Proceedings of the 2009 Undergraduate Conference on Hispanic Linguistics

Jeffrey T. Reeder, Editor

Sonoma State University
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Each participant in the conference was an enrolled student in SPAN 490 – Seminar in Linguistics, a senior-seminar class. In addition to the written proceedings that appear in this volume, each participant also delivered a conference session presentation reporting on their investigations and presented at a public poster session. All submissions appear in this volume exactly as submitted by the authors.
Los ademanes del habla y la comunicación: Gestos, variaciones y adquisición del lenguaje

Irma Acevedo Luna

Sonoma State University
Sinopsis

La comunicación del ser humano es extensa, de ella derivan varias ramas entre ellas la que se refiere a la comunicación no-verbal. Pero ésta, realmente no es instruida o enseñada, más bien es algo instintivo, realizado inconscientemente. No existen clases ni capacitaciones para aprender el tipo de gestos o movimientos que debemos usar cuando nos expresamos verbalmente ni tampoco sobre cómo interpretarlos, sin embargo es posible realizarlo. Mi interés sobre la presente investigación radica en tratar de comprender la relación y sintonía existente entre los ademanes del habla y la expresión oral, ambos necesarios en el intercambio de mensajes tomando en cuenta que dicha comunicación es muy variable entre países y culturas. Así mismo, es muy interesante cómo este tipo de comunicación interpersonal es utilizada para la mejor compresión del lenguaje y la adquisición de algún idioma extranjero. El principal propósito de este proyecto es saber si realmente la comunicación no-verbal es más que un simple movimiento corporal o reacción instantánea de la expresión humana.

Abstract

Non-verbal communication is an addition to the whole system of communication that humans have. However, is a subject that is not really study, it is something that humans do when they communicate verbally. There is no class or trainings to learn the right movements and gestures to do with specifics oral expressions. My interest in this complex investigation is to try and understand the correlation between the gestures and the speech, when is used at the same time. Also, it is very compelling how this type of non-verbal communication interpersonal is utilized for the fully understanding of the language and the acquisition of a second one. My purpose in this project is to know if truly the non-verbal communication is more than a simple hand gesture, or a complement to the verbal communication.

Planteamiento

Si lo veo, lo olvido
Si lo digo, lo recuerdo
Si lo hago, lo comprendo (proverbio chino)...

Me he percatado del constante uso de manos, y el movimiento del cuerpo en general, cuando se da la comunicación entre las personas. En mi persona he notado que en el momento que me encuentro explicando un tema a los estudiantes con quienes trabajo, tiendo a realizar movimientos exagerados, inconscientemente, al hablar. Fuera de ese ambiente escolar uso mis manos cuando tengo pláticas casuales, pero los movimientos no son tan marcados como cuando estoy explicando. Me he dado cuenta de que al no hacer uso de mis manos es más difícil expresar mis ideas, en comparación de cuando las uso. Es necesario para mi fluidez verbal y mejoramiento de comunicación con mis semejantes utilizar el lenguaje corporal. Esta investigación tiene la intención de conocer más a fondo este fenómeno de la comunicación no-verbal y de contestar la interrogante acerca de si los ademanes y gestos del habla son un simple capricho del hablante, o estos ya están predeterminados por el lenguaje. También saber cuál es el objetivo de la comunicación no-verbal al combinarse con la verbal.
Método de investigación

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*Sí lo digo, lo recuerdo*
*Sí lo hago, lo comprendo* (proverbio chino)...

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Está basada en la recopilación de varios estudios y artículos académicos ya establecidos de la comunicación no-verbal. Se consultaron dichos artículos y libros para el análisis de la correlación del lenguaje verbal y no-verbal; su impacto, efecto e influencia en los hablantes. A continuación se hará un análisis y correlación de los artículos los cuales a su vez se apoyan entre sí para la explicación de la comunicación no-verbal como complemento del lenguaje verbal y adquisición de un nuevo idioma extranjero para el hablante.

"El lenguaje corporal es una de las formas básicas para la comunicación humana. Se considera como un lenguaje que se manifiesta y se percibe en varios niveles, puesto que logra la integración de los planos físicos, afectivos y cognitivos de la persona. Y como todo lenguaje, es susceptible de que el sujeto alcance en los diversos grados de dominio y competencia. Se refiere al empleo adecuado de los gestos como auxiliares de la palabra oral, a la que generalmente enriquece con matices y movimientos particulares del cuerpo" (Kellerman 240).

El artículo “Language and Gestures” por David McNeill explica que la “comunicación no-verbal en un fenómeno omnipresente,” no importa en qué idioma este hablando una persona, uno se dará cuenta de la compulsión y necesidad que tiene de mover el cuerpo al mismo tiempo en que se está comunicando oralmente. McNeill declara que la comunicación no-verbal, los gestos, tienen el potencial de tomar las características de la lingüística. Por lo tanto se tiene que distinguir los movimientos que se le han llamado por igual “gestos.” Los divide en tres tipos de gestos o movimientos deliberados; la gesticulación, el emblema y la pantomima los cuales define para su distinción. El primero es el emblema, una seña distintiva, el cual puede o no puede ser acompañada por la expresión oral. Ya que es una acción simbólica donde el movimiento tiene un significado verbal específico. Remplaza, repite o distingue la expresión oral. La pantomima, una expresión mímica, no necesariamente es acompañada por el habla. Ya que esta es una seña compleja que sustituye la expresión verbal. Por último el gesto,
generalmente conocido como ademán, es necesariamente combinado con el lenguaje verbal. Es un movimiento vigoroso y deliberado. McNeill los clasifica de tal manera para que puedan distinguirse como los tipos de gestos pueden diferir entre sí, en los siguientes cuadros el investigador acentúa la relación entre los gestos con el habla y las propiedades lingüísticas. Sin embargo aclara que el emblema muestra un sistema de restricción en la relación con las propiedades lingüísticas, ya que hay diferencias entre señales bien formadas y no tan claras. Dicha señal está restringida a asumir cierta forma fonológica, como el signo de ok por su escritura en inglés.

La comunicación no-verbal en relación al habla:

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Competencia comunicativa (Darn)

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<th>Contacto físico permitido entre hablantes.</th>
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<td>Moción del cuerpo; movimiento de manos y brazos, expresiones faciales.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pistas no-verbales</td>
<td>Usadas para dirigir la conversación</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximidad</td>
<td>Separación espacial; en relación al ambiente físico y social.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Símbolos de sonido</td>
<td>Gruñidos; mmm, er, ah, uh-huh, farfullar, balbucear.</td>
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En el artículo “I See What You Mean: The Role of Kinesic Behaviour in Listening and Implications for Foreign and Second Language Learning” por Susan Kellerman explica que la comunicación es principalmente verbal, consiste en el lenguaje acústico, el habla, y óptico, la escritura, y que inevitablemente aplica la lingüística, aclara que se debe considerar la comunicación no-verbal como una materia de interés académico. Ya que ésta se utiliza para la codificación y descodificación del mensaje verbal. Así como McNeill clasificó los ademanes en tres tipos de gestos, Kellerman clasifica los movimientos como un grupo secundario del lenguaje corporal, identifiable y accesible, llamado “ilustradores” (illustrators) el cual define como movimientos que están íntimamente unidos con el contenido y el flujo del habla. Que llaman gestural onomatopoeia y es especialmente utilizada para este propósito de entender el mensaje oral. Se han identificado ocho tipos de ilustradores, batons, underliners, ideographs, kinetographs, pictographs, rhythmics, spatial, and deictics; por su concepto en inglés, los cuales Kellerman afirma que tienen cinco funciones. La primera indica la intención para continuar hablando mientras se busca una palabra en particular, el hablante puede hacer un movimiento como si estuviera tratando de sacar la palabra de su vocabulario. La segunda es como un cierto auto-imprimación del hablante puede mover un brazo en el aire o tronar sus dedos. La tercera es para explicar algo que es difícil de decir con palabras, tal como dar una dirección, decir como desarmar algo, o definir conceptos tales como un zig-zag. La cuarta es para reiterar el habla o añadir énfasis. La quinta indica el entusiasmo o desinterés.
Ya que McNeill y Kellerman nos han dado una visión específica de las diferencias entre gestos y sus significados y funciones, podemos decir que las personas hablan con su cuerpo deliberadamente, pero que nos hace mover de cierta forma las manos al hablar, o hacer ciertos movimientos con ciertas palabras.

En el artículo "Non-verbal Communication Across Culture" por Max S. Kirch explica que "el lenguaje no-verbal y la cultura están interrelacionados, y no se pueden separar." Las personas hablan con su cuerpo diariamente, no importando en qué cultura se han desarrollado. Se puede elegir el mensaje el cual se quiere expresar verbalmente, pero no se puede elegir los ademanes para hacerlo. Estos ya están predeterminados por la cultura del hablante y del lenguaje en sí. Pero el hablante tiene la libertad de darle "color" a su mensaje de ciertas formas tales como la paralingüística y la quinésica.

"El hombre se comunica de la forma que trabaja, juega, y se defiende él mismo" (Kirch 416). Kirch analiza una "investigación empírica" con participantes de América del norte y sur, Europeos y asiáticos, con el propósito de comparar y contrastar la comunicación no-verbal con otras culturas del Europa occidental. En la cual observa los distintos gestos y ademanes entre los participantes, pero como estos no proyectan los mismos mensajes y tienen significados diferentes entre una cultura y la otra, Kirch explica que la comunicación no-verbal difiere significativamente entre las diferentes culturas. Compara el lenguaje verbal con el no verbal; lo cual indica que si se transferiría los hábitos fonológicos de un lenguaje a otro lenguaje produce un "acento extranjero," es lo mismo que usar los hábitos de un sistema nativo no-verbal en otra cultura causa la actitud extranjera. Cuando se importan ciertos movimientos de un país a otro, la persona se siente fuera de lugar, por tanto puede ser difícilmente comprendida y aceptada.

