosa de las diversas normas dialectales de la lengua española. Y ello debido a dos circunstancias fundamentales: a) el factor histórico, y b) la diversidad de las normas hispanoamericanas. A esto último sobre todo”* (Lope Blanch, 1972, p. 44)  
[Educated Castilian Spanish—from Madrid—is still considered the most prestigious regional variety of Spanish. This is due to two main circumstances: (a) historical factors, and (b) the diversity among Hispanic norms. Especially to the latter”]

It is evident that throughout the years, the prestigious label that Spanish from Spain (more specifically, that of north and central Spain) carries has remained intact and it is a factor that influences classroom materials, discourse choices, and students’ attitudes towards regional varieties. Bugel and Santos (2010) reported that students see Peninsular Spanish as a symbol of prestige strengthened by the idea that this variety is the original from which the other varieties have derived. In the current study, a participant commented that when she asked her students where they would like to study abroad to practice their Spanish, the popular answer is Spain. At the same time, some instructors are consistent with the idea that Peninsular Spanish is the variety that has more prestige, therefore it deserves to be taught. This conceptualization of the type of discourse used within the classroom also reflects instructors’ attitudes towards other Spanish regional varieties and their own as is discussed in the next section.

## **5.2.2 Identifying instructors' attitudes towards other varieties and their own.**

*5.2.2.1 Instructors' attitudes towards their own variety.* Within this category, some participants asserted that because their variety aligned to the standard, except for a variety from Latin America, they advocated for using a more natural way of speaking. On the other hand, others perceived their own variety as not as prestigious as the standard regional variety, usually associated with Peninsular Spanish. This group of instructors stated that using their variety caused difficulties in fitting in their social/work networks and might impede good communication with their students. For that reason, they preferred to accommodate their language to their students' needs (to instructors' own opinion of what their students' needs are) and omit any uses or references to their own varieties that might confuse students or be regarded as incorrect, as stated by participant Am. Thus, using their own variety was seen as a problem, and their linguistic insecurity (see section on prestige in the literature review chapter) stood out as well.

In contrast, instructors who were more determined to use their own way of speaking usually aligned with Peninsular Spanish, except for the instructor from Colombia, whose variety was also recognized as prestigious. Participant Raf stated that she felt confident in using her Peninsular variety because it was portrayed in the textbook. She felt that her use of Spanish was validated. Although the Colombian variety has been recognized as prestigious, references to this variety are scarce in textbooks, as reported by Ramirez and Hall (1990). However, this fact did not stop participant Gim from Bogotá, Colombia, from using his regional variation, which could have been the result of seeing the speech of the capital city as prestigious (Lipski, 1994).

This study found that the categorization of prestigious or non-prestigious/standard or nonstandard given to Spanish regional varieties influenced instructors' decisions to modify or

use their own variety in their daily lessons. Perceptions of instructors' own variety has not been reported in previous studies as an influential factor when making decisions on which variety to use in the language classroom. I refer now to how instructors' views of other varieties also play an important role when making these pedagogical decisions.

**5.2.2.2 Instructors' attitudes towards other varieties.** Through socialization, early in life, speakers learn the differences in other regional varieties of their language (Wolfram et al., 1999) and this influence their linguistic behaviors and opinions (Montes Alcalá, 2011; Quesada Pacheco, 2014). The current study found that participants' opinions on other regional varieties seem to influence their linguistic choices in the classroom. In the focus group, participant Kaf explicitly shared her disagreement with people who think that her regional variety is from Spain. Implicitly speaking and while in the classroom, she also portrayed that disagreement when she told her students not to worry about conjugating the verbs in the *vosotros* form. It is possible that participant Kaf's little experience with other regional varieties has contributed to her view of Peninsular Spanish. Along the same lines, participant Gim also commented on the low prestige that Spanish from the Caribbean has, which influences its little or no presence in Spanish textbooks (Ramirez & Hall, 1990) and its low prestige among students (Montes-Alcalá, 2011).

Although there is certain predisposition to other varieties, other instructors also took into account specific linguistic references from other varieties, especially to guide students' learning interests. Participant Gim shared that despite not being a *vosotros* user, he explicitly encouraged one of his students to continue using it because that was her choice. Implicitly speaking, participant Kaf has used songs to point out the use of *vos*, usually stigmatized and scarce in teaching materials (López López, Martínez Franco, & Yazan, 2019).

Validating the use of other varieties promotes language awareness and guides students towards recognizing the existence of a pluralistic Spanish-speaking world. Contributions to this endeavor include language programs that play an important role in fostering this idea. In the next section, I will refer to how instructors understand their language program guidelines regarding the use of Spanish regional varieties in the classroom.

**5.2.3 Understanding Spanish coordinated programs.** Some participants reported that another factor that influenced their linguistic choices in the classroom had to do with the language program they worked for and its policies. It is important to note that there are different opinions, and that the main concerns derive from time constraints, course textbooks, students' preparation for tests, and instructors' knowledge of the language program expectations.

Some participants emphasized that the lack of time to explicitly present Spanish regional varieties was a key factor. They recognized that there were some sections in the textbook dedicated to presenting vocabulary variation. However, they needed to focus on what students would be tested on in the unit quiz. Thus, students were implicitly held responsible for handling the vocabulary section, which ended up being overlooked, as instructor Cam said. At the same time, the specific section where *variación léxica* 'lexical variation' in the aforementioned textbook is presented may have been overlooked because it was the last page of a regular unit under *vocabulario* 'vocabulary.' Instructor Staf reinforced the idea about time constraints within her class. In this case, I identified the need for instructors to explicitly direct learners to the lexical variation section and establish a daily routine that explores the information about regional variation more in depth.

Recognizing the importance of adhering to the textbook was identified as another influential factor when being part of a coordinated language program: "We teach what's in the

book” (Raf). Instructors agreed that strictly following the textbook gave students more opportunities to succeed on their tests. Participant Raf stated that “it’s really important that you (students) get this, the way that it is in the book,” and participant Zam shared the same opinion: “If we follow the book, at least in the test, the students had the possibility to study it.”

Findings about time constraints and preparation for language tests coincide with Burns’ (2018) claim that instructors in her study explained that preparing students for coordinated written exams did not allow time to go over any extra information. However, Wolfram et al. (1999) argued that “although test makers have endeavored to accommodate diversity, there is still a very strong expectation of linguistic and cultural infirmity in test development, validation and norming” (p. 103). In other words, tests are usually constrained to prescriptive linguistic rules, which interferes with the development of a more culturally aware and diverse view of the language from both learners and teachers.

