



Examining the relationship between Latinos' English proficiency, educational degree, language preferences, and their perceptions on the Americans

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Abstract

Using data from the 2018 National Survey of Latinos that was conducted by The Pew Hispanic Center/Kaiser Family Foundation, the researcher in the present study reports on the perceptions of Latinos on English and their educational degrees as well as their language preferences. This non-experimental quantitative study is considered one of the first ones focusing on Latinos' language preferences conducted all over the United States. A highly randomly stratified 2,288 Latino adults (1,041 males and 1,091 females) who are 18 years old or older identified themselves as Latinos in this study. These participants were from 48 states in total. The results indicated that there was a positive relationship between the last degree attended and participants' English proficiency; however, there was no association between participants' preference of English over Spanish and their perceptions on the friendliness/closeness of American individuals. The implications and future direction are recommended at the end of the study based on these results.

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Keywords: Latinos; identity; language preference; English proficiency; Spanish.

1. Introduction

The United States consist of a lot of ethnicities mostly because there are many refugees and immigrants living in the states (Alba, Logan, Lutz, & Stults, 2002). For instance, "Latinos account for approximately 17% of the U.S. population" (Ortiz & Behm-Morawitz, 2015, p. 91), and this number has been increasing recently (NCES, 2019). The country is a very diverse and multifaceted place in which many individuals find belongingness in terms of their identity. However, it is difficult to state this for certain groups because as the group gets larger, it is always harder to make generalizations. Also, since different racial values and ancestry are involved in describing different groups, talking about one's racial belongingness is difficult. For instance, social media questioned whether Barack Obama was too

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White to be called as the first Black president of the U.S. because he has biracial White/Black ancestry (Young, Sanchez, & Wilton, 2016). Such questioning was mostly because of the fact that Obama sometimes enacted Black identity and sometimes enacted White identity through certain achievements that public thought stereotypes could not achieve so far (Gaither, Wilton, & Young, 2013; Steele & Aronson, 1995).

In addition, some individuals, especially the ones that are considered as public figures, have not been considered as “not Latino enough” to be considered as minority hires because their Spanish was considered not good enough in spite of their Latino heritage (Young et al, 2016; Wedge, 2012). This situation does not help the diversity within institutions even though each institution has a diversity statement in job applications. According to the diversity statement, institutions should hire linguistically and culturally diverse individuals to increase diversity; however, not recognizing individuals’ native languages in such situations does not help in embracing this statement. “These situations highlight the complicated nature of perceiving minority status, specifically when considering the visibility of minority individuals in public office and education” (Young et al., 2016, p. 394).

Furthermore, even though Latinos constitute the largest ethnic minority, they are also invisible in mainstream news (Dixon & Linz, 2000; Mastro & Behm-Morawitz, 2005; Sui & Paul, 2017, 2020). This type of invisibility prevents them to take important roles in society. Sui and Paul (2020) stated, “the lack of visibility could deny Latinos voice and power in mainstream U.S. culture” (p. 50). In return, when Latinos, as a minority group, feel their invisibility in the mainstream media, they may develop negative perceptions towards the native speakers of English and/or the target culture. This situation creates a domino effect. Therefore, it is important to find out about Latinos’ current perceptions on English language in relation to their educational backgrounds as well as their perception of the closeness/friendliness of American individuals in the U.S.

1.1. Literature review

There has been some research focusing on the meaning of “minority” from a multidimensional point of view (Peery & Bodenhausen, 2008; Sanchez, Good, & Chavez, 2011; Sladek, Doane, Luecken, Gonzalez, & Grimm, 2020; Sui & Paul, 2020). These studies do not categorize racial and ethnic diversity within strict frames. Instead, racial and ethnic enactment is referred as racial identity because identity is multifaceted (Sanchez et al., 2011; Young, Sanchez, & Wilton, 2013). Additionally, some studies claimed that there are certain biological features of individuals such as gender that may be indirectly related to their racial identity (Carpinella, Chen, Hamilton, & Johnson, 2015; Goff, Thomas, & Jackson, 2008; Johnson, Freeman, & Pauker, 2012). Even though it may be overt, individuals’ preference on the use of one language over another in interacting with other individuals may also imply racial identity.