Kirch reitera que la comunicación no-verbal es un proceso complejo que implica los elementos verbales y no-verbales, los cuales los dos están extremadamente interconectados con la cultura. Y señala que la comunicación no-verbal así como la verbal han pasado por cambios históricos, ya que muestran variaciones, como en la gramática, la puntuación, y el vocabulario. Las palabras nacen y mueren, o simplemente cambian, son intercambiadas y adoptadas por otros idiomas en diferentes culturas. Aspectos similares son observados en la comunicación no-verbal, los gestos. Muchos de ellos han cambiado sus formas y significados, asumiendo que sólo eran símbolos de burla y desprecio, pero ahora se les ha dado un nuevo significado y valor. El lenguaje corporal no es sólo un aspecto de la comunicación, si no que es un fenómeno que puede ser independiente o un apoyo al lenguaje verbal. Kirch afirma que la comunicación no-verbal no solamente comparte varias características con el lenguaje verbal, pero que los dos son mandantes complementarias de todo el proceso de interacción de ambas. La cultura es una red de la comunicación verbal y no-verbal que procesa más que el 30 al 35 por ciento del significado social de la conversación o interacción llevada por las palabras (Kirch 423).

Ya analizados estos artículos que dan una visión específica de lo que realmente es el lenguaje corporal como la comunicación más utilizada en el mundo en los diferentes idiomas y culturas; puedo hacer un enfoque en mi interés sobre la adquisición del segundo idioma. En el artículo "Functions of Nonverbal Communication in Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language” por Linda Quinn Allen asegura que la comunicación es el intercambio y negociación de información entre por los menos dos individuos a través del uso de símbolos verbales y no-verbales. Se estima que las maestras del segundo idioma emplean por lo menos el 82 por ciento de lenguaje que no es verbal. Allen explica cómo es utilizado el lenguaje corporal en la codificación, expresarse verbalmente, y en la descodificación, entender y comprender el mensaje. Hay dos maneras
de en que la comunicación no-verbal está involucrada en la decodificación del lenguaje; la primera marca las unidades en las cuales se produce la expresión, y la segunda ayuda al hablante a activar y recordar palabras, pensamientos, imágenes, e ideas a convertirse parte de la expresión. Otro aspecto ya mencionado para facilitar la expresión son los ilustradores (illustrators) mencionados en el artículo de Kellerman. Un punto más en que la comunicación no-verbal se involucra en la descodificación del lenguaje, es la contribución en la comprensión del mensaje en tres formas. La primera es intensificar la atención, la segunda es proveer contexto adicional y la tercera es facilitar a recordar. En la descodificación los ademanes contribuyen en tres etapas, la primera proveen movimiento, la segunda hacen el mensaje más intenso y la tercera proveen valor imaginario (Allen 472). Cuando una maestra le dice en un idioma extranjero al estudiante principiante que abra el libro no tendrá en mismo efecto ni compresión que si se complementa la misma expresión verbal con ademán de "abre el libro" juntando las palmas de la mano simulando un libro cerrado, y abriéndolas para reforzar la expresión y lograr que sea aprendida. Como se mencionó en el principio del ensayo con el proverbio chino

Si lo veo, lo olvido
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Resultados

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Ya que McNeill y Kellerman nos han dado una visión específica de las diferencias entre gestos y sus significados y funciones, podemos decir que las personas hablan con su cuerpo deliberadamente, pero que nos hace mover de cierta forma las manos al hablar, o hacer ciertos movimientos con ciertas palabras.

En el artículo “Non-verbal Communication Across Culture” por Max S. Kirch explica que “el lenguaje no-verbal y la cultura están interrelacionados, y no se pueden separar.” Las personas hablan con su cuerpo diariamente, no importando en que cultura se han desarrollado. Se puede elegir el mensaje el cual se quiere expresar verbalmente, pero no se puede elegir los ademanes para hacerlo. Estos ya están predeterminados por la cultura del hablante y del lenguaje en sí. Pero el hablante tiene la libertad de darle “color” a su mensaje de ciertas formas tales como la paralingüística y la quinésica.

“El hombre se comunica de la forma que trabaja, juega, y se defiende él mismo” (Kirch 416). Kirch analiza una “investigación empírica” con participantes de América del norte y sur, Europeos y asiáticos, con el propósito de comparar y contrastar la comunicación no-verbal con otras culturas del Europa occidental. En la cual observa los distintos gestos y ademanes entre los participantes, pero como estos no proyectan los mismos mensajes y tienen significados diferentes entre una cultura y la otra, Kirch explica que la comunicación no-verbal difiere significativamente entre las diferentes culturas. Compara el lenguaje verbal con el no verbal; lo cual indica que si se transfiriera los hábitos fonológicos de un lenguaje a otro lenguaje produce un “acento extranjero,” es lo mismo que usar los hábitos de un sistema nativo no-verbal en otra cultura causa la actitud extranjera. Cuando se importan ciertos movimientos de un país a otro, la persona se siente fuera de lugar, por tanto puede ser difícilmente comprendida y aceptada.

Kirch reitera que la comunicación no-verbal es un proceso complejo que implica los elementos verbales y no-verbales, los cuales los dos están extremadamente interconectados con la cultura. Y señala que la comunicación no-verbal así como la verbal han pasado por cambios históricos, ya que muestran variaciones, como en la gramática, la puntuación, y el vocabulario. Las palabras nacen y mueren, o simplemente cambian, son intercambiadas y adoptadas por otros idiomas en diferentes culturas. Aspectos similares son observados en la comunicación no-verbal, los gestos. Muchos de ellos han cambiado sus formas y significados, asumían que sólo eran símbolos de burla y desprecio, pero ahora se les ha dado un nuevo significado y valor. El lenguaje corporal no es sólo un aspecto de la comunicación, sí no que es un fenómeno que puede ser independiente o un apoyo al lenguaje verbal. Kirch afirma que la comunicación no-verbal no solamente comparte varias
características con el lenguaje verbal, pero que los dos son mandantes complementarias de todo el proceso de interacción de ambas. La cultura es una red de la comunicación verbal y no-verbal que procesa más que el 30 al 35 por ciento del significado social de la conversación o interacción llevada por las palabras (Kirch 423).

Ya analizados estos artículos que dan una visión específica de lo que realmente es el lenguaje corporal como la comunicación más utilizada en el mundo en los diferentes idiomas y culturas; puedo hacer un enfoque en mi interés sobre la adquisición del segundo idioma. En el artículo "Functions of Nonverbal Communication in Teaching and Learning a Foreign Language" por Linda Quinn Allen asegura que la comunicación es el intercambio y negociación de información entre por los menos dos individuos a través del uso de símbolos verbales y no-verbales. Se estima que las maestras del segundo idioma emplean por lo menos el 82 por cierto de lenguaje que no es verbal.

Allen explica cómo es utilizado el lenguaje corporal en la codificación, expresarse verbalmente, y en la descodificación, entender y comprender el mensaje. Hay dos maneras de en que la comunicación no-verbal está involucrada en la decodificación del lenguaje; la primera marca las unidades en las cuales se produce la expresión, y la segunda ayuda al hablante a activar y recordar palabras, pensamientos, imágenes, e ideas a convertirse parte de la expresión. Otro aspecto ya mencionado para facilitar la expresión son los ilustradores (illustrators) mencionados en el artículo de Kellerman. Un punto más en que la comunicación no-verbal se involucra en la descodificación del lenguaje, es la contribución en la comprensión del mensaje en tres formas. La primera es intensificar la atención, la segunda es proveer contexto adicional y la tercera es facilitar a recordar. En la descodificación los ademanes contribuyen en tres etapas, la primera proveen movimiento, la segunda hacen el mensaje más intenso y la tercera proveen valor imaginario (Allen 472).

Cuando una maestra le dice en un idioma extranjero al estudiante principiante que *abre el libro* no tendrá en mismo efecto ni compresión que si se complementa la misma expresión verbal con ademán de “abre el libro” juntando las palmas de la mano simulando un libro cerrado, y abriéndolas para reforzar la expresión y lograr que sea aprendida. Como se mencionó en el principio del ensayo con el proverbio chino

*Sí lo veo, lo olvido*
*Sí lo digo, lo recuerdo*
*Sí lo hago, lo comprendo…*

**Análisis**

El lenguaje no-verbal refuerza, contribuye y ayuda a dar el mensaje que el comunicador quiere expresar, al mismo tiempo mejora el entendimiento de dicho mensaje para que éste sea comprendido y procesado por el receptor. La comunicación no-verbal es muy útil en la adquisición de un lenguaje extranjero, maestros lo están utilizando cada día más y se están apoyando en ello para una completa adquisición del segundo idioma. “Si el bilingüismo es la meta de los maestros del idioma extranjero, el estudiante debe ser completamente bilingüe, lo cual implica que él debe ser bi-quínésico.”