To contradict adherence to the textbook as mandatory for being part of a coordinated language program, participant Cam understood this implied policy differently. He stated that instructors can deviate from the textbook as long as they are able to present the main topic of the unit and students are prepared for the tests. He explained that the language and activities used in class to accomplish these goals are the sole decision of the instructor. After observing instructors’ contradicting views of the language program guidelines about the use of regional varieties, the researcher decided to explore what their language program expects of them on this topic.

**5.2.3.1 Defining expectations in a language program.** The language program in which the participants of this study worked has the characteristics of a coordinated program due to the high number of students enrolled, which is about 800 to 1,000 per semester. For the most part,

graduate students who are pursuing master's or PhD programs teach these classes. Being in a structured program allows them more time to focus on their graduate studies. For this reason, the program dictates that instructors need to cover a certain number of chapters by certain dates, but how they present those chapters from day to day is completely up to the instructor. For example, there is flexibility in online homework assignment because it needs to agree with what the instructor is teaching at the moment, not with something that has been preestablished. At the same time, instructors participate actively with their own ideas to make tests more in line with what is happening in the classroom. It is evident that instructors' understanding of the use of the textbook as the backbone of their classes differs from the language program expectations.

Regarding the use of regional varieties, some instructors felt that regional varieties were not allowed in the classroom. However, the language program did not have specific rules about the use of regional varieties in the classroom. On the contrary, instructors were encouraged to use their own variety. This finding differs from Droege et al. (1994) where the language department in that study had specific rules about avoiding Spanish regional features such as *laísmo*: the use of *la* as feminine indirect object (Hualde, Olarrea, Escobar, & Travis, 2009, p. 515). For example, “A Ana no **la** gusta el aguacate” ‘Ana does not like avocados.’ In other varieties, *le* is preferred, thus “A Ana no **le** gusta el aguacate.”

Thus, in the current program, one assumes that instructors should not modify their actual way of speaking because that idea deviates from the precepts of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the program's pedagogical orientation. CLT focuses on the use of authentic language and actual communication because that is what is going to prepare students for everyday life, particularly an advantage if they are moving from one speaker (instructor) to another in different semesters. In the real world, knowing a language means more than knowing

a linguistic system or communicating information; it means engaging in social practices using that system in order to participate in social life (Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013, p. 14).

In conclusion, there seems to be a disconnect between instructors' understanding of the language program guidelines and the program guideline makers regarding the use of the textbook as a backbone and the inclusion or exclusion of regional varieties. Although efforts by the director of the program to address these policies are part of his monthly meetings' agenda, it is possible that instructors need to see these guidelines in a written format such as a handbook.

**5.2.4 Linking the native or non-native of Spanish factor to the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties in the classroom.** In the current study, three instructors self-identified as native speakers of Spanish receiving their basic schooling in their Spanish-speaking countries. Although one of them completed her high school studies, the other two received their college degree before coming to the United States to pursue their graduate studies. They had also taught Spanish for more than 5 years.

Within the non-native participants, seven of them self-identified as native speakers of English and one as a native speaker of Italian. The English-speaking participants have pursued their studies in the United States, whereas the participant from Italy received his college degree in Italy and came to the United States to pursue his graduate studies. This group of participants also identified the Spanish language as their non-native language and had taught Spanish for less than 5 years at the time when the study took place. Native and non-native participants in the current study showed some commonalities and some differences in addressing Spanish regional varieties in aspects such as (a) how they introduced themselves on the first day of class, (b) their classroom routines, and (c) how they viewed their own regional variety.

During the focus group sessions, seven of the non-native instructors commented that on the first day of class they spoke English in their introductions and presentation of the material for the class, and the native speakers reported their use of Spanish to work on introductions and the use of English to present classroom guidelines for the semester. This finding has also been reported by Platt and Brooks (1994), who observed that teachers frequently give directions in the L1. However, the use of L1 in the current study is not viewed as a negative factor in the learning of languages, because “the use of L1 is the only mediational tool fully available to learners, especially at the lower proficiency levels” (Pratt & Brooks, 1994, p. 509). What the current study wants to point out is that instructors’ constant use of English reduces the amount of input given in Spanish, thus opportunities to hear authentic language are minimized. The use of Spanish sets an important model for students to hear natural use of the language and to know what type of discourse routine is expected of them during the development of the course.

Keeping Spanish as a means of communication emerged as class observations took place. Within the group of non-native instructors, two of the instructors who were teaching intermediate courses always spoke Spanish, and they only made explicit cultural references to the Spanish-speaking world when prompted by information given in the textbook. Two other instructors who were teaching a beginning class used Spanish constantly except for directions to activities in the textbook, *Protagonistas*, which are usually presented in English. The rest of the non-native speakers switched to English more often during the class period to address comprehension issues or to give directions. Belz (2003) asserted that “learners and instructors use L1 in the L2 classroom in order to aid comprehension, collaborate during group work, or when doing administrative classroom business or explaining grammar” (p. 214). It is important to note that in the current study, the use of L1 and L2 has been analyzed to account for the amount of exposure

to Spanish regional varieties students receive. An examination of the controversial dilemma of using L1 or L2 in the language classroom is beyond this study's scope.

After analyzing the two groups of instructors, it could be observed that most of them spoke the target language in class, however, the course textbook restricts the use of Spanish for some of them when directions for activities are presented in English and it becomes an everyday routine. It was also observed that native speakers of Spanish frequently made more comparisons about culture, vocabulary, and grammar variation. For example, an instructor explained that because the preterite and the present perfect are used differently in the Spanish-speaking world, he would say "*Shakira y Piqué tuvieron un bebé, en lugar de han tenido un bebé*" 'Shakira and Piqué had a baby instead of they have had a baby.' One of the native instructors even challenged what the textbook presented because the information deviated from her real use of the language. The instructor referred to the word *suburbio* 'suburb' and explained to the students that in Spain this word refers to a bad neighborhood and that's why she said "*no sé por qué el libro lo ha puesto así*" 'I don't know why the book presents it this way.' That is, linguistic agency was exerted possibly influenced by the instructor's prestigious variety and longer experience in teaching Spanish as a foreign language. Herrero (2009) also reported that her participants decided to teach their own variety along with their academic context demands.