Language learning is different than some other type of learning because language learning requires considering the learner as a social being and his/her social environment (Peker, 2013). As Williams (1994) indicated, “language, after all, belongs to a whole person’s social being: it is part of one’s identity and is used to convey this identity to other people” (p. 77). For Williams, language learning also includes one’s adjusting their identity, reframing or reshaping their identity along with the culture they are living in or they are learning about, which also brings up the idea of adapting to the target culture while being a member of the target culture society. In addition, Mead (1934) is considered the pioneer of modern identity-concept. He put forward the idea that identity is constructed as a result of interaction with the others, and language development is crucial in having this interaction. He claimed that the mind and one’s identity come to life through the language. Moreover, similar to Williams’ idea, Gardner and Lambert (1972) proposed that individuals need language to become a part of a community, and language is a means in doing this. Therefore, it would not be wrong to state, “language learning will also be

affected by the whole social situation, context and culture in which the learning takes place” (Williams, 1994, p. 77).

In this regard, it is also important to mention Vygotsky’s (1978) Sociocultural Theory. According to Vygotsky, individuals learn through the use of language as a symbolic tool by appropriating themselves to the social contexts that are available in the culture that they live in. Lantolf (2000) noted that individuals increasingly take control of their mediational means such as culture, and language for interpersonal (social interaction) and intrapersonal communication purposes. Based on this, learning takes place when individuals engage in cultural activities thereby interacting with others through the cultural tools. From this perspective, second language theories have shifted from viewing language learners as individuals internalizing the rules of a language to viewing them as culturally positioned individuals along with their subjectivity and ascribed power.

Being one of the crucial elements of identity research, power (i.e., ascribed power) has a large impact on language teaching and language learning field (Norton 2013). Researchers proposed that the heterogeneous structure of the society is understood through the inequitably structured environments where learners have different races, classes, and ethnicities (Freire, 1985; Giroux, 1992; Simon, 1992). According to Norton (2013), social relations and communities are ascribed, constructed, and validated within the power construct. Therefore, power does not exist only as a political issue at the macro level but it also exists at the micro level in individuals’ dialogues and interactions with others through language practices (Peker, 2016, 2020). Therefore, it is noteworthy to state that identities are constructed and/or reconstructed through social interactions across social and sociocultural contexts and they occur as a result of the actions among individuals (Gee, 2008; De Costa & Norton, 2017; Kayi-Aydar, 2019).

Furthermore, Bourdieu (1977), West (1992), Cummins (1996), Weedon (1997), Kayi-Aydar, Gao, Miller, Varghese, & Vitanova (2019) and Peker (2016, 2020) contributed to the conceptualization of the relationship between power, identity and language learning, and they suggested that language learning might also be political. Political tensions or any positive phenomena may impact language learners’ attitudes and opinions about that language positively or negatively. Norton (2013) viewed this relationship as a dynamic construct that continuously being negotiated as the “symbolic and material resources in a society change their value” such as political powers (p. 47). She also emphasized that individuals who have access to resources in the L2 community would have access to or obtain power and privilege. This in turn influences their perspective on their relationship to the environment in which they live in. For West (1992), an individual’s identity will be reconstructed or shift equivalently with the changing social interactions and relations within a society or culture.

Social class as an element that is inextricably related to identity is another factor that determines the extent to which individuals can interact with L2 community. In this regard, identity or individuals’ positioning themselves within a society is in constant change along with the class differences between the interlocutors. To exemplify, Connell, Ashendon, Kessler and Dowsett (1982) refers to the concept of class as a system of relationships among individuals, and state that what individuals do with their resources in different classes are more important than how individuals are described based on their classes. Thus, “the relationship between individuals and class cannot be reduced to a system of categories; however, it can be viewed as a system of relationships between individuals that determines the extent of L2 community accessibility for learners” (Peker, 2016, p. 34).

Considering the aforementioned elements of identity, a large majority of the studies were conducted through qualitative studies such as ethnographies (De Costa, 2011; Martin-Beltran, 2010; Norton 2013; Warren & Moghaddam, 2018). For instance, Norton (2013) conducted a narrative study on a second language learner named Saliha who experienced otherness in relation to the person whom she worked as a server for. As an immigrant, she was excluded from the social environment she was living in just because she was ethnically different from the individuals she was serving. This indicated that power relations existed in her environment, and due to the lack of access to language practices and materials,

Saliha had a negative perception about the lady she was serving for. This was mostly because she could not speak the language ascribed as a norm by that culture (i.e., target culture) and the native speaker lady was more powerful compared to Saliha as an immigrant.