**Conclusiones**

El lenguaje no-verbal refuerza, contribuye y ayuda a dar el mensaje que el comunicador quiere expresar, al mismo tiempo mejora el entendimiento de dicho mensaje para que éste sea comprendido y procesado por el receptor. La comunicación no-verbal es muy útil en la adquisición de un lenguaje extranjero, maestros lo están utilizando cada día más y se están...
apoyando en ello para una completa adquisición del segundo idioma. "Si el bilingüismo es la meta de los maestros del idioma extranjero, el estudiante debe ser completamente bilingüe, lo cual implica que él debe ser bi-quínésico." El lenguaje no-verbal refuerza, contribuye y ayuda a dar el mensaje que el comunicador quiere expresar, al mismo tiempo mejora el entendimiento de dicho mensaje para que éste sea comprendido y procesado por el receptor. La comunicación no-verbal es muy útil en la adquisición del segundo idioma extranjero, maestros lo están utilizando cada día más y se están apoyando en ello para una completa adquisición del segundo idioma. "Si el bilingüismo es la meta de los maestros del idioma extranjero, el estudiante debe ser completamente bilingüe, lo cual implica que él debe ser bi-quínésico."

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Referencias


An Intra Denominational, Cross-Linguistic Comparison of a Pentecostal Service in English and Spanish

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Abstract

This paper reports on the cross-linguistic comparison of two Pentecostal services; one in English and one in Spanish, how the congregants responded to each sermon, whether the rate of speech is similar, and whether or not these factors are linked culturally or religiously. Recordings were made from each sermon in order to collect, study and calculate data that would help measure the overall speech rate and the congregant’s responses from the speeches. The studies showed that the Spanish speaking pastor spoke at a much faster rate than the English speaking pastor throughout the duration of the sermons. The result of this study indicates that there is a correlation between the rates of speech, how the congregants responded to the sermons, and how both are connected culturally and not religiously.
Sinopsis

Este papel reporta sobre las comparaciones lingüísticas de dos cultos Pentecostal; uno en español y uno en inglés para comparar la rapidez en cada sermón, de que modo respondió la congregación, y si la rapidez del sermón tiene que ver con la cultura o la religión. En cada sermón grave las predicaciones para poder estudiar y anotar los datos para poder calcular la rapidez de discurso y como respondió la congregación. Los resultados indicaron que la predicación en español fue más rápida que la de inglés y también indica que hay correlación entre la rapidez del lenguaje, el modo y la forma e) que los miembros de la congregación respondieron y la conexión entre (ambos) los dos es cultural y no por la religión.

Introducción

A commonly held belief among English speakers is that Spanish speakers discourse at a rapid pace. Based on an experience I had several years ago during a Pentecostal service in Guatemala, the preacher, in my opinion, had delivered his message to hundreds of people at an astonishing speed and volume. The congregants harked as the pastor preached. When he struck a cord, the congregants appeared to jump out of their seats as they shouted in unison the words “Amen”, “Praise the Lord” and “Hallelujah” in a similar passionate tone that corresponded to the pastor’s delivery of his sermon. I wondered; is this dramatic and passionate environment related to culture or religion?

The Pentecostal church was established near the turn of the last century in 1914, in Hot Springs, Arkansas right after a rapid revival movement. Pentecostal missionaries were sent out all over the world reaching over twenty-five nations in two years. According to Ted G. Jelen from his book, Religion and Politics in Comparative Perspective, Pentecostal churches are growing at a rate of about twenty million new members per year. Their missionaries have reached two-hundred ten nations with a range of two hundred fifty million to five hundred million evangelicals. The United States alone has 2.75 million evangelicals, but what’s more amazing is that Central America, South America, and Asia are seeing massive growth. For example, Guatemala has approximately 3 million evangelicals with the largest, strongest, and fastest growing Pentecostalism including approximately two hundred to three hundred evangelical denominations. The dramatic increase in the number of churches and members since the late 1970’s shows parallels with the conflicts and economic crises in their country. Jelen (page 227) also finds that, “these evangelicals come from the poorest sectors of society, both urban and rural areas.”

During a service the congregants practice participatory worship with a lot of singing, testifying, and speaking in tongues. When a congregant concurs with the message that the preacher is conveying it is acknowledged by saying “Amen”, “Hallelujah”, “Praise the Lord” or “Gloria A Dios”.

In Hebrew, Amen comes from the same root as the word “believe”. This root expresses trustworthiness and faithfulness. An exclamation of the Hebrew word Hallelujah is used to express praise, joy, or gratitude to the Lord. Finally, the direct translation to the word “Gloria a Dios” is Praise the Lord. The congregants
use this form of expression to indicate their approval, agreement with their belief and faithfulness towards God.

During any worship service there is a control strategy implemented during a speech that can impact how the congregants will respond to the sermon. There could be a speech where the words are articulated slowly with deliberate pauses. This allows the congregants to think to themselves and analyze what the pastor is trying to convey. There could also be a speech where the words are sped up, the numbers of syllables in the phrase increase, and the pauses are far and few between. This strategy gives the congregants the sensation of making a quick decision of agreement with the message. The article, Time-Compressed Speech in Radio Advertising\(^1\) from the Journal of Marketing found that a slow presentation could have results of it being boring and allowing other distractive thoughts enter the listeners mind. Conversely, if the presentation was too fast, the comprehension may become difficult for the listener. Therefore, the rate of speech needs to be calculated in a way that it can impact the listener, in this case, the congregants of the Pentecostal church. Studies have also shown that 120 words per minute are considered to be a low conversational rate and 150 words per minute is considered normal conversational rate.

The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyze the cross-linguistic sermons of both English and Spanish Pentecostal services, how the congregants responded to their speeches and whether these two important elements are driven by the religion or culture.

**Method**

In order to conduct this research I visited two Pentecostal churches. The first was Mission Christiana Elym del El Salvador, in San Francisco, CA where the service was conducted in Spanish. The second was Trinity Community Church, in San Rafael, CA where the service was conducted in English. At each church I approached the pastors and asked them for permission to record their sermon. Other than the fact that I was doing a study on linguistics, no additional information was given to the pastors in order to preserve their authentic speech.

Each sermon was recorded on a digital voice recorder which was placed up front near the podium where the pastors spoke. I found that placing the voice recorder up front allowed the best advantage in order to record a clear sermon with plenty of volume, although I did find that the digital voice recorder did capture some distortion at times during the Spanish sermon when the pastor spoke with such high volume and velocity. There were various parts of the sermon that the captured sound was distorted, but fortunately the information that was needed was not spoiled nor did it diminish the ability to gather the data. The sermons were thirty minutes long and began with a prayer and ended with a prayer, however my analysis started as soon as the Pastors began speaking. Once the recordings were collected, I listened to each sermon and recorded my impressions or “big picture” of both sermons to see what stood out the most from the congregation, how the preacher used indirect speech, and the overall tone,

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\(^1\) In 2007, spending on advertising was estimated at more than $150 billion in the United States.
volume, and delivery of the sermon. Taking a close look at the entire sermon allowed me to then realize how to approach and analyze the sermon in more thorough detail. Once I reviewed both sermons, my approach after was to follow a pattern to capture the rate of speech. The pattern consisted of taking one minute samples for every five minute increments and tallying each word spoken. I came upon some difficulties when tallying the Spanish speaking sermon due to the speed in which the pastor spoke and the numbers of syllable per phrase. In order to capture more concise data from his speech, I repeated each one minute portion of the sermon multiple times and took the average count. The most difficult segments were at the 20 minute, 25 minute, and the 30 minute mark for each one of those segments I recounted the one minute portions three times and took the average count. Finally, I listened to both sermons in their entirety and counted how often the words “Amen”, “Hallelujah” were shouted by both Spanish and English speaking congregants, and only counted “Gloria a Dios” from the Spanish speaking congregants. The English speaking congregants never said “Praise the Lord”, so I omitted that portion in my charts. Capturing these words gave me a clear and concise knowledge of how the sermon affected the congregants and how they responded to the sermon.

Results

Two scores were recorded for my study; Rate of speech and how the stylistics of the sermon correlates with congregant actions. Once each sermon was tallied the data was combined to create the following comparison:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>English Words</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Spanish Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Words/Minute spoken in English & Spanish
From this chart a graph was created to see the pattern the data made.

Scatter Plot Graph 1. Words per minute in English and Spanish

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Amen</th>
<th>Hallelujah</th>
<th>Gloria a Dios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. How stylistics corresponds to the congregants

Stylistics: How the sermon correlates with the congregant actions
Bar Graph 1

Discussion

This study focuses primarily on the rate of speech, how the sermon correlates with the congregant actions, and whether or not they relate to culture or religion. The data above gives a breakdown of how fast each pastor spoke throughout the thirty minute sermon and how the congregants responded to their speech. The data suggests that the upward progression in both the English and Spanish sermons during the first ten minutes is accelerated in a swift manner, but overall the pattern shows that both rate of speech is dramatically different throughout the sermon. As expected, the English speaking pastor spoke at a much lower rate of speech in comparison to the Spanish speaking pastor. The English speaking pastor spoke in a very clear manner. His words were precise and well annunciated and in a soft spoken manner. The Spanish speaking pastor, on the other hand spoke with such velocity which would require the congregation to be alert and in tune of what he was going to say next. His words flew out of his mouth with impressing great velocity where at times some words seem to blend with other words.

The English speaking pastor’s rate of speech increased by 44% between the one minute mark and the ten minute mark and then decreased by 33% until he hit the fifteen minute mark and then hovered at that rate of speech throughout the rest of the sermon until he concluded. Towards the end of his speech he once again exhibits volatile increase of his rate of speech by 39% in order to conclude on a positive up-swing. An interesting observation that I made was that the pastor spoke at his lowest rate of speech right in the middle of his sermon and was lower than when he began his sermon.