To conclude this section and to answer Research Question 2, What motivates or discourages instructors' inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties, it was observed that the main influential factors in instructors' decisions about the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties are based on, first, the preference for Peninsular Spanish, which, historically speaking, is the regional variety that carries prestige and influences the ubiquitous presence in textbooks and teaching materials. Equally important is the fact that out of eleven participants,

five of them recognized Peninsular Spanish as their dialectal variety, which leads to the second factor: instructors' attitudes towards other varieties and their own. Six participants described their variety as prestigious, five Peninsular, and one Colombian. In the case of Peninsular Spanish, it may have influenced some of the instructors' lack of reference for other Spanish regional varieties. Instructors may not see the need to go beyond what is presented in the textbook, as participant Raf stated: "The way I speak is reinforced by the book." It is worth noting that instructors who perceive their variety as non-prestigious also see the textbooks as their source of information and support.

Another reason why some instructors prefer to follow what the textbook offers is related to the native and non-native Spanish factor. This study found that although both native and non-native speakers of Spanish participants used the target language in the classroom discourse, native speakers of Spanish tended to deviate more from the textbook to make cultural comparisons, to address vocabulary and grammar variation, and to even challenge information that does not pertain to the real use of the language. On the contrary, non-native speakers seemed to be more worried about following the book strictly. However, Kramersch (2014) explained that foreign language educators need

not to lose sight of the whole even as they are busy teaching testable structures and drawing up the structural progression of course syllabi. Keeping an eye on the whole means catching the essence of a word, an utterance, a gesture, a silence as they occur inside and outside the classroom, and seeing them as a manifestation of a speaker's or a writer's voice, informed by an awareness of the global communicative situation, rather than just by the correct way of constructing sentences, paragraphs, and texts. (p. 309)

Relying strictly on what the textbook presents represents instructors' understanding of what being in a coordinated program entails. Some participants stated that syllabi, tests, and time constraints present in their language program made it difficult for them to give any information related to Spanish regional varieties, which coincides with Burns' (2018) instructors' opinions.

However, and from the program's point of view, instructors receive a calendar to know when a unit finishes and when tests and projects take place, but they have the freedom to present the material according to their preferences and their own regional variation. Instructors also participate in tests, homework assignments, and project design to link them more to what happens in the classroom. This finding contradicts the strict regulations of the program in which Burns (2018) developed her study.

### **5.3. Exploring the Relationship between Instructors' Use of Regional Variation and CLT, COPs, and ACTFL Guidelines.**

This study found a strong relationship between CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines regarding the emphasis given to building communities of practice and developing communicative competence when learning a foreign language. In this way, the teaching and learning of languages focus on developing skills that help students communicate within the classroom walls and beyond. Littlewood (1981) stated that in CLT learners need to understand that the linguistic knowledge that they acquired through methods such as the grammar translation and the audiolingual method was important if they were also able to understand the functional and social meaning (Spanish regional varieties) that those linguistic aspects inherently have. Savignon (2018) further explained that for the development of communicative competence, findings overwhelmingly support the integration of form-focused exercises with meaning-focused experience.... Broader features of discourse, sociolinguistic rules of appropriacy, and communication strategies themselves should be included" (p. 5)

Thus, communication is crucial in pursuing common goals, just like communities of practice do. Wenger (2015) asserted that in COPs, learning occurs from contexts beyond the classroom and real-life situations that enrich participants' whole self. ACTFL guidelines further

express that, for example, in the communities domain, learners use the language both within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world. Therefore, students need to develop knowledge, awareness, and sensitivity to Spanish regional varieties to communicate successfully and to welcome and respect the communities that they want to belong in.

Regarding communication, seven instructors in the current study used activities that promoted interaction among students to prepare them for everyday life encounters and to foster negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer in pursuing common goals. The type of activities ranged from dialogues to discussions about a given topic. Some examples include (a) asking for and giving information and opinions about students' place of birth; (b) discussing an ideal budget, how long students' current budget lasts, and how they spend it; (c) interviewing for a job; (d) asking for and giving information about the use of technology in the language classroom; and (e) asking for and giving information about places for rent in a Spanish-speaking country. The advantages of these interactive activities include the need to find appropriate form-focused tools such as the use of pronouns of address and meaning-focused tools where the type of conversation that takes place helps to decide which form of address to use.

Although it was observed that out of eleven instructors, seven included activities to help students develop their communicative skills; the other four participants were more concerned with grammar accuracy and exercises to prepare students for the unit test than giving students opportunities to interact in a meaningful way. Savignon (2018) argued that "teachers remain adamant about explicit attention to form through practice drills, completion of textbook activities, and grammar practice worksheets" (p. 6).

Paying more attention to form also emerged as a salient issue in the online survey analysis. When participants identified the linguistic components that have more weight when grading oral and written projects, instructors reported that when assessing oral projects that focus on conversations among students, they pay more attention to pronunciation, followed by vocabulary and content. For writing projects, the correct use of vocabulary prevailed over content. In other words, appropriateness of what is being communicated is one of the last elements considered. These practices may keep students from developing communicative competence. Bachman (1990) asserted that the interaction between the different competencies—grammatical, textual, illocutionary, and sociolinguistic—and the language use context is what characterizes communicative language use (p. 86). In other words, if instructors are able to include both form and meaning in daily lessons, students will be prepared to interact more confidently with communities in which the target language is spoken.

Regarding communities, participants in the current study exposed their students to different Spanish-speaking communities through different pedagogical materials, but a more active interaction between students and multilingual communities was absent from their daily practices. Although there were some activities that were oriented to researching and exploring the Spanish-speaking world, there were no activities that directed students to find ways to interact with Spanish-speaking communities face to face or via the Internet. Apparently, the instructor is the only member of the target language community with whom students interact daily, but his/her role within the classroom varies according to the level. At basic levels (101-102) the leader/controller role stood out, at the intermediate levels (201-202) the facilitator role was more common. Video recording data demonstrated that the facilitator role encourages the development of communicative skills because learners are viewed as active participants in the

classroom who constantly interact among each other and have more opportunities to develop as a community. On the contrary, the leader role restricts students' communicative interaction by focusing more on grammar or vocabulary exercises presented in the textbook. Nevertheless, circumstances such as the language level of the students in the lower levels, where the instructor is the leader, is a factor to consider.