In another study conducted in Canada context by Norton (2000), social class and power relations with native speakers were also emphasized. She investigated five immigrant women's language learning experiences and observed that speaking English with native speakers was limited because of their jobs or educational backgrounds and because the native speakers that they were in touch with were unfriendly or not welcoming. The negative attitudes of native speakers of English affected their limited access to language resources, and they could not practice their English with the native speakers. Also, because of their educational background, they had to do lower social class work and this contributed to their lack of access to the resources no matter how motivated they were in learning English.

In another study, De Costa (2011) examined immigrant language learners' beliefs about English at a school in Singapore through a micro-ethnographic approach. He focused on language ideology and positioning in investigating language learners' beliefs about English as an L2 because language and individuals' positioning themselves within a target community are inextricably linked and this link is based on ideologies. He found that the discourses among the students learning English depended inherently on political interaction. Therefore, as a socio-cultural issue, power relations among individuals affect individuals' beliefs especially the ones who migrate from one country to another because of political reasons. For instance, racial issues between Anglos and Hispanics in the United States (U.S.) could be examples of how power relations among individuals may affect their language learning gains, which would also bring racial pressure issues with it. However, as mentioned earlier, most of the identity and power relation studies were conducted in Canada context by Norton (2000, 2013). Examining Latinos' or Hispanics' perceptions on English through a political survey conducted in the U.S. would make the picture clearer because being an immigrant goes beyond being a language learner only. It is a broader concept in which power relations, educational background and perceptions should be examined. For this very reason, one of the main purposes of this cross-sectional non experimental quantitative study was to identify if there was a relationship between Latinos' or Hispanics' educational backgrounds and their English proficiencies, as in the case of Norton's (2000) Canada study. Another purpose was to investigate if there was an association between Latinos'/Hispanics' preferences to speak English or Spanish and their perception of closeness/friendliness of American individuals in the U.S.

1.2. Research questions

1) Is there a relationship between the last degree completed by Latino/Hispanic participants ($N=1228$) in the present study and their English proficiency level based on their composite scores?

2) Is there an association between Latinos'/Hispanics' preferences to speak English over Spanish and their perception of closeness/friendliness of American individuals in the U.S.?

1.3. Operational Definitions

For the purpose of the present study, proficiency level is defined as the composite score based on the summation of scores derived from the 55th and 56th questions of a 4-point Likert scale questionnaire of "The 2018 National Survey of Latinos" survey. The lowest score is "1" representing "not at all" and the highest score is "4" representing "very well." In addition, closeness or friendliness of American individuals is interpreted through the terms such as smiling, looking at the individual's eyes, and talking about personal issues. This concept is defined as a categorical data (better in the U.S., better in the country of origin and about the same). Lastly, even though the terms "Hispanic" and "Latino" were considered interchangeable for the purpose of this study, the terms were made clear to the interviewees

operationally by definitions such as “Latino” is a short form of “Latin American” including Central and South America, Caribbean Islands as well as Brazil and Haiti even though people in some of these countries do not speak Spanish. “Hispanic” refers to the term that was adopted by the U.S. government in the 1970s in an attempt to count people from such countries as Mexico, Cuba and the nations in Central and South America (Martin, 2009).

2. Method

2.1. Sample / Participants

A highly randomly stratified 2,288 Latino adults (1,041 males and 1,091 females) who are 18 years old or older were included in the present study. These participants were from 48 states in total. In the demographics section of the survey, Latinos were identified based on the question “Are you, yourself, of Hispanic or Latino origin or descent, such as Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Dominican, Central or South American, Caribbean, or some other Latin background?”

2.2. Instruments

In this study, the 2018 National Survey of Latinos (NSL) that was conducted by The Pew Hispanic Center/Kaiser Family Foundation was utilized. The survey items were created by the representatives of the Pew Hispanic Center and The Kaiser Family Foundation. Although the complete survey was a political and civic engagement survey, for the purpose of this study, only the items related to Latinos’ language preferences, proficiency, and their perceptions on American individuals and language were included in the analysis of the data.

These items are Likert-Scale items measuring Latinos’ perceptions towards English language and perceptions on the closeness of American individuals during the process of their language learning and identification with the U.S. culture. Weighted responses to the question asking how well they read a newspaper or watch TV in English for the purpose of measuring the proficiency level include, “1=Very well, 2=Pretty well, 3=Just a little, 4=Not at all.” Items assessing the last degree attended by Latinos include the options, “None, or grade 1-8, High school incomplete (grades 9-11), High school grad, GED, Business, technical, or vocational school after high school, Some college, no 4-year degree, College graduate, Post-graduate training/professional schooling after college.”