The Spanish speaking pastor began his sermon by reading from the Bible while the congregants followed along. As soon as he finished the slow scripture reading, the pastor’s amplified rate of speech dramatically increased by 84% in the first ten minutes of his sermon as if someone infused him with adrenaline. From the first ten minutes of his speech and the fifteen minutes mark, his rate of speech declined by only 19%. He continues to descend throughout the duration of his speech until the last five minutes of his speech where it only shifts up by -1%.

Overall, when comparing both services, the English rate of speech is much slower than the Spanish rate of speech. It is noteworthy that when the Spanish speaking pastor read, he read at his lowest rate throughout the entire sermon, in contrast, when the English speaking pastor read from the Bible he read at his

\[2\text{ Luke 19:1-10}\\3\text{ Romans 4:1-5 &18}\\
fastest rate (137 words per minute). I wondered, but unfortunately time didn’t allow me to investigate further, why their reading rate was also different from one another. One theory is that the Spanish speaking pastor read at a low rate was to successfully convey the message from the scripture, another is that he took into consideration the level of literacy within the congregation, or possibly that he himself doesn’t have the ability to read at a faster rate. Another interesting aspect of my results was that both pastors began their preaching at about the same rate and they never came close in rate of speech until the end of the sermon. At this point, the English speaking pastor ended his speech at 115 words per minute and the Spanish speaking pastor ended his speech at 113 words per minute. Finally, the most interesting part of the results about both sermons was that they both ended on a positive note than when the first started, but the English speaking pastor finished in a more dramatic and a more positive up-swing in comparison to the Spanish speaking pastor.

The results on the congregant actions towards each sermon were not surprising, but definitely very impressive. The Spanish speaking preacher successfully conveyed his message in the manner intended. As his speech ramped up and stayed at a fast pace throughout the sermon, the congregants responded to his message with passionate shouts of “Amen” (78 times), “Hallelujah” (16 times), and “Gloria a Dios” (6 times). The intensity with which the congregants shouted out these words was emphatic, powerful, exaggerated and overwhelming. There were moments when the congregants in unison would say “Amen” and it would drown the preacher’s voice. Examples of what prompted the congregants to say “Amen” were the following. The pastor would say, “God will save you!” and in unison the congregants would say “AMEN”. The pastor said, “You need God!” and in unison the congregants would say, “AMEN”. The pastor said, “God will help you!” and the congregants in unison would say “AMEN”. The pastor said, “You will find Jesus here in this church.” “Don’t look anywhere else, he is here!” and everyone responded with “AMEN”. On the other hand, the style of the English sermon was the complete opposite. The English speaking pastor’s stylistic speech utilized silence intentionally, used a soft-spoken voice and paused multiple times throughout the sermon. His pauses and pace were manipulated and controlled which promoted the intended response. His sermon allowed the congregants to also pause and reflect on the meaning of his message. The English speaking pastor received only six “Amen’s” and one “Hallelujah”. These results coincides with the intensity with which the congregants shouted out these words was emphatic, powerful, exaggerated and overwhelming. There were moments when the congregants in unison would say “Amen” and it would drown the preacher’s voice. Examples of what prompted the congregants to say “Amen” were the following. The pastor would say, “God will save you!” and in unison the congregants would say “AMEN”. The pastor said, “You need God!” and in unison the congregants would say, “AMEN”. The pastor said, “God will help you!” and the congregants in unison would say “AMEN”. The pastor said, “You will find Jesus here in this church.” “Don’t look anywhere else, he is here!” and everyone responded with “AMEN”.

Conclusion

From this study the findings were surprising and several interesting aspects were discovered throughout the investigation. Although I never collected data from my

Proceedings of the 2009 SSU Undergraduate Conference on Hispanic Linguistics
experience with the Guatemalan Pentecostal church, I can strongly state that when comparing the experience of a loud, fast pace, energized religion with this study, the Spanish speaking Pentecostal services are definitely different than the English soft-spoken, subdued, Pentecostal church. It can be concluded that the controlled pace and pauses of the English sermon and the rate of speech effect the correlation between the message the Pastor conveys and how the congregants respond. These important components appear to be driven by culture and not religion. I was hoping to find that the powerful and exciting aspects of the Spanish speaking Pentecostal church would have been found at the English speaking church due to the fact that I’ve always thought ALL Pentecostal churches were dramatic. The English speaking church seemed too typical of a church without any special distinction that it was a Pentecostal denomination.

Another consideration that would make for an interesting study would be to see how different or similar the results would be if the investigation was duplicated, but comparing other religions such as: Baptist or Catholicism. I think it would be interesting to see if within the different religions the Latinos act different do to old traditions within the religions. One last question I have, why didn’t I hear anyone speak in tongue?

Acknowledgments

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Stress, pitch, and interpretation in two Spanish musical genres: a descriptive analysis

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Abstract

This research project will demonstrate prosody in both the cante jondo of Spain and Caribbean salsa and how that evokes and affects the interpretive power of the listener with any given song. “Speech and music are universal among human cultures. Both involve organized acoustic sequences…” (Patel, 2002) where pitch and stress help to shape one’s emotional understanding of music. As stated by M. Stanley Whitley, languages are regarded as falling into two rhythmic types with Spanish falling under syllable-timed. Syllable-timed languages have a rhythm ticked off by relatively even syllables, with each syllable (whether stressed or unstressed) receiving one quick beat (p. 72). We hope to describe in great detail how this “general acoustic effect” helps us understand the connection of linguistic variants and the syllable-timing attributes in conjunction with prosody. When linguistic variances, rhythmic patterns, and dialectical differences⁴ occur, the interpretation of a song can completely change from one individual to another.

Sinopsis

Este proyecto de investigación demostrará la prosodia en dos canciones, una del cante jondo de España y otra de la salsa Caribeña, y como esto evoca y afecta la interpretación del oyente de cualquier canción. “El habla y la música son universales entre todas las culturas humanas. Ambas implican organización secuencial acústica…” (Patel, 2002) donde el tono y el estrés ayudan a formar el conocimiento emocional y entendimiento de la música. Según lo expresado por M. Stanley Whitley, lenguajes son considerados entre dos tipos rítmicos, el español cayendo en la categoría de lenguaje cronometrado por sílaba. Los lenguajes cronometrados por sílabas tienen ritmos marcados por sílabas relativamente uniforme, con cada sílaba (que contiene estrés o sin estrés) recibiendo una marca rápida (p. 72). Nosotros esperamos poder describir en gran detalle como este “efecto general acústico” ayuda a comprender la conexión de los variante lingüísticos tomando en cuenta los atributos del lenguaje cronometrado por sílaba conjuntamente con la prosodia de la canción. Cuando las diferencias dialécticas, pautas rítmicas, y variantes lingüísticos ocurran en cualquier canción la interpretación puede cambiar completamente de un individuo a otro.

Introduction / Planteamiento

Not a lot of attention has been dedicated to analyzing two Spanish musical genres; however, the passionate nature and uniqueness of each genre type

⁴ Notice both song’s lyrics in Appendix.
leads us to wonder why it’s so difficult to understand their lyrics when the Spanish language is syllable-timed?

El cante jondo is a very old vocal component within flamenco. It is a raw form of Andalusian folk music dating back to the late 19th century. Cante jondo literally means “deep song”; it is the most extreme and primitive form of singing in the musical history of flamenco. As stated in Wikipedia, “the verses (coplas) are often beautiful and concise poems” which are sung in a raw emotional manner. El cante jondo fits into a category of strict rhythmic pattern called “compas” which is a Spanish word for meter and time signature in classical music theory. The “compas” is fundamental to el cante and it is considered the backbone of this musical genre. When one sings el cante jondo one must feel the rhythm in order to perform and give the song its justice (Solea, 2009).

Musicologist Hipolito Rossy states the following characteristics to the melody of this music (Rossy, 1998), which we believe is paramount in understanding this genre. First, flamenco melodies (el cante jondo) are characterized by a descending tendency known as “Greek Dorian mode”. Secondly, in many styles, such as solea (which is the style to be analyzed) the melody tends to proceed in continuous degrees of the scale. Thirdly, micro tonality: the presence of intervals smaller than the semitone. Fourthly, lack of regular rhythm, for example the melodic rhythm of the sung line is different from the metric rhythm of the accompaniment. Fifthly, most styles express sad and bitter feelings. Lastly, melodic improvisation, not strictly improvised but the singer adds his or her own variants (p. 94).

Garcia Lorca is best known to have imitated these beautiful, sad, and concise poems from the flamenco coplas. Interestingly, Garcia Lorca distinguished between the cante jondo and flamenco as stated by Edward Stanton in his book, “The Tragic Myth-Lorca and Cante Jondo”. Garcia Lorca believed they basically are different in antiquity, structure, and spirit. In Garcia Lorca’s first lecture on cante jondo he asserts the poetry of the music lacks a middle tone and that love and death constitute the two basic poles. He says “the andalusian either cries to the stars or kisses the reddish dust of his roads.” This music only flourishes in extremity such as religious or sensual ecstasy, freedom, death, guilt, much like Garcia Lorca’s poems (Stanton, 1978, p. 4).

Manuel de Fallas, a contemporary of Garcia Lorca, considered cante jondo to be an example of primitive music and the oldest in Europe; its roots probably going back to ancient India. Manuel de Fallas also states the melodies progressed by undulations of semitones. Manuel goes on to say, “the cante jondo to be an expression of primitive music, it approaches the singing of birds and the ‘natural sounds of water and the forest’”. His essential and unique elements of the cante jondo are as follows: The use of
enharmonic intervals as a modulating means; peculiar usage of a melodic field that seldom surpasses the limits of a sixth; the repeated, even obsessive, use of one note, frequently accompanied by an upper or by a lower appoggiatura; the gipsy melody rich in ornamental features, used only at certain moments to express state of relaxation or of rapture, suggested by the emotional force of the text; and finally, the shouts with which people encourage and incite the ‘cantaores’. Some elemental components of cante jondo of both Garcia Lorca and Manuel de Fallas overlap; however, the value and origins of this primal music had (has) influence in all types of music throughout the world (De Falla, 1950, p. 101).