To conclude this chapter and answer the research question about factors that influence the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties in the classroom, this study found that the most common factors that influence instructors' decisions in the inclusion or exclusion of Spanish regional varieties have to do with historical perceptions of Spanish from Spain as the prestigious variety that deserves to be taught and disseminated around the world through textbooks and other teaching materials. As a consequence, the prestigious label ascribed to the Spanish Peninsular variety influences some instructors' use of their own regional variety. Lippi-Green (1997) stated that human beings use different linguistic variation for a purpose. People choose among linguistic variants to include themselves in a certain speech community, in other words, to express a sense of belonging or loyalty.

Besides historical perspectives of Peninsular Spanish and instructors' attitudes towards other varieties and their own, there seems to be a disconnect between participants' understanding of their language program and the language program expectations about the use of the textbook, students' test preparation, and instructors' use of Spanish regional varieties in the classroom. Finally, although the program's pedagogical approach focuses on communicative language teaching, which integrates grammar and communication, in many of the class observations grammar practice prevailed over communicative orientation. Thus, opportunities to build communities of practice (COPs and ACTFL guidelines' *Communities* domain) are limited.

This study found similar and different aspects from previous studies. An important difference is that through the inclusion of class observations, I found that instructors' attitudes towards their own variety was an influential factor in making decisions about classroom discourse. Data show that participants who categorize their variety as prestigious limit their use of explicit and implicit references to other varieties. On the other hand, participants (one native and one non-native) who see their variety as non-prestigious rely more on the linguistic model provided in the course textbook. Droege et al. (1994) reported that non-native participants adhered more to the textbook than native speakers did. A difference with the program in which Droege et al. (1994) conducted their study is that they had strict rules for instructors about avoidance of regional linguistic characteristics, whereas the program where the current study took place gave instructors freedom to use regional variation in their classes.

The current study also found that constant use of the L1 limits students' possibilities of hearing authentic language. Although Patt and Brooks (1994) stated that using the L1 fulfills students' linguistic needs at the lower proficiency levels, class observations in the current study showed how two instructors who were teaching a 101 class (first semester) used the L1 differently. It was found that at one end of the L1 use continuum, there was an instructor who translated almost everything for the students, and at the other end, was an instructor who spoke Spanish the entire time with a negligible number of switches to English. Students in the latter class were very receptive to this classroom routine.

The findings of the current study align with those of Burns (2018), Garcelli et al. (2018), Montes-Alcalá (2011), and Ramírez and Hall (1994), in that the Peninsular variety was identified as the prestigious variety. Peninsular Spanish is not only the variety that many instructors recognize as their own variety, but also the most commonly found in teaching materials and

resources. At the same time, some instructors in the current study and in Burns' (2018) study have reported that due to time constraints they were not able to directly address regional varieties in the classroom. However, there were other instructors in the current study who exerted their agency to challenge textbook material that was far from the speech of speakers of the target language, as was also reported by Herrero (2009).

## **CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS**

Studies in the use of regional variation in the Spanish language classroom have documented that instructors almost never have the opportunity to make explicit references to regional varieties (Burns, 2018; Droege et al., 1994; Figueroa, 2003; and Herrero, 2003). Some factors that influence these decisions are related, but not limited to curricula, which usually align with the content of the course textbook, tests that are grammar focused, and textbooks that usually present an invariant form of the language or give priority to the language variety that is considered prestigious or standard, for example the presentation of the grammar topic: simple preterite vs. present perfect indicative, which presents some variation among some Spanish speaking countries. The current study focused on exploring instructors' actual use of their own regional variety in the classroom discourse, linguistic and nonlinguistic factors that influence these decisions, and the relationship between instructors' use of the target language and the precepts of CLT, COPs, and the ACTFL guidelines. In chapter 5, I discussed the main findings of the current study. In this chapter I highlight the salient features of my research and their pedagogical implications. I also describe the limitations of the study and mention those that may create opportunities for future studies.

### **6.1 Influential Factors in the Inclusion or Exclusion of Spanish Regional Varieties**

This study focused on instructors' use of their own regional variety of the target language and other strategies that foster Spanish regional variation awareness among students. Ballman et al. (2001) affirmed that "the instructor is the primary supplier of what Spanish sounds like and how it works as a language. Students rely on the instructor's use of language to learn how to

process and produce their own” (p. 63). Wenger (2015) further explained that “in many communities of practice decisions need to be taken, conditions need to be put in place, thus someone has to do it” (p. 6). In other words, even in a student-centered approach, instructors present a program, implement quizzes, and lead students in their learning. In the current study, even though instructors received a syllabus, a textbook, and a calendar previously designed by a coordinator, they had the power to influence the classroom discourse on a daily basis by making decisions on how to develop the class, what type of discourse to use, what type of activities to include, or what type of homework to assign. In other words, they could exert their agency as educators, which includes adjuncts, GTAs, part-time or full-time instructors, and assistant/associate professors.

Instructors’ agency is also reflected in their way of presenting their daily speech: authentic or modified. This study found that there was a group of instructors who used their regional variety in a more authentic way. In other words, they included lexical and grammar explanations which were not present in the textbook, but which were part of their daily repertoire. Instructors who consciously or unconsciously avoided altering their way of speaking identified the Peninsular (Northern and Central Spain) variety and the Colombian variety as their own regional variety. After analyzing participants’ opinions about avoiding speech modification, I concluded that the prestigious label ascribed to their varieties influenced their positive attitudes towards their own variety, which, in turn, gave them more confidence to speak the language in a more authentic way. At the same time, it is worth noting that the current study has contributed to raising some instructors’ awareness about Spanish regional varieties. Instructor Raf stated that before participating in the current study, she had not thought about the relevance of regional varieties in her classes.

Regarding instructors who modify their own speech, both native and non-native speakers stated that the non-prestigious categorization of their own variety was an influential factor. Thus, they avoided using linguistic features such as the reduction of coda /s/ as in *espera* [eh.'pe.ra] ‘wait’; use of the personal pronoun *vos*, and regional vocabulary that might interfere with communication or understanding of the information that they wanted to convey. In contrast to Droege et al. (1994), where 78% of the native instructors modified their own speech, in the current study, only one out of three native speakers of Spanish showed modification of her discourse to adjust it to a more standard or textbook-focused language. Thus, instructors’ decisions to modify their speech was rooted in their own perceptions or attitudes towards their own regional variety as nonstandard or stigmatized.