In addition, the items assessing Latinos’ perceptions on the closeness (friendliness) of American individuals as an attitude towards Latinos include, “1=Better in the United States, 2=Better in the country came from, 3=About the same.” Besides these questions, since the whole data were about politics and Latinos’ political views on the U.S. politics, there were other items assessing the demographic information such as marital status, gender, income level, being registered for voting or not.

2.3. Data collection procedures and data analysis

The 2018 NLS was conducted by The Pew Hispanic Center/Kaiser Family Foundation through telephone from July 26th to September 9th in 2018. However, the International Communications Research of Media in Philadelphia conducted the fieldwork in either English or Spanish, based on the respondents’ preferences. It is reported on the Pew Research Center’s website that the National Survey of Latinos is an annually conducted national survey that has been conducted since 2002 by the Pew Research Center. The NSL examines the attitudes, beliefs, and the opinions of Latino population that is one of the most fast growing populations. Usually, the topics include identity issues, politics, Latinos’

political opinions on immigration policy and education as well as their perceptions on religion and health care.

As for the data analysis, first descriptive statistics were conducted to understand the sample better. Then, for the inferential statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed to determine whether there was a relationship between the last degree completed by Latino/Hispanic participants and their English proficiency level based on their composite scores, as well as whether there was an association between Latinos’/Hispanics’ preferences to speak English over Spanish and their perception of closeness/friendliness of American individuals in the U.S. The results are presented below respectively.

3. Results

3.1. Descriptive Statistics

Frequency Distribution. In order to gain a clearer perspective of the sample, a frequency distribution is examined. Even though the term “Hispanic” and “Latino” are both used interchangeably by most of the people in the U.S. in general, in this sample 31.7 % of the sample identifies themselves as Hispanic, 15.6 % identifies themselves as Latino while 52.7 % does not have any preference on how they describe themselves (see Table 1).

Table 1. Distribution of Identification Preferences

Groups	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hispanic	726	31.7	31.7	31.7
Latino	356	15.6	15.6	47.3
No preference	1206	52.7	52.7	100.0
Total	2288	100.0	100.0	

However, it is also important to analyse participants’ preferences on the interview language. Considering that 52.7% of the participants do not have origin-identification preference and 47.3% of the participants either prefer to be called as Hispanic or Latino, this might reflect to their interview language preference. It may be expected that almost 50% of the participants would want the interview to be in English because almost 50% do not have a preference to identify themselves as Hispanic or Latino. Therefore, it is important to interpret Figure 1.

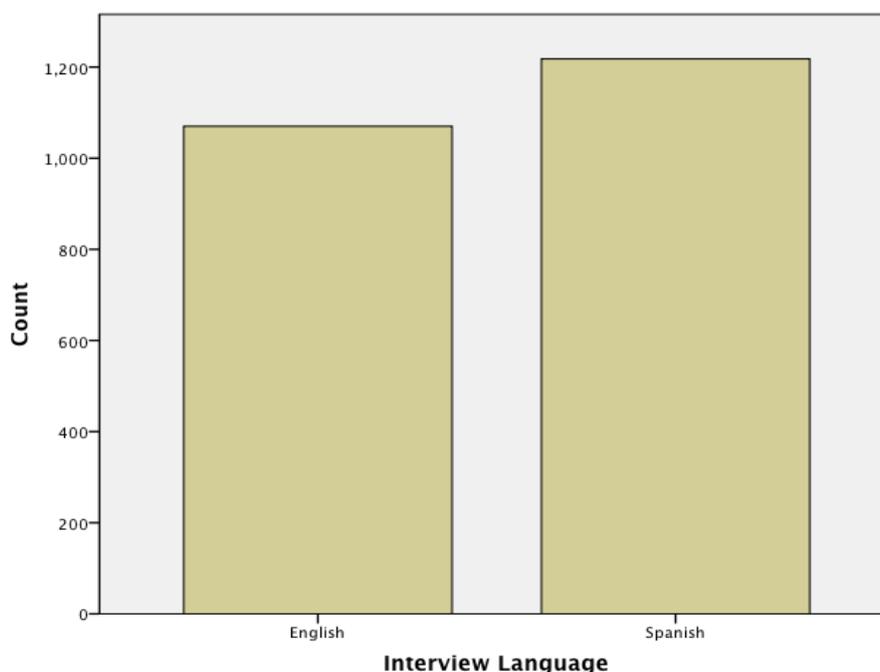


Figure 1. Bar Graph of Participants' Interview Language Preferences

According to Figure 1, while 46.8% wants to be interviewed in English, 53.2% prefers Spanish as the interview language. Considering the Table 1 and Figure 1, the percentages look similar; however, it is not known whether the participants who chose English over Spanish are the ones who do not have preference on the origin-identification.