Salsa music is a very rhythmic and infecting genre of music that creates a very enjoyable atmosphere. Many describe it as a “wave of rhythm fused with jazz.” (History of Salsa, 2009). Enslaved men, women, and children from West and Central Africa- the lands of the great nations of the Yoruba, Efik, and Bantu peoples, among others- were brought in chains to Cuba, Puerto Rico and Hispaniola (now the Dominican Republic) and Haiti in the 19th century (History of Salsa, 2009). They had an integral role in the birth of the salsa music. The 19th century slaves used salsa music, especially the percussions, as a central part of religious and social practices because religious houses and brotherhoods were allowed on the plantations. For the slaves, it was a way of entertaining and keeping up the spirits of fellow slaves. One could say that they fused together all different cultures in order to establish new traditions.

By the late nineteenth century, slavery was dying down in the Caribbean. The Spanish American war of 1898 resulted in the end of Spanish colonial rule and the emergence of the United States as the dominant imperial power in the region. With the transformation of plantation economies into agribusiness, displaced agricultural workers migrated from countryside into town, and from island to island. Blacks, whites, and “criollos” arrived in Havana, bringing the rhythms of “Rumba” and “Changui”. To San Juan they brought “Bomba” and “Seis”, and to Santo Domingo, “Merengué” and “Carabiné” (History of Salsa, 2009). Through slow progression and migration many of these sounds and cultures were brought into New York City.

All types of the above mentioned music forms and styles were brought together under one main name: Salsa. There is a much-defined structure in salsa, which includes a songlike introduction, a melodic phase, a rhythmic or percussion phase called montuno (the part with the greatest rhythmic energy) with call-and-response vocals, another melodic phase and the ending. The most important instrument in Salsa is the percussion and that is why one of the musicians is constantly playing a specific rhythm, the clave. This sound can be made with claves, cowbells, timbales and conga. The other core instruments played are the trumpets, trombones and the
bass guitar. The melodic instruments are the guitar, the piano, and others. All of these instruments, aside from the percussion, come together forming a polyrhythm. The polyrhythm is the essential part of salsa music.

The expressive function (whether pitch or stress) when focusing on the song, aims a direct expression of the speaker’s attitude toward what he is singing about (Jakobson, 1960) and this applies to most sung songs; correspondingly, our focus will be on comparing the pitch and stress of two different types of Spanish musical genres (cante jondo, salsa). As Patel pursued in his research, “Music reflects linguistic prosody.” It is linguistically known that the Spanish language is syllable-timed showing equal duration during syllables onset (2002). With the analysis of pitch and stress, we will expose rhythmic patterns and strong modality, which not only express emotions but also creates difficulty in understanding the lyrics.

**Method / Método de investigación**

Background. There have been no studies found in comparing these two musical genres therefore we have selected to conduct an in-depth analysis of the pitch and prosody with two songs from el cante jondo called “Solea al golpe” and from Salsa “Burundanga”.

Materials. We selected our music from a large catalog of song database in iTunes, which focuses on the music we needed for our analysis. In choosing our two musical genres we were inspired by two components: First, the emotional rawness of the cante jondo was captivating and alluring while salsa has the infecting rhythm and beckoning energy to spark the attention of the listener. Secondly, the music had to originate from Spain and the Caribbean.

Criteria. We chose Manuel Moneo and Celia Cruz who have been preeminent singers of their respective genres and both contemporary artist of the musical realm. Our analysis focused on the voice and prosody congruent with the lyrics of the songs. We took segments of each song, which demonstrated the crescendo of the songs.

Measurement. We downloaded Praat Software Speech Analysis to be used as the main device in the measuring of stress and pitch. We used two analysis screens, one for each song and then a more in-depth measurement of the pitch and intensity. In order to measure the pitch and intensity, we took three segment samples of each song and screen shots of the intensity in each song. Then we measured the Hertz of the songs every 2.7 seconds.

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5 The equality of syllable-timed Spanish lyrics (linguistic variant), in contrast with the pitch and stress variability of the song.
and created a graph to show the differences and even some commonalities of both songs.

Results / Resultados

Figures 1 and 2 represent the pitch points of each song in its entirety.

![Figure 1](image1.png)

**Figure 1.** Screen shot of Pitch Manipulation for cante jondo.

![Figure 2](image2.png)

**Figure 2.** Screen shot of pitch manipulation for Caribbean salsa.

We then took three segment samples from each song and measured (in Hertz) the pitch points at .5 second intervals. The segment samples were chosen specifically by where there were measurable lyrics as opposed to only instrumentals. The data is represented in the following tables and figures:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Points (in seconds)</th>
<th>Cante Jondo 1 (in Hz)</th>
<th>Salsa 1 (in Hz)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0&quot;</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.5&quot;</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&quot;</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5&quot;</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&quot;</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5&quot;</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1. Time points and measurements for first segment sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Points (in seconds)</th>
<th>Cante Jondo 2 (in Hz)</th>
<th>Salsa 2 (in Hz)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0&quot;</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.5&quot;</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&quot;</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5&quot;</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&quot;</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5&quot;</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Time points and measurements for second segment sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Points (in seconds)</th>
<th>Cante Jondo 3 (in Hz)</th>
<th>Salsa 3 (in Hz)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0&quot;</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.5&quot;</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&quot;</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5&quot;</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&quot;</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5&quot;</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>117</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Time points and measurements for third segment sample.

Figure 3. First segment sample.

Figure 4. Second segment sample.

Figure 5. Third segment sample.
Discussion / Análisis

In analyzing both songs, it was immediately obvious that the styles of singing, which are not only inherently different, but also show some commonalities juxtaposed with the syllable-timed language of Spanish, showed strong pitch variants (see figures 1 & 2). The cante jondo with its vibrating voice along with the undulation of the tone was proven on the pitch screen. With the countless overlapping pitch points it demonstrated the complexity of the linguistic rhythm found in this style of song.

As you will note in figures 1 & 2, the various large blue clustered dots that manipulate the screen represent the pitch points of the vibrating voice. In figure 1 there is an unpredictable pitch high and low without pattern, which is the organic nature of this genre of song. As in the ritual wailing of the Warao women, “singers are also free to vary the pitch contours of their sana at will. Variation creeps into the music as notes are raised or lowered a semitone or the pitch register of a voice shifts” (Warao, 1993).

On the other hand in figure 2, analyzing the Caribbean salsa, it was clear on the pitch screen how clean and unobstructed the voice came through but at a very fast pace. The pitch points were not clustered as in the cante jondo screen, they were instead following rhythmic pattern and were clearly spaced. We note the clear, clean pitch points which are ongoing in a repetitive pattern throughout the song. “When conditions are arranged artificially to pit one cue against another, pitch usually carries the day against length and loudness” (Bolinger, p.22). It is visible that this genre of song follows rhythmic norms which follow a structure intrinsic to the salsa culture.

Bolinger (1986) states the most obvious connection is that both song and stress depend on the fundamental pitch of the voice- the pitch that represents the melodic line (p.28). As demonstrated with both types of music, pitch adds to the emotional component of the song that is enriched by the tonal quality of the singers’ range capacity. In order to fully understand the connection we decided to delve deeper by measuring smaller segments and allocate the pitch points within a graph (see figures 3, 4, & 5).

The first thing we noticed were the similarities in the rhythm, they were almost congruent although different in measureable intonation. Figure 3 demonstrates the same rise in both song segments but with variability in the duration. The cante jondo drops significantly from the highest pitch at 1/5th of a second (300 hertz) to end at 2.5 seconds at the 200 hertz range. The salsa piece begins at a low of 75 hertz and finishes the segment at the higher range of 225 hertz. In figure 4, both songs begin at a higher pitch range, between 250 and 300 hertz then the pitch point’s change in opposite
range with the cante jondo dropping in range and the salsa surpassing the higher rage with which it began. In Figure 5, the cante jondo continues in the higher range (300 hertz) dropping and raising pitch quickly within 1/10th of a second, while the salsa begins at a lower pitch (125 hertz) continuing in that range for 1/10th of a second, raising pitch to the 250 hertz range. Both songs drop significantly at the 2.5 second range resulting in significant variability in pitch and stress. This variability factor in the duration and the changeability of the pitches hinders the listeners’ understanding of the lyrics by the extreme highs and lows of both songs, dialectical differences in the Spanish, and the fluctuating rhythmic patterns.

When there are dialectical differences, rhythmic patterns and linguistic variances, the interpretation of the song can completely change from one individual to another. Syllable-timed languages, such as Spanish, have a rhythm that is ticked off in relatively even syllables unlike the rhythm variability in both songs, Caribbean salsa and cante jondo. By measuring the pitch and stress of these two songs we agree that interpretation of the song will vary due to the extremes of the rhythmic pattern. In Mr. Patel’s article on Making Psycholinguistics Musical, he claims “that music and language rely on shared, limited processing resources that activate separable syntactic representation (Patel, 2009). We believe that Mr. Patel is correct in his claim due to the fact that each individual will process different syntactic interpretations from any given song based on the variations in the music in conjunction with the lyrics regardless of whether the language is syllable-timed.

Conclusion / Conclusiones

We found are research to be inconclusive. This project would have had more impact if we had noted the lyrics along with the pitch screens so that it would have been more visual to the interested.