In brief, both groups of instructors, those who spoke naturally and those who modified their speech, were influenced by their attitudes towards their own regional variation. This finding accords with McGroarty (1996)’s assertion that attitude is “linked to a person’s values and beliefs and promotes or discourages the choices made in all realms of activity, whether academic or informal” (p. 5). Instructors’ attitudes towards their own regional variety has not been reported in previous studies as an influential factor in the explicit or implicit presentation of regional varieties in the language classroom.

Another influential factor in the use of Spanish regional varieties in daily lessons is the discourse presented in the course textbooks. In the current study, participants identified Peninsular Spanish as the predominant variety, especially in the textbook *Protagonistas*, which was used in the first two semesters of Spanish. This finding supports the claim in Burns (2018) that an implicit and sometimes explicit preference for a standard form of Spanish in textbooks is identified. It also aligns with findings in Garcelli et al. (2018) that “*en la mayoría de los*

*manuales no se visibilizan suficientemente las variedades americanas*” (p. 382) [the majority of course textbooks do not make American varieties visible enough]. At the same time, the preponderant presence of Peninsular Spanish in textbooks used in the United States contradicts Garcelli et al. (2018) in that they asserted that “*Se sigue seleccionando la variedad preferente por meros criterios de cercanía geográfica*” [the preferred variety is chosen based on criteria that include geographical closeness] (p. 382). In the case of the United States, the variety from Mexico should be the preferred variety for its proximity. However, the Peninsular variety prevails for reasons such as political and educational alliances between the United States and Spain (Silva-Covalán, 2000).

The textbook *Protagonistas* also presents explanations of exercises in English, which implicitly influences students’ and instructors’ perception of the L1 as the language to make clarifications and the L2 as the language to practice grammar. Through class observations, this study found that instructors had to switch from Spanish to English when they wanted students to focus on instructions for a specific activity. The use of English in Spanish textbooks is an influential factor that has not been identified as a limitation for the use of Spanish in which regional varieties are embedded.

Furthermore, the majority of the activities presented in the textbooks, although focused on giving students linguistic tools to use the language, do not promote interaction with the target community online or face to face. Thus, exposure to regional varieties that differ from the instructor’s is limited or nonexistent, and the idea of normativity is perpetuated. Consequently, the principles of learning a language to interact in a multilingual community (ACTFL), preparing students to interact within and beyond the classroom (COPs), and learning the language to develop communicative competence (CLT) fade in these classroom practices. However, the class

can be seen as what Jaffe (2014) asserted “transition points ‘on the way’ to ‘real’ social interactions and contexts” (p. 41).

## **6.2 Pedagogical Implications**

Findings of the current study contribute to the field of language teaching in the areas of teacher training, and more specifically graduate teaching assistants (GTAs), and material design. Teacher training should focus on promoting language awareness among instructors so that they learn to understand their own variety and recognize others in order to help erase labels of stigmatized or nonstandard that some of these varieties carry and to create language awareness among students. Spanish teachers need to be aware that “students rely on the instructor’s use of language to learn how to process and produce their own” (Ballman et al., 2001). Therefore, they also need to be critical about language policy in education (Shohamy, 2006; Tollefson, 1991) and its influence on the dissemination of the standard language and the role of education in strictly following those policies or challenging them.

In challenging those policies, instructors are encouraged to use their own varieties, no matter how they align or deviate from the so-called standard and include references or examples of other varieties that belong to the Spanish-speaking world. In the current study, instructors who drew students’ attention to regional varieties did not have to dedicate a lot of extra time to it and their students were receptive about it.. For example, an instructor who encouraged his student to use *vosotros*, even though he was not a *vosotros* user, directly raised language awareness by welcoming students’ use of this grammatical feature. This example aligns with Richards’ research (2006) about learning a language to know when it varies according to the setting and the participants. This understanding of the existence of Spanish regional varieties also helps to analyze textbook activities and information critically. Teachers should be able to challenge

information or activities presented in textbooks that are not encountered in the target language context.

At the same time, teachers should modify textbook activities to encourage the inclusion of variability in the language, when necessary. In this study's program, teachers had the flexibility to present the material based on the needs of each class. Thus, when presenting vocabulary, for example, students could be given the option of interviewing Spanish speakers in their communities, face to face or via the Internet, to find regional variation in the topic of study. This type of extension of the original textbook activities fosters not only language awareness but also cross-cultural awareness and interaction with speakers of the target language.

Connecting textbook activities to everyday life also helps instructors to understand that the textbook is a tool that can be reorganized and challenged when necessary to enhance students' learning opportunities. Liddicoat and Scarino (2013) stated that the classroom environment is multivoiced. Individuals, teachers, and learners bring different knowledge, experiences, histories, languages, and cultures to the classroom and interact through them using the learning opportunities afforded them (p. 100).

To conclude this section of the chapter, one of the participants referred to the use of technology as an important tool to present regional variation. Movies, songs, and daily news are examples of authentic materials in which regional varieties are embodied. These materials are rich in vocabulary, grammar, expressions, and other linguistic and sociolinguistic components.

### **6.3 Limitations and Future Studies**

This study does not claim universality because it refers to a specific sample of instructors ( $N = 11$ ) and corresponds to certain modes of administration and design. Limitations of the current study include, first, a small sample of participants ( $N = 11$ ), who mostly identified

Peninsular Spanish as their regional variety, which may have impacted perceptions of this regional variety as prestigious, standard, and predominant in language education. Thus, future studies should include participants from more regional varieties to compare/contrast their attitudes with participants' in the current study. Second, the class levels in which the video recordings took place were basic and intermediate. Future studies should add advanced levels to document instructors' use of regional varieties across language levels. Future studies should also concentrate on the analysis of language policies that govern textbook design and evaluate how these policies are based on linguistic or pedagogical research. At the same time, an evaluation of programs that prepare students to become language teachers should include an emphasis in pedagogy and how this aspect impacts teachers' agency in the classroom.