Measures of Central Tendency and Variability. Considering more than half of the participants prefer to be interviewed in English, looking at the measures of central tendencies and variability of their proficiency in English is crucial. The distribution of the proficiency in English during daily activities such as reading an English book or carrying on a daily conversation was defined by a mean of 6.18 and a standard deviation of 2.08 on an 8-point composite scale (combination of 2 items on a 4-point scale). As a result, the 6.1 mean and the 2.0 mean suggest that the distribution is negatively skewed (Skewness=-.629). The percentiles also show that there is a density on the 2nd and 3rd quartiles. The 2nd percentile is 7.0 and the 3rd percentile is 8.0. As it is also seen from the Figure 2, it is not normally distributed; this is because most of the participants believe that their English proficiency is either “very well” or “pretty well” (6-7-8 on the composite scale).

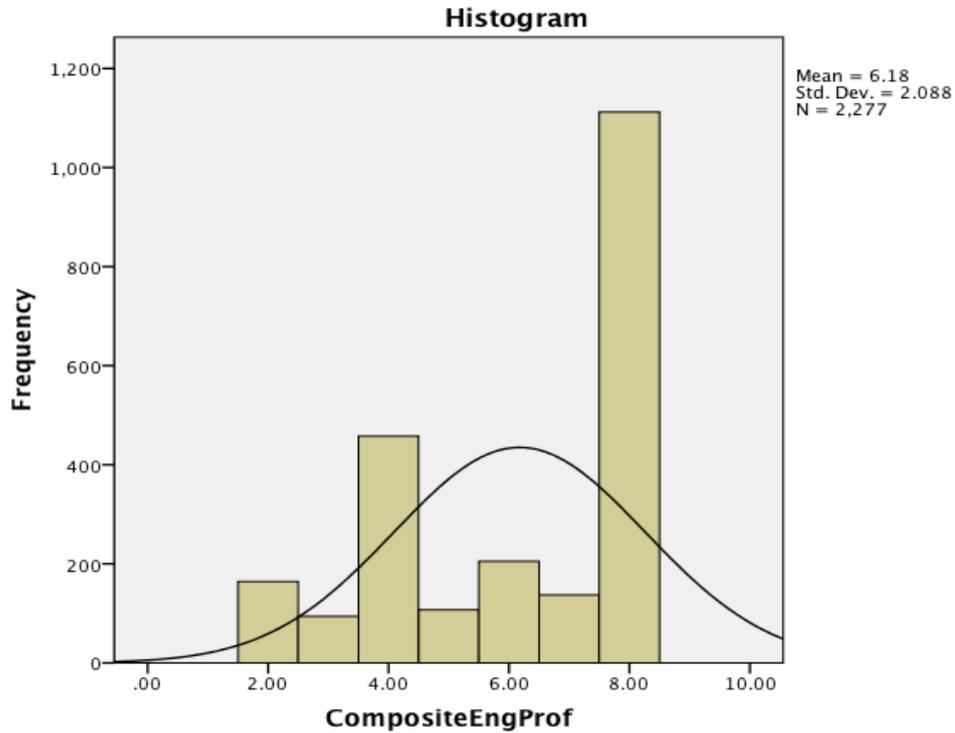


Figure 2. Histogram of English Proficiency Level

Boxplot. Since the research questions are related to participants’ proficiency level and their identification with their own culture or American culture/people, creating a boxplot is necessary. According to the boxplot, it is seen that the 3rd quartile and the upper range was collapsed. The 2nd quartile of the individuals who describe themselves as Hispanic is higher than the 2nd quartile of the individuals who consider themselves as Latino regarding their English proficiency.