Acknowledgments / Agradecimientos (optional)

We would like to thank Professor Reeder for his guidance on the usage of the speech analysis software Praat.

References / Referencias

Cruz, Celia, Colón, Willie. 1977. Burundanga. Only they could have made this album [CD]. New York: Emusica Records, LLC.
Stress, pitch, and interpretation


Appendix / Apéndice

SOLEA AL GOLPE
Fui piera y perdi me centro
Y me arrojaron al mar
Y al cabo de tanto tiempo
Mi centro vine a encontrar

Están tocando a arrebato
Las campanas del olvio
Venir a apagar este fuego
Que esta gitana ha encendió

Por lo que voy yo mirando
Piera yo no he tiraito
Poquito me esta faltando

Te quisiera preguntar
Si cuando me ves te alegras
O te sirve de pesar.
BURUNDANGA
Songo le dio a borondongo
Borondongo le dio a Bernab
Bernab le pego a fuchilanga le hecho a burundanga
Les hinchan los pies

Monina

Songo le dio a borondongo
Borondngo e dio a Bernab
Bernabé le pego a fuchilanga le hecho a burundanga
Les hinchan los pies

Abambele practica el amor
Defiende a tus hermanos
Por que entre hermanos se vive mejor

Abambele practica el amor
Defiende a tus hermanos
Por que entre hermanos se vive mejor

Y nos sigue

Songo le dio a borondongo
Borondongo le dio a Bernab
Bernab le pego a fuchilanga le hecho a burundanga
Les hinchan los pies

Monina

Songo le dio a borondongo
Borondngo e dio a Bernab
Bernabé le pego a fuchilanga le hecho a burundanga
Les hinchan los pies

Por que fue que songo le dio a borondongo
Por que borondongo le dio a Bernab
Por que borondongo le dio a Bernab
Por que Bernabé le pego a fuchilanga
Por que Bernabé le pego a fuchilanga
Por que fuchilanga le hecho a burundanga
Por que fuchilanga le hecho a burundanga
Por que burundanga le hinchan los pies

Hay que lio burundanga!
La lengua materna: L1 maintenance efforts of a Mexican immigrant mother

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Sonoma State University
Abstract

The concepts that form the foundation of this investigation include language maintenance and shift, the pivotal role of second generation immigrants and the idea of women as cultural torchbearers. Our specific goal is to understand the contribution of the mother in the L1 maintenance of second generation Mexican immigrant children. In order to get an in-depth look at this issue, we conducted a case study in which we selected, interviewed, and observed a local family with five school-age children. We found that, although the mother was not cognizant of being the main inspiration and initiator of L1 retention for her children, due to the significant time she spends with her children and the efforts that she makes on their behalf, she is, in fact, enacting that role.

Sinopsis

Los conceptos que forman la base de esta investigación incluyen el mantenimiento y evolución del idioma, el papel crucial que toman los inmigrantes de segunda generación y la idea de que las mujeres imparten la cultura a la próxima generación. Nuestra propuesta específica es comprender la contribución de la madre en el mantenimiento de la lengua nativa de sus hijos inmigrantes de segunda generación. Para profundizarnos en esta investigación, elaboramos un caso práctico en el que elegimos, entrevistamos y observamos una familia de la comunidad con cinco niños de edad escolar. Nosotras hallamos que aunque la madre no estaba consciente de ser la inspiración principal e iniciadora de la sobrevivencia de la lengua de sus hijos, por las muchas horas que pasa con sus hijos y los esfuerzos que hace por ellos, ella, en efecto, sí toma ese papel.

Introduction

The question that this research seeks to address is: What is the role of the mother in the L1 maintenance of second generation Mexican immigrant children? In exploring this issue, it is important to understand the larger theoretical context of what we are investigating. The core concepts that have provided a framework for our study are language maintenance and shift, the pivotal role of second generation immigrants, and the idea of women as cultural torchbearers.

Language maintenance and shift

“A growing body of evidence suggests that the majority of the approximately 6,500 languages that exist in the world today will be extinct by the end of the 21st century.” Moreover, “Studies of language maintenance and shift have the potential to contribute to our understanding of linguistic processes and, more generally, of social structure.” (Schecter & Bayley 2002, p.8). Another report on language maintenance among immigrants states, “...the United States is a veritable cemetery of foreign languages, in that knowledge of the mother tongues of hundreds of immigrant groups has rarely lasted past the third generation. In no other country...studied has the process of language assimilation and the shift to
monolingualism been so swift.” (Portes & Hao 1998, p.269). These affirmations project the importance of enacting and understanding language maintenance. Our being able to look in-depth at a slice of this issue allows us to contribute to the growing body of research in this area.

Considering that “immigrant bilingualism in the U.S. has traditionally been a transitory phenomenon” (Schecter & Bayley 2002, p.9), maintenance efforts have historically either not been made or not been successful. A possible explanation for the former could be the pro-assimilation mentality that is generally fomented by the U.S. host society. Parents often put priority on their children mastering the host language (English) over maintaining their mother tongue because it is seen as the only way to secure a viably stable future for their children. Families, along with the educational systems, shape the language development of their children. Given their central role in the process, many studies have been conducted as to how the family contributes to language maintenance and shift among immigrant children, including the following: Fillmore, 1991; Guardado, 2006; Kouritzin, 2000; Li, 1999; Pauwels, 2005; Pease-Alvarez, 1993; Schecter and Bayley, 2002; Schwartz, 2008; Tannenbaum, 2003; Tannenbaum, 2005.

Second generation immigrants

A study conducted by Portes and Zhou (1993) shows that in households composed of 1st generation immigrant parents and 2nd generation children, the L1 is the language spoken at home 66.4% of the time, whereas in the households of 3rd generation children, that figure drops to 5.1%. Portes and Zhou (1993, p. 79) note that “Fishman (1966) and Veltman (1983) described the structure of this linguistic shift as a three-generation process. That is, the immigrant generation learns as much English as it can but speaks the mother tongue at home; the second generation may speak the mother tongue at home but shifts to unaccented English at school and in the workplace; by the third generation, English becomes the home language, and effective knowledge of the parental tongue disappears.” These findings show just how pivotal second generation immigrants are as a demographic. As such, it is important to appreciate and understand the different facets of their collective experience, one of which (language) we delve into in this investigation.

Women as cultural torchbearers

One study of language maintenance among immigrant families in California reports that 83.2% of the families studied identified the mother as the primary caretaker. (Fillmore 1991). Another study avers, “Women’s carework is central to the practice of culturally appropriate roles that serve to demarcate ethnic boundaries and operate as ballast against the potential onslaught of competing values that threaten transnational communities with dissolution” (Spitzer 2003, p.268). So, given that women comprise a large majority of the primary caretakers in certain immigrant communities and that the carework done on their part is important in the impartment of cultural identifiers, such as language, it is fair to say that many immigrant women act as cultural torchbearers in a familial context. An investigation that focuses specifically on Asian Indian immigrant women communicates similar assertions about that demographic. The report states,
“Asian Indian immigrant women in their daily lives are cast in traditional roles and encouraged (or forced) to become the ‘cultural torchbearers,’ emblems of what constitutes authentic ‘Indian-ness’ in diaspora. It is the icon of the perfect Indian woman, preserving culture in the form of religion, language, dress, food, and childrearing, which upholds community integrity” (Adams 2008, p.117). Inevitably, similarities are going to be expressed throughout immigrant communities of different ethnic backgrounds because many of them face similar challenges in the host society.

Method

Our methodology for this case study was borrowed primarily from a book written by Sandra R. Schecter and Robert Bayley (2002). A key difference, however, between their study and ours is that they undertook eight in-depth case studies of Mexican immigrant families living in both Texas and California to inform their analysis, whereas, we focused on a single family living in Northern California. Given this difference, we did not take a compare and contrast approach, but rather ascertained a narrative of our case family and, then, identified and analyzed the emergent themes within that narrative. An additional distinction between Schecter and Bayley’s study and our own is that while we examined specifically how the mother, as the primary caregiver, affects the L1 maintenance of her children, their study took a more holistic look at the relationship between family and language maintenance.

After establishing our methodological foundation, we selected our case family and began implementing our data collecting techniques. We chose a Mexican immigrant family comprised of first generation parents and 2nd generation children with one child falling in the age group of a fourth to sixth grader. Schecter and Bayley explain that this bracket is most appropriate for a study of this nature due to the fact that at that age, “…those who have been in bilingual classes are usually transitioned to all-English classes” (Schecter & Bayley 2002, p.16). This makes home language policy even more important to the maintenance of an L1 other than English.

In order to inform our narrative of the family, we selected two strategies: observation and interview. We performed three observation sessions (ranging from 2-6 hours each, totaling 14 hours) at their home: one on a weekday morning, one on a weekday evening and one on a weekend afternoon, in order to understand their routine and how different times and situations could act as variables in their language use. We interviewed the mother and the two eldest children for background information about the family, as well as to understand any salient language attitudes that they may possess. We were able to adapt our interview questions from those supplied in the appendix of a similar study by Pease-Alvarez (1993). (The questions that we used can be viewed in Appendix B of this document.)

We also asked the children to provide narrations in both English and Spanish of wordless picture books, as a way to better understand their bilingual language abilities. The books that we used were Frog, where are you?, and, A Boy, a Dog, and a Frog by Mercer Mayer. As suggested by Schecter and Bayley (2002), we had the
children narrate one book in one language and the other book in the second language, so as not to appear to be testing them. After recording the children’s narrations, using a Sony microcassette recorder M-470, we then analyzed the recordings to identify the syntactical and morphological complexities displayed in them.