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## **APPENDICES**

APPENDIX A  
ACTFL WORLD READINESS STANDARDS



# WORLD-READINESS STANDARDS FOR LEARNING LANGUAGES

GOAL AREAS	STANDARDS		
<p><b>COMMUNICATION</b></p> <p>Communicate effectively in more than one language in order to function in a variety of situations and for multiple purposes</p>	<p><b>Interpersonal Communication:</b></p> <p>Learners interact and negotiate meaning in spoken, signed, or written conversations to share information, reactions, feelings, and opinions.</p>	<p><b>Interpretive Communication:</b></p> <p>Learners understand, interpret, and analyze what is heard, read, or viewed on a variety of topics.</p>	<p><b>Presentational Communication:</b></p> <p>Learners present information, concepts, and ideas to inform, explain, persuade, and narrate on a variety of topics using appropriate media and adapting to various audiences of listeners, readers, or viewers.</p>
<p><b>CULTURES</b></p> <p>Interact with cultural competence and understanding</p>	<p><b>Relating Cultural Practices to Perspectives:</b></p> <p>Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the practices and perspectives of the cultures studied.</p>		<p><b>Relating Cultural Products to Perspectives:</b></p> <p>Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the relationship between the products and perspectives of the cultures studied.</p>
<p><b>CONNECTIONS</b></p> <p>Connect with other disciplines and acquire information and diverse perspectives in order to use the language to function in academic and career-related situations</p>	<p><b>Making Connections:</b></p> <p>Learners build, reinforce, and expand their knowledge of other disciplines while using the language to develop critical thinking and to solve problems creatively.</p>		<p><b>Acquiring Information and Diverse Perspectives:</b></p> <p>Learners access and evaluate information and diverse perspectives that are available through the language and its cultures.</p>
<p><b>COMPARISONS</b></p> <p>Develop insight into the nature of language and culture in order to interact with cultural competence</p>	<p><b>Language Comparisons:</b></p> <p>Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the nature of language through comparisons of the language studied and their own.</p>		<p><b>Cultural Comparisons:</b></p> <p>Learners use the language to investigate, explain, and reflect on the concept of culture through comparisons of the cultures studied and their own.</p>
<p><b>COMMUNITIES</b></p> <p>Communicate and interact with cultural competence in order to participate in multilingual communities at home and around the world</p>	<p><b>School and Global Communities:</b></p> <p>Learners use the language both within and beyond the classroom to interact and collaborate in their community and the globalized world.</p>		<p><b>Lifelong Learning:</b></p> <p>Learners set goals and reflect on their progress in using languages for enjoyment, enrichment, and advancement.</p>

APPENDIX B

ESTATUTOS Y ORGANIZACIÓN DE LA ASOCIACIÓN DE ACADEMIAS DE LA  
LENGUA ESPAÑOLA

### Estatutos y organización

La organización y el funcionamiento de la Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española (ASALE) están regulados en los estatutos y el reglamento aprobados en el **XIII** Congreso, celebrado en 2007 en Medellín (Colombia).

Los estatutos vigentes recuerdan, en su artículo segundo, que la ASALE «tiene carácter jurídico internacional reconocido en el *Convenio multilateral sobre la Asociación de Academias de la Lengua Española*, suscrito en 1960 en Bogotá y posteriormente ratificado por dieciocho Estados que tienen el español como lengua oficial». Este convenio fue ampliado y renovado en la IV Cumbre Iberoamericana de Jefes de Estado y Presidentes de Gobierno, celebrada en Cartagena de Indias (Colombia) en 1994.

El propósito de la ASALE es, desde su creación en 1951, «**trabajar a favor de la unidad, integridad y crecimiento de la lengua española, que constituye el más rico patrimonio común de la comunidad hispanohablantes**».

El título tercero de los estatutos, dedicado a los órganos de gobierno, fija la celebración cuatrienal de los congresos de la ASALE y establece la creación de la Comisión Permanente como «órgano ejecutivo de gobierno y de coordinación entre las academias asociadas».

**El presidente nato de la Asociación y de la Comisión Permanente es el director de la Real Academia Española (RAE). También forman parte de ella el secretario general, elegido en cada congreso por un período de cuatro años, el tesorero —designado por la RAE— y al menos dos vocales, propuestos rotatoriamente por las distintas academias.**

La [Academia Colombiana de la Lengua](#) fue la primera corporación constituida en América. Se fundó en 1871, un año después de que la RAE aprobara, el 24 de noviembre de 1870, el [Reglamento para la fundación de las academias americanas](#). La última de las veintitrés instituciones que forman parte de la organización, la [Academia Ecuatoguineana de la Lengua Española](#), se incorporó a la ASALE en 2016.

Retrieved February 20, 2017 from <http://www.asale.org/la-asociacion/presentacion/estatutos-y-organizacion>

APPENDIX C  
SPANISH VARIETIES QUESTIONNAIRE

## Language Background Questionnaire

Adapted from Campanaro, T (2013)

1. What country were you born in?
2. What is (are) your native language (s)  
Language 1 \_\_\_\_\_  
Language 2 \_\_\_\_\_  
Language 3 \_\_\_\_\_
3. Where do you use your native language (s)? Check all that apply  
Language 1. Home \_\_\_\_\_  
Friends \_\_\_\_\_ Work \_\_\_\_\_ University \_\_\_\_\_ Business \_\_\_\_\_  
Language 2. Home \_\_\_\_\_  
Friends \_\_\_\_\_ Work \_\_\_\_\_ University \_\_\_\_\_ Business \_\_\_\_\_  
Language 3. Home \_\_\_\_\_  
Friends \_\_\_\_\_ Work \_\_\_\_\_ University \_\_\_\_\_ Business \_\_\_\_\_
4. Were you schooled in your native language (s)? If so, write the number of years of instruction.  
Language 1. Yes/No. Years \_\_\_\_\_  
Language 2. Yes/No. Years \_\_\_\_\_  
Language 3. Yes/No. Years \_\_\_\_\_
5. If Spanish is not your native language, how old were you when you started learning it?
6. Where did you learn Spanish? In an instructional or an informal setting?
7. Have you lived or studied abroad in a Spanish speaking country? Yes No
8. If you answered yes to question 7, for how long?
9. How often do you visit a Spanish speaking country?
10. What Spanish varieties do you consider more prestigious? Explain your answer.
11. What Spanish varieties do you consider less prestigious? Explain your answer

### Teaching background questionnaire. Instruction

1. How long have you taught Spanish as a foreign or second language?
2. What Spanish levels have you taught? Check all that apply.  
101 \_\_\_\_\_ 102 \_\_\_\_\_ 103 \_\_\_\_\_  
201 \_\_\_\_\_ 202 \_\_\_\_\_  
300 \_\_\_\_\_ 400 \_\_\_\_\_

3. When lesson planning, do you consider Spanish varieties? Why?
4. What Spanish variety do you think you speak?
5. What opinion do you have of the Spanish variety that you speak?
6. What opinion do other people have about your Spanish variety?
7. During instruction time, what Spanish language variety do you use? Which factors influence your choices?
8. What language variety does your textbook offer?
9. How often do you deviate from what your class textbook presents?
10. If you deviate from the material that your textbook offers, what other resources do you implement? Do you look for authentic material (material that has been created for and by native speakers of the target language) or modified material (material that has been adapted for second language learners)?
11. What is your opinion about a textbook that is based on Spanish language varieties?
12. What policies does your Spanish program have about Spanish varieties?
13. When do you believe students need to be introduced to Spanish language varieties?
14. When do you start introducing Spanish language variety in your classes? What factors influence your decision?