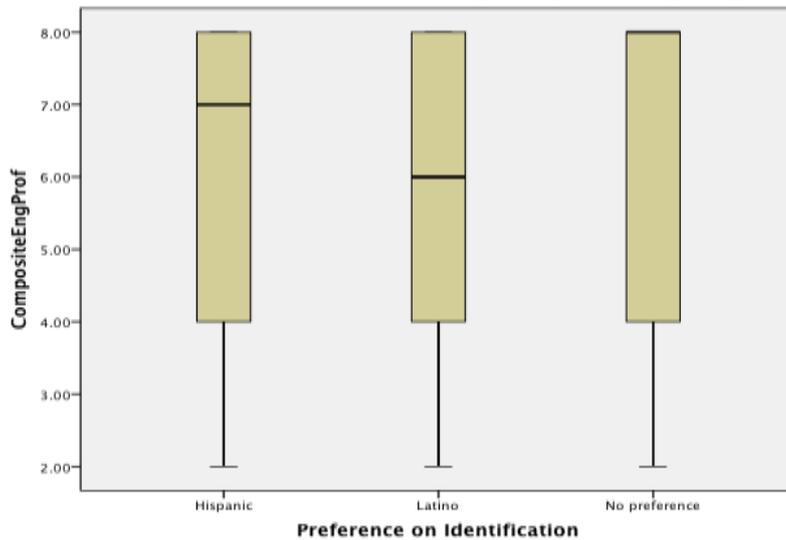


Figure 3. Boxplot of Participants’ Perceived Origin-Identification and English Proficiency

3.2. Inferential Statistics

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was computed to determine whether there was a relationship between the last educational degree completed by Latino participants ($N=1228$) and their English proficiency. The alpha level was .05. English proficiency was the dependent variable while the last degree completed by Latino individual served as the independent variable. The null hypothesis is that the correlation coefficients are equal to 0, and the alternative hypothesis is that correlation coefficients are not equal to 0. The hypothesis is symbolized as follows:

$$H_0 : r_{XY} = 0$$

$$H_1 : r_{XY} \neq 0$$

Because there are only two different variables to answer the first research question, a scatter plot was computed. If there were more than 2 variables, matrix scatterplot would be more appropriate. Review of the scatterplot of the variables suggested that although there appeared to be a weak relationship as seen on the scatter plot, it looks like there is a slightly positive indication to the line in the scatter plot. The closer the plots are to the line, the stronger the relationship. According to the scatterplot, there is a linear relationship; however, the strength of the relationship is very weak, which is evidenced by points that are really not close at all to the line of best fit.

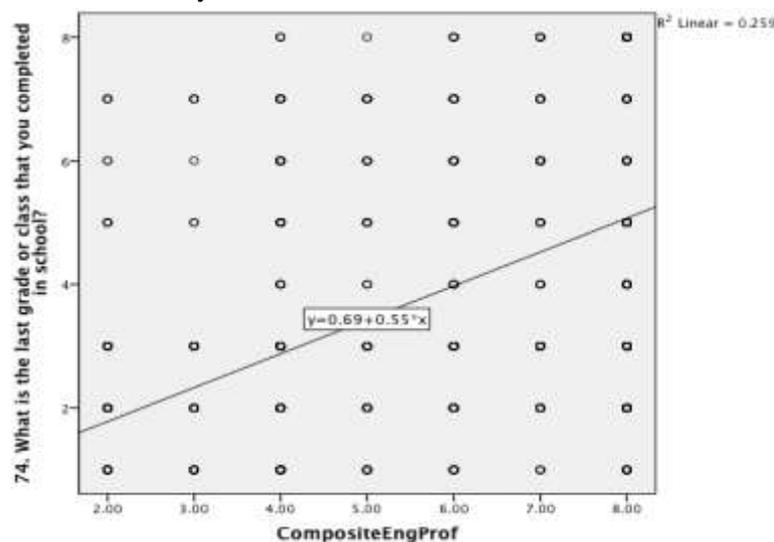


Figure 4. Scatter Plot of the Correlation Between the Last Degree Attended and English Proficiency

Then, it is proceeded with measuring the relationship through Pearson Correlation Coefficient as there was one interval variable (composite score of English Proficiency) and one ordinal variable (the last educational degree attended). Regarding the assumptions for the Pearson Correlation Coefficient, since the sample was randomly selected from the population, the assumption of independence was met, and thus there is a less chance of a Type I or Type II error.