Case Narrative

Fernando and Aurora Salazar and their five children (Eduardo age 14, Manuel age 13, Juan age 11, Adilene age 8, and Tyler age 6) live in a small rural home on a Northern California vineyard located in a community with a strong Latino presence. Fernando is a full-time field worker and Aurora spends her days caring for the family and home. They first immigrated to the United States from Central Mexico in 1994, giving birth to Eduardo, their first child, a year later, and then Manuel. They resided in California until 1997 when they returned to Mexico, where they gave birth to Juan, their third child. They returned to the United States two years after that, where their two youngest children were born. Fernando and Aurora are both Spanish monolinguals that possess receptive (listening and reading) and productive (speaking and writing) oracy and literacy skills. All the children are able to communicate in both English and Spanish, although some possess more proficiency in Spanish than others. The children often have the responsibility of interpreting, translating documents, and answering the telephone for their parents. The children also play a major role in helping each other with schoolwork, something their parents are unable to do as the children attend English-only schools. They have all been, at one time or another, in ESL classes but have since been transitioned out. The mom spends much of her time with her children. She makes conscious efforts to help them maintain their Spanish. She has stipulated that the children speak Spanish only when in the kitchen or living room, unless they are occupied with homework or other tasks that would require them to use English. The kitchen ends up being the most Spanish dominant room in the home because the living room ends up being a common site for homework completion, which is done exclusively in English. Other than insisting they speak Spanish in the common areas of their home, she also reads stories to them in Spanish, encourages them to communicate with their family members in Mexico, and includes them in religious, cultural and community traditions.

In order to determine the typicality or atypicality of our case family, in comparison to other immigrant families living in California, we referred to data found in a study entitled, “When learning a second language means losing the first” (Fillmore 1991) that investigates language maintenance and shift among immigrant families living in California. From that report we were able to establish that our case family is atypical only in family size (a minority of 15.7% of the families studied had 5 or more children in the family). Otherwise, the family we studied possesses traits comparable to the majority of families highlighted in the aforementioned study. They are a “complete” family unit that characterizes the father as the “head of the household” (along with 75% of the families in the Fillmore article), their mother acts as the primary caregiver (along with 83.2% of the families in the Fillmore

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6 All names in the case study have been changed to protect the anonymity of the participants.
article), and they have resided in the United States for over 10 years now (along with 54.5% of the families in the Fillmore study).

We developed the concept of a language map in order to express the distribution of language use throughout the daily lives of the children. The lives of bilinguals are commonly divided into different domains. The map that we created reflects the primary domains of the children in our case family and it shows that the home domain is the most complex language environment present in their world. (This figure can be viewed in Appendix A of this document.)

**Emergent Themes**

In interpreting and analyzing the pertinent information present in the case study results, we were able to identify four salient themes that we used to inform our critical findings: intergenerational communication, language attitudes, the role of education, and cultural identity.

**Intergenerational Communication**

“...adult immigrants acculturate at a rate that is much slower than that of their children, a difference that leads to profound intergenerational conflicts. In turn, these conflicts are aggravated by parental efforts to gain control over their children. Eventually children can move even farther in the direction of rejecting parental expectations.” (Vega 1990, pp.1020-1021). This phenomenon seemed to manifest itself the most for Eduardo, the eldest child in family. Throughout all of our observation sessions, he and his mother rarely communicated with one another. In order to avoid complying with his mother’s stipulation that the common areas of the house be Spanish only environments, he spent most of his time at home in his room. In his room, he spent time watching English television, listening to music with English lyrics and speaking to friends on the phone in English. We also noticed a sense of resentment when his mother would ask him to perform translation or interpretation tasks for her. He expressed aggravation and a sense of being completely sick of having to be the one to play that role. As the eldest child, Eduardo was the first to be “drafted” into carrying out the unsolicited duties of language liaison between his parents and the English speaking world. His age, relative to the rest of his siblings, also meant that he was the first of his family to transition from the home, where he spoke only Spanish, to school, where he was expected to become English-dominant quickly in order to function in his English-only classes. In turn, when he was in his first year or two of learning English, he had no one to converse with in English once the school day ended. Additionally, being that he has always been more advanced in school than his siblings (due to his age), he also has never had the opportunity to seek homework help from anyone in his family. This could be another source of frustration for him and could explain some of his projected resentment toward his mother.

A situation regarding all of the children that we observed frequently was the struggle that the mother had when they said something in English and she could not understand them. Often, she then attempted to ask one of them what the other had said, but the answer was not always an accurate interpretation, due to the child not wanting to share something private with the mother. At this point, the mother generally relinquished
control of the situation and could not, no matter what she did, regain it. On the other hand, we also observed the mother understanding more English than she led the children to believe. It is probable that she did this so that one child was not forced to reveal what a sibling had just said, which might have caused an unpleasant situation. This is just one example of the defeat and hopelessness she displayed when trying to communicate with her children and understand what was going on in their lives.

Language Attitudes

Spanish maintenance was expressed as ideal in the Salazar home, especially because speaking the heritage language is the only way that the children can communicate with their parents and the remainder of their family that still lives in Mexico. L1 maintenance is also crucial because the parents have learned to rely, to an extent, on their children’s ability to translate for them. The mother’s attitude toward English was that she will never be able to speak it well. She has, at several points in her life here in the United States, attended school for Spanish speakers wanting to learn English, but was not able to finish the courses. This really discouraged her because she observed that her children were able to pick up English like “esponjas” (sponges), while she found it nothing but a struggle. In some ways, the mother not having learned English may have benefitted the children. If she had pursued her English studies beyond a certain point, it is possible that the learning process may have ultimately limited the L1 maintenance for both her and her children because, for example, she may have wanted to practice speaking English with her children. Although she did not succeed with her efforts at learning English and, in turn, expressed feeling uncomfortable with the language, she also expressed the belief that her children are going to greatly benefit from learning it. The following is an excerpt of the interview that we had with Aurora, the mother:

Interviewer: ¿Piensa que un idioma es más importante que el otro? ¿Qué cree que su hijo/a piensa? ¿Ellos piensan que un idioma es más importante que el otro? (Do you feel that one language is more important than the other? What do you think your son/daughter thinks? Do they think one language is more important than the other?)

La madre: Yo pienso que no. Yo pienso que es la misma importancia. Pero aquí, es difícil no más usar un lenguaje. Con el inglés puedes agarrar más de los trabajos buenos y siento que puedes ir más allá. Yo pienso que ellos también piensan igual. Yo pienso que los dos son importantes porque aquí conmigo en la casa es español y afuera en la escuela ellos usan inglés. También cuando habla p’a ca mi mamá, la abuela de ellos, para ellos es importante poder comunicar con ella. (I don’t think so. I think that they have the same importance. But here, it’s difficult to use only one language. With English, you can get more of the good jobs and you can go further. I think they feel the same way because here with me at the house it’s Spanish and outside of the house at school it’s English. Also, when my mom calls over here, their grandmother, for them it’s important to be able to communicate with her.)

Keeping their Spanish was seen as the only way that the children will ever be able to communicate with their family, but English was also deemed a necessary ability. When asked, none of the children thought that one language was more imperative than the other. Instead, they believed that the two were used for separate yet
equally important parts of their life. English dominance was seen as key to upward mobility in our society; however, bilingualism was also recognized as a positive and marketable trait.

**Role of Education**

“Institutional support for the use of a nondominant language can often be mere tokenism if the social and economic conditions fostering language maintenance are not present. Support of transitional programs, or of Spanish as simply a supplemental language, paves the way for language shift and eventual language loss. As long as the dominant society preserves significant function, solely for English, Spanish will primarily be the *home* language of first generation and sometimes second generation persons of Spanish origin.” (Sánchez, 1994, p.57)

The lives of the children are organized around their schooling. In an English only context, this can have profound effects on the L1 maintenance of immigrant children. In the children’s school, when they participated in ESL classes, the focus was to move past the native language and to transition to English as quickly as possible. This reflects the kind of tokenism to which Sanchez refers, in which the school asserts that it is providing accommodations to students with an L1 other than English but it does so with a motive of transforming these students into English dominant speakers. Sánchez suggests that, in order to make best use of the cognitive development of the student, a better approach would be to ease them into diverse concepts using the language they are most comfortable with, a situation where Spanish and English are both acceptable and available classroom languages.

These effects can most conspicuously be seen with Juanito, the middle child, who demonstrated the most L1 loss. Juanito’s lack of abilities in Spanish could be the result of multiple contributing factors. Perhaps the most obvious is that he was the only one of all five Salazar children to attend preschool here in the United States and, as such, he was exposed to English only schooling at a younger age than any of his siblings. Another more subtle influence could be that, on some level, he may feel the need to counterbalance and compensate for being the only one of his siblings to have been born in Mexico. As a California public school student, Juanito is directly exposed to an educational system that reflects a biased language ideology on the part of U.S. society. It is possible that Juanito could have, even inadvertently, been conditioned to feel as though being a foreign-born child who also speaks his mother tongue well would set him apart from even his siblings in a negative way.

**Cultural Identity**

The concept of transnationality relates to the Salazar family through and through. Es como si vivieran con un pie en cada país. *(It is as if they live with one foot in each country.)* Language is an enormously significant element of cultural identity.

The following is an excerpt of the interview that we had with Aurora, the mother:
Interviewer: ¿Entonces Ud. piensa regresar a México? (So you believe you will return to Mexico?)