#### **Teaching background. Assessment**

1. When you evaluate oral projects, do you consider Spanish language varieties?
2. If you answer yes to question 1, what linguistics components do you consider important? Check all that apply.
  - a. Content
  - b. Pronunciation
  - c. Vocabulary
  - d. grammar
3. When you evaluate writing projects, do you consider Spanish language varieties?
4. If you answer yes to question 3, what linguistics components do you consider more important? Check all that apply
  - a. Content
  - b. Vocabulary
  - c. Grammar
5. If you encounter the use of a regionalism while assessing your students in oral and written tasks, what is your strategy? Explain your answer.
6. Do you think that your Spanish language variety influence the way you grade you students in oral and written task

APPENDIX D  
FOCUS GROUP SESSION

## Introduction

Welcome to today's small group discussion. This study is being done by Sandra Martinez-Franco, who is a graduate student at the University of Alabama in Tuscaloosa. Mrs. Martinez – Franco is being supervised by Dr. Alicia Cipria who is an Associate Professor of Spanish Linguistics in the Department of Modern Languages and Classics at the University of Alabama. You must be 18 years of age or older to participate in this study. This research study aims to investigate Spanish instructors' agency when using Spanish varieties in the second language classroom and how these orientations are linked to the precepts of Communicative Language Teaching. The purpose of today's session is to gather information to better understand how you feel or think about using Spanish language varieties in your daily instruction. You are encouraged to freely share your perceptions and points of view because this is a nonjudgmental environment. Please sign the consent form and return it to the researcher. As it is stated in the consent form, today's session will be video and audio recorded for research purposes. If at any moment you feel uncomfortable with any of these devices, let the researcher know and she will take notes instead. The agenda is as follows:

1. Group introductions
2. Research study questions
3. Conclusions
4. Open space for questions, concerns, or suggestions

### **Group introductions**

1. We all teach Spanish here at UA. Now, tell us who you are and what you most enjoy doing when you are not teaching.
2. What have you discovered is students' most common goal for taking Spanish classes at UA?

### **Research study questions**

1. Poll in polleverywhere.com. What is the first thing that comes to mind when you hear the phrase "Spanish language varieties"
2. When lesson planning, what Spanish variety do you use? Which factors influence your decision?

3. During instruction time, what language variety do you use? Which factors influence your decision?
4. What Spanish language variety does your textbook offer?
5. How often do you deviate from the Spanish variety offered in your textbook?
6. What language variety is presented by your language program?
7. When do you believe students need to be introduced to Spanish language varieties?  
Explain your answers.
8. When do you start introducing Spanish language variety in your classes? Explain your answers.
9. Tell me about a time when somebody made a positive or negative remark about your Spanish variety.
10. What is your opinion about using Spanish language varieties in the foreign or second language classroom?

### **Closing question**

Suppose you were applying for a Spanish teaching job and they asked you to talk about Spanish language varieties. What would you say?

### **Final questions**

Have we missed anything? Is there anything that we should have talked about but didn't? Any other questions?

### **Closing**

Thank you for your time. I truly appreciate your contribution to this research

APPENDIX E

CODING, FIRST STAGE: FOCUS GROUP 1: CATEGORIES

Spain as a reference to learn Spanish	Establishing distance between students and professors	Seeing the professor as the authority	Using Spanish on day 1	Making assumptions about students' language skills	Including students' personal information
Taking Spain as a point of reference.					
Spanish from Spain					
Testing students' attitudes towards accents and stereotypes	Disclosing information about instructor's research and professional background	Seeing the instructor as a person who could be approached	Not using Spanish on the first day to say: "me llamo or.."	Textbooks as the most common sources of information about Spanish	Acknowledging the existence of other varieties
Identifying herself as native speaker of the United States, even though she was born in another country	Avoiding disclosure of personal information	Using "pronombres de cortesia" <i>senorita</i> , instead of occupation to address the instructor	Reasoning about the importance of using Spanish on the first day of class	Textbooks disseminate the standard form	Bringing up examples of a regional variety
Avoiding being associated with a Spanish speaking accent	Disclosing personal information	Putting herself at students' level for having been in the same places	Using English to establish connections with students	Institutions influence the dissemination of the standard	A professor's words are used to support opinions
Differentiating dialects from regional varieties	Instructor's Spanish is a mix of different varieties	Identifying himself as a nonnative speaker of Spanish	Using Spanish in daily life with family members	Media influences which form is considered prestigious	The Spanish language has been influenced by many different languages
Being able to talk about regional variation implies being able to locate countries on a map	It is unfair to locate varieties on a map	Appropriating a specific variety for being in contact with it for a period of time	Use of academic language within the focus group	Schools teach the standard	Standard vs non-standard
Beginner textbooks emphasize maps, etc.	Regions discriminate or mock among themselves	Phonetic traits make dialects different	Assuming that there is always a hierarchy when thinking about languages.	Different centers are the point of reference for the prestigious variety.	Varieties that are not within the standard are downgraded
Spanish from Spain is prestigious, standard	Certain features of the language are stigmatized. Media and economic power influence the idea of prestigious	Spanish from Latin America is downgraded. It is necessary to use what the textbook presents because that is part of a test the students have to take.	Colombian Spanish is prestigious. Defining prestigious	Why is Spanish from Peru, prestigious? disbelief	Not recognizing a variety as prestigious. Location is highlighted. Costa de Colombia
			Textbooks give emphasis to the prestigious variety		