After the examination of the correlations in Table 2, it could be inferred that there was a positive relationship between the last educational degree attended and participants' English proficiency ($r = .509$, $n = 2243$, $p < .001$). This suggests that as the degree of education increases, participants' English proficiency also increases. Also, it can be inferred that since the p value (.000) is lower than alpha level (.01), the null hypothesis can be rejected. It means that there is evidence that there is a relationship between the last educational degree completed and Latinos' English proficiency.

Table 2. Correlation of Degree and English Proficiency

		The last grade or class completed	Composite English Proficiency
The last grade or class completed	Pearson Correlation	1	.509**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	2248	2243
Composite English Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.509**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	2243	2277

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficient is statistically significant, and it suggests a large effect size based on Cohen's (1988) standards because the correlation coefficient value of .509 is considered as a large effect according to Cohen's standards that indicates any value greater than $r=.50$ as a large effect. In addition, post hoc power analysis showed that the power was perfect with a value of 1.0. This means that the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it was false is 100 %, which means that it has the perfect power, and therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a relation between the two variables and the relation is positive.

Lastly, a chi square test was computed to determine if there was an association between Latinos' preferences to speak English over Spanish and their perception of closeness of American individuals in the U.S. The independent variable is the preference of English or Spanish as an interview language, and the dependent variable is Latinos' perceptions on closeness/friendliness of American individuals. It was conducted using an alpha of .05.

Table 3. Chi-Square Results

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.989 ^a	2	.610
Likelihood Ratio	.975	2	.614
Linear-by-Linear Association	.767	1	.381
N of Valid Cases	1228		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 53.03.

Table 4. Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.028	.610
	Cramer's V	.028	.610
	Contingency Coefficient	.028	.610
N of Valid Cases		1228	

The assumption of an expected frequency was not met while the assumption of independence was met since the respondents were randomly selected, thus the probability of a Type I error was decreased. It is seen from the row marginals that 47.7 % of the individuals overall think that the friendliness of Americans is about the same in their original country and in the U.S. Also, by looking at the Table 3 it can be stated that the association is not significant because the p value of .610 is greater than alpha level

.05, so the null hypothesis cannot be rejected ($\chi^2 = .989^a$, $df = 2$, $p = .610$). There is no association between Latinos' preferences to speak English over Spanish and their perception of American people's friendliness. The *standardized residuals* suggest that none of the groups have a significant residual value; the values are very low such as .8, -.4 (better in the U.S.), -.3, .1 (better in the origin-country), -.4, .2 (about the same). If the values were greater than 1.96 (z critical value when alpha is .05), it would have been significant. The positive values mean that the cell was over-represented in the actual sample (more subjects in this category than the researcher expected) while the negative values mean that the cell was under-represented in the actual sample, which means there were fewer subjects in this category than the researcher expected. The effect size, Cohen's w , was computed to be .028 (see Table 4), which is interpreted to be a very low effect (Cohen, 1988). Also, even though the significance was very low, post hoc power was conducted using G*Power and found to be .12.

4. Discussion

Results of the present study indicate that there was a positive relationship between the last degree attended and participants' English proficiency. This suggests that as individuals' education level increases, their level of English proficiency increases in this sample of population. This finding aligns with Norton's (2000, 2013) findings. In her study she conducted in 2000, she investigated five immigrant women's language learning experiences and found that speaking English with native speakers was limited because of the immigrant women's educational backgrounds and the jobs they do. Because certain lower level jobs were assigned to these immigrant women either because of their educational backgrounds or because they could not speak English as good as native speakers, their access to language resources were limited and their English proficiency could not improve due to limited resources or lack of practices. A similar situation might have happened with the participants in the current study; however, doing interviews to understand the underlying reasons would shed more light to this study.

Additionally, the chi square test results indicated that there was no association between participants' preference of English over Spanish and their perceptions on the friendliness/closeness of American individuals because the significance value was very low. This shows that whether the Latinos perceive the attitudes from the Americans as friendly or not does not make any difference in Latinos' preference to speak English over Spanish. This finding is actually the opposite of Saliha example in Norton's (2013) study and also the findings in West's (1992) and De Costa's (2011) studies. For instance, the attitude of the lady whom Saliha worked as a server for affected her attitude towards the lady because she was excluded from the social environment she was living in just because she was ethnically different from the lady. On the other hand, in the current study, the situation was different, and therefore, in Latinos' preference to use of English over Spanish, there must be some other sociocultural factors, which can be a future direction for this research study.