The Mother: Sí, claro. México es nuestro corazón, respeto mucho a los Estados Unidos pero cuando llegue el día que mis hijos se casen y ya no me necesitan, yo me regreso pa’alla con mi esposo. Ha sido muy difícil para mí acostumbrarme a la cultura de aquí. Quería darles a mis hijos más oportunidades y por eso nos venimos, y eso es lo que hicimos. (Yes, of course. Mexico is our heart. I respect the United States a lot but when the day comes that my children are married and they do not need me anymore, I am going back to Mexico with my husband. It has been very hard for me to accustom myself to the culture here. I wanted to give my children more opportunities and because of this we came, and that’s what we did.)

The mother steadfastly believes that Mexico is where she and her husband belong. We discussed extensively with her about how she felt like she didn’t fit in here in the United States. She expressed immense appreciation for the presence of a Spanish-speaking community in this area but, at the same time, realized that she yearned to be able to go anywhere and speak Spanish and be able to relate to anyone around her with her native language. She articulated a desire to infuse a sense of Mexican cultural awareness in her children because, as they grow up in the United States, she does not want them to forget their ancestral past. Additionally, maintaining Spanish upholds their relationships with loved ones in Mexico.

Religion is a topic that the Salazar family can always connect to their roots. Religious traditions and ceremonies, present throughout the entire ontogeny, provide a backdrop for the children to connect to their Spanish-speaking community and culture. Each Sunday, the Salazars attend a Spanish service at their local church. Additionally, the mother insists that her children participate in church activities, such as bible study, in Spanish. All in all, it is an atmosphere that encourages the use of their Spanish and helps them to know that, although they are far away from Mexico, they are listening to the same scripture that is heard by their family in Mexico. With this commonality, they reported that they feel a sense of togetherness.

Conclusion

The most significant element of our findings is that the mother, as the primary caretaker, has the potential to be the principal inspiration for and initiator of the L1 maintenance of her children. Given a mother’s crucial capacity for contribution and influence, examining her efforts provides us the opportunity to contribute important findings to the field of sociolinguistics. Furthermore, “…the increasingly global economy has expanded the demand in the United States for personnel who can speak more than one language. It is ironic that many Americans spend long years in school to satisfy this demand by acquiring the very languages that the children of immigrants are pressured to forget.” (Portes & Hao 1998, p.270). Perhaps with a broader understanding of language maintenance and shift among immigrant children, this perplexing irony can be remedied. Something quite noteworthy that we observed in our case study was the way that the mother...
tongue enriched the lives of the children. They and others like them will be able to take advantage of that and, as they grow, will be able to contribute it to the society around them.

We believe that this topic would benefit from further studies that are more longitudinal and comparative in nature and encourage others to undertake such an endeavor. We would be happy to provide any support or answer questions for any interested researchers.

**Acknowledgments**

We thank first and foremost the Salazar family for opening up their family and home to us. Secondly, we are immensely grateful to Dr. Jeffrey Reeder for being our enthusiastic advisor throughout the evolution of this project. In addition, two other Sonoma State University professors that provided foundational inspiration for this project are Dr. Patricia Kim-Rajal and Dr. Daniel Malpica in the Chicano and Latino Studies department. We acknowledge them for giving us the conceptual building blocks needed to construct the framework of this study. Finally, we would each like to thank one another for being such committed and cooperative partners.

**References**


**Appendix A: Language Map**

The following is an image of the language map described in the Case Narrative section of this report:

![Language Map](image)

**Appendix B: Interview Questions**
The following is a list of the interview questions that we used with the mother of our case family, some of which were adapted from those supplied in the appendix of a study by Pease-Alvarez (1993):

1. ¿De dónde es en México? (Where are you from in Mexico?)
2. ¿Cuánto tiempo asistió a la escuela en México? (How long did you attend school in Mexico?)
3. ¿Cuándo inmigró a E.E.U.U? (When did you immigrate to the United States?)
4. ¿Entonces Ud. Piensa regresar a México? (So, you believe you will return to Mexico?)
5. ¿Cuántos hijos e hijas tiene Ud.? ¿Y cuántos años tienen? (How many sons and daughters do you have? And how old are they?)
6. ¿Dónde nacieron sus hijos? (Where were your children born?)
7. ¿Son todos bilingües? (Are they all bilingual?)
8. ¿En la escuela, sus hijos han estado o están en alguna clase de inglés como segunda lengua? (In school, are your children in or have they ever been in an English as a second language class?)
9. ¿Cuántas horas trabaja Ud.? ¿Y su esposo? (How many hours do you work? What about your spouse?)
10. ¿Cuánto tiempo pasa Ud. con cada uno de sus hijos? (How much time do you spend with your children?)
11. ¿Cuando sus hijos están en casa, qué hacen? (When your children are home, what do they do?)
12. ¿Cuando pasa tiempo con sus hijos, que hace Ud. con ellos? (When you spend time with your children, what do you do with them?)
13. ¿Quién pasa más tiempo con los hijos? ¿Ud. o su esposo? (Who spends more time with the children? You or your spouse?)
14. ¿Cuando sus hijos tengan sus propios hijos, espera Ud. que ellos les enseñen español? ¿Por qué? (When your children have their own children, do you hope that they will teach them Spanish? Why?)
15. ¿Piensa que le corresponde al padre o a la madre a enseñar o mantener el español? (Do you think that one parent more than the other plays a prominent role in teaching or maintaining their Spanish?)
16. ¿Cuando habla con su (esposo, hijo/a, u otro miembro de la familia), qué idioma usa? (When you speak to your spouse, son, daughter or other family member, what language do you use?)
17. ¿Cuándo su (esposo, hijo/a, u otro miembro de la familia) habla con Ud., qué idioma usa? (When your spouse, son, daughter or other family member speak to you, what language do they use?)
18. ¿Qué tan importante es para Ud. que su hijo/a sea bilingüe? ¿Cómo lo beneficia o lo beneficiará ser bilingüe? (How important is it to you that your son or daughter be bilingual?)
19. ¿Cómo piensa que su hijo/a hubiera respondido a la pregunta anterior? (How do you think your son or daughter would have responded to the previous question?)
20. ¿Qué tan importante es para Ud. que su hijo/a sepa hablar bien el inglés? (How important is it to you that your son or daughter speak English well?)
21. ¿Qué tan importante es para Ud. que su hijo/a sepa hablar bien el español? (How important is it to you that your son or daughter speak Spanish well?)
22. ¿Qué idioma piensa que su hijo/a prefiere usar? (What language do your children prefer using?)
23. ¿Piensa que un idioma es más importante que el otro? ¿Qué cree que su hijo/a piensa? ¿Piensa él/ella que un idioma es más importante que el otro? (Do you feel that one language is more important than the other? What do you believe your son/daughter thinks? Do they think one language is more important than the other?)
24. ¿Qué tan importante es para Ud. que los maestros/las maestras de su hijo hablen español? (How important is it to you that your children’s teachers speak Spanish?)
25. ¿Qué tan importante es para Ud. que el director/la directora de la escuela de su hijo hable español? (How important is it to you that your children’s principal speak Spanish?)
26. ¿Piensa que todo el que vive en E.E.U.U. debería hablar inglés? (Do you think that everyone that lives in the United States should speak English?)
27. ¿Piensa que los padres de hispanoparlantes deberían ayudar a sus hijos a aprender inglés? ¿Hay algo que Ud. hace para ayudar a su hijo/a a aprender inglés? (Do you think that the parents of Spanish speaking children should help their children learn English? Is there something that they can do to help them learn English?)
28. ¿Cree Ud. que los padres de niños latinos/hispanoparlantes deberían ayudar a sus hijos a mantener el español? ¿Hay algo que Ud. hace para ayudar a sus hijos a mantener su español? (Do you think that the parents of Spanish speaking children should help their children maintain their Spanish? Is there something that they can do to help them maintain Spanish?)
29. ¿Piensa que los maestros de su hijo/a deberían enfocarse más en un idioma que en el otro durante clase? ¿En otras palabras, deberían ellos pasar más tiempo enseñando un idioma más que el otro? ¿En qué idioma se deberían de enfocarse? (Do you think that your children’s teachers should focus on one language more than the other during class? On which language should they focus?)
30. ¿Cree que su hijo debería ser enseñado en español en la escuela? (Do you think your child should be taught in Spanish in school?)
31. ¿Se usa el español en la escuela de su hijo/a? ¿Las instrucciones son dadas en español? ¿Qué piensa con respecto a esto? ¿Piensa que su hijo/a se beneficia de educación en español? ¿Cómo? ¿Piensa que usando el español para la enseñanza perjudica a su hijo/a en alguna forma? ¿Cómo? (Is Spanish used in your child’s school? How do you feel in respect to this? Do you think that your child benefits from education in Spanish? How? Do you think that using Spanish education hurts your child in any way?)
32. Algunas personas sienten que niños latinos están perdiendo su español. ¿Cree Ud. que esto está pasando? (Some people feel that Latino children are losing their Spanish. Do you think this is happening?)
33. ¿Conoce algún niño/a que ha perdido su español? ¿Quién? ¿Cómo comenzó? ¿Porque piensa que este niño/a ha perdido su español? (Do you know a child that has lost their Spanish? Who? How did it start? Why do you think this child has lost their Spanish?)
34. ¿Cómo se siente con respecto a esto? (How do you feel in respect to this?)
35. ¿Cómo se sentiría si su hijo/a perdiera el español? ¿Cree Ud. que pasará? (How would you feel if your child were to lose their Spanish? Do you believe it will happen?)

36. ¿Hay algo que los padres de niños puedan hacer para prevenir que ellos pierdan el español? ¿Qué? (Is there something that the parents of the children can do to prevent their children from losing Spanish? What?