Dualistic division of Spanish: Spain and Latin America	School gives power to learners for learning a prestigious or more standard variety	We don't have time for something extra such as regional varieties or dialects.	The book presents Spanish from Spain	Textbooks use side notes to refer to regional varieties and instructors don't have time for that.	Contradicting: I know what I know and can judge vs yeah, there are different varieties
Connecting physical appearance to language	Being mistaken about nationality is a negative aspect	Instructor's Spanish as a mix of languages	Assumptions are made when let's say the mother is of Spanish speaking origin. It is understood that her children speak Spanish. Socioeconomic needs avoid that to happen.	Lack of exposure to the language limits learners' proficiency of the language.	<i>Vosotros</i> is not taught in high school.
Underestimating students' skills with the language. Instructors modify their speech so that they can understand	Spain is recognized as a heavy influence in her variety which happens to coincide with the textbook's so why to bother to mention other varieties	Instructor has never thought about the relevance of regional varieties in class until this study took place.	More common aspects that determine regional variation are vocabulary and grammar	What is presented in the textbook determines what is taught	some instructors see the textbook materials as a mix of different regional varieties.
Students are responsible for reading the side notes about regional variation because instructors don't have time	Underestimating students' need to learn something beyond their level.	Course level determine what is relevant to teach. At lower levels is not important	Students at lower levels do not differentiate between varieties, they just hear Spanish.	Vocabulary is mentioned as a regular reference for regional variation	Some of the textbook activities include listening different people from different varieties
The use of <i>vos</i> is unknown by some instructors. Following the book gives students more opportunities to get a good grade.	The use of <i>vosotros</i> is unknown.  It is important to connect instructor's regional variety to what the textbook presents to make it more relevant	Any linguistic trait can be learned by being exposed to it.	Textbooks are designed so that most people can use them.  The textbook presents the topics that are used in a test. Students use that as a guide.	Making students aware of what the textbook presents and what Spanish native speakers use.	Teaching in a coordinated program implies that what is in the textbook needs to be covered exactly as it is presented there
An instructor uses a song to talk about variation (use of <i>vos</i> )	It is possible to understand a regional linguistic trait without knowing how to use it. ( <i>vos</i> and <i>vosotros</i> )	It is ridiculous not to learn about <i>vosotros</i> .  <i>Vosotros</i> is more standard than <i>vos</i>	Spain as the most popular spot for students to pursue studies in Spanish	Being homogeneous is an important characteristic in a coordinated program.	Objectives of the course are more important than referring to regional varieties
Students pick up regional varieties when they go there, so it is not important to refer to this in class.	Ignore some linguistic traits because the instructor or the students are not used to it. Debating between <i>ustedes</i> and <i>vosotros</i>	Deviating from what a coordinated program does is wrong	The fact that a linguistic trait is not part of an instructor's repertoire doesn't mean that person can avoid referring to that aspect	Being in contact with native speakers of the target language helps when building a strong argument about	Variation is accepted as long as it does not interfere with grammar

When making corrections on projects some instructors use the word "mejor". The use of superlatives implies a preference for what is suggested	Instructors are aware of new uses of for example: ser and estar which sometimes deviate from what the textbooks present.	Differentiate between oral and written language. Written is more formal than oral so rules are to be followed	Students in lower level do not know the difference between a Spanish speaker from Madrid and a Spanish speaker from Argentina. They just hear Spanish.	linguistic traits such as vos Intelligibility as an important aspect to keep in mind when talking about regional varieties	Regional variation is observed through differences in vocabulary. However, communication will take place in spite of these differences.
Teaching regional varieties comes up organically as a lesson takes place.	It is important to help students develop their communicative skills before anything else	Locating students' learning in a bubble.	Instructors express that coordinated programs limit their ability to use regional varieties. Impose teaching styles. Programs should encourage instructors to use their regional variation	Testing is important and standard	Guiding the use of regional varieties based on students' interests
Learning regional varieties is an irrelevant aspect when setting language acquisition goals. Not being aware of regional varieties does not affect the learning of Spanish	Teaching regional varieties in lower levels is not important because they just want to learn to communicate		An instructor expresses clearly that in a coordinated program you teach the same topics and test on the same things. However, you are free to teach however you want.		

APPENDIX F  
CATEGORIES AND THEMES

### Categories

1. Acknowledging the existence of regional variation
2. Spain as a point of reference
3. Language used since day one
4. Standard vs. nonstandard
5. Prestigious vs. stigmatized
6. Dualistic division of Spanish: Spain and Latin America
7. Attitudes towards other varieties and their speakers
8. Distinction between oral and written language
9. Intelligibility
10. Coordinated program
11. Difference between Spanish used inside and outside the classroom
12. Teaching strategies: helping students develop their communicative skills
13. The role of textbooks and school in the implementation of regional varieties in the classroom
14. Accommodation
15. Language contact

### Themes related to Research Questions

1. Communicating with the target language: Teacher and student language exposure (14, 15) **(RQ1. To what extent do university Spanish instructors incorporate Spanish language varieties in their language classrooms?)**
2. Keeping the division of Spanish, Spain and Latin America, under traditional perspectives: Spain and Latin America under traditional perspectives (2, 6). **RQ2. Which factors influence the inclusion and /or exclusion of such varieties?**  
**RQ3. If there is inclusion, what linguistic areas are commonly addressed? Pronunciation? Vocabulary? Grammar? Others?**
3. Exploring Participants' Attitudes towards other varieties and their own. (1,4,5, 7, 9) **RQ2. Which factors influence the inclusion and /or exclusion of such varieties?**
4. Understanding Spanish coordinated programs (10,13)
5. Helping students develop their communicative skills (3, 12, 13, 11). **RQ5. To what extent do instructors' language practices reflect the precepts of communicative language teaching and the ACTFL guidelines for the 21<sup>st</sup> century?**  
**RQ6. How do classroom language practices variably incorporate multiple communities of practice (COP)?**

APPENDIX G  
IRB CERTIFICATE

March 20, 2019

Sandra Martinez- Franco  
Department of Modern Languages and Classics  
College of Arts & Sciences  
The University of Alabama  
Box 870246

Re: IRB # 17-OR-187-R2 "Embracing Spanish Language Varieties in the Foreign Language Classroom:  
Implications for Communicative Language Practices"

Dear Ms. Martinez-Franco:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your renewal application. Your renewal application has been given expedited approval according to 45 CFR part 46. Approval has been given under expedited review category 7 as outlined below:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

The approval for your application will lapse on March 19, 2020. If your research will continue beyond this date, please submit a continuing review to the IRB as required by University policy before the lapse. Please note, any modifications made in research design, methodology, or procedures must be submitted to and approved by the IRB before implementation. Please submit a final report form when the study is complete.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Carpantato T. Myles, MSM, CIM, CIP  
Director & Research Compliance Officer