5. Conclusions

Drawing from the data obtained from the 2018 National Survey of Latinos conducted by The Pew Hispanic Center/Kaiser Family Foundation, the researcher in the present study reported on the perceptions of Latinos on English and their educational degrees as well as their language preferences. Significance of this non-experimental quantitative study is that it is the first research study focusing on Latinos' language preferences in relation to their identities conducted all over the United States. As mentioned earlier, a highly randomly stratified 1,041 male and 1,091 female adults participated in this

study. The results indicated that there was a positive relationship between the last degree attended and participants' English proficiency; however, there was no association between participants' preference of English over Spanish and their perceptions on the friendliness/closeness of American individuals. These results, as discussed in the previous section, indicate some other sociocultural factors that might have affected Latinos' preferences and identity, including their educational level, native speakers' welcoming and unfriendly attitudes within a sociocultural framework. Since individuals learn through interacting with each other and using language as a symbolic tool by appropriating themselves to the social contexts that are available in the culture that they live in, attitudes directed from others affect these individuals' language learning and use as well as their preferences over their language functionality (Lantolf, 2000). According to Lantolf (2000), language learners increasingly become the agents of their language learning adventure as they take control of their mediational means such as culture and language, and eventually others affect how these language learners use mediational means around them.

Furthermore, besides the aforementioned results, there are also some limitations that the researcher acknowledges in this study. First, the current survey includes 155 items in total and all the questions are asked on the phone. Since most Latinos work in jobs that require a lot of manpower during the day, they either may not have time to answer these questions or they may not be allowed to talk on the phone while working. Therefore, the quality of the answers might have been affected, which also affects the internal validity. Second, since the survey was a completely political survey through telephone from July 26th to September 9th in 2018, especially after President Trump came to power, participants' answers were mostly related to political issues and they might be over conscious in using English and not using Spanish in order not to create a political problem causing discrimination (Baker, 2006). This might have also affected the internal validity of the study because this study was based on a specific language use and identity related items were the focus of the survey.

As for future studies, other sociocultural items indicating belongingness to the target culture can be included in the survey as there must be a reason why participants want to use English over Spanish as opposite to the existing findings in the literature. Figure 1 suggests that the use of both languages is very close to each other; therefore, the reason behind it could be investigated through variables. In addition, Latinos could be grouped in different categories in regard to generations because being a first generation, second or third generation immigrant may create differences in education levels and perceptions, which might also lead the researchers to obtain different results regarding English proficiency as in Nieri's (2012) study. Last, both as a limitation and future direction, participants from Porto Rico can be considered in a different category because they are both the U.S. citizens and Latinos. Therefore, including them in this study creates a complex situation, which might have affected the generalizability and the validity of the results.

6. Ethics Committee Approval

The author confirms that this study does not need ethics committee approval. (Date of Confirmation: 21.03.2020)

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Latinlerin İngilizce yeterliliği, eğitim derecesi, dil tercihleri ve Amerikalılara ilişkin algıları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi

Öz

Pew Hispanik Merkezi / Kaiser Family Foundation tarafından gerçekleştirilen 2018 Ulusal Latin Anketi'nden elde edilen verileri kullanan, bu araştırmacı Latinler'in İngilizce hakkındaki algılarını, bununla ilgili olarak eğitim derecelerine de dil tercihleri üzerine bir rapor sunmaktadır. dil tercihlerinin yanı sıra. Bu deneysel olmayan nicel çalışma, tüm Amerika'yı kapsayan ve Latinler'in dil tercihlerine odaklanan ilk çalışmalardan biri olarak kabul edilir. Bu çalışmada katılımcı olarak 18 yaş ve üstü oldukça rastgele sınıflandırılmış 2,288 Latin kökenli yetişkin (1,041 erkek ve 1,091 kadın) bulunmaktadır. Bu katılımcılar toplam 48 eyalettendir. Sonuçlar, katılımcıların en son aldıkları eğitim ile onların İngilizce yeterliliği arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir; ancak, katılımcıların İngilizce'yi İspanyolca'ya göre daha çok tercih etmeleri ile Amerikan bireylerinin samimiyeti/yakınlığı konusundaki algıları arasında bir ilişki yoktu. Bu sonuçlara dayanarak çalışmanın sonunda çıkarımlar ve gelecek çalışmalar için öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Latinler; kimlik; dil tercihi; İngilizce yeterlilik; İspanyolca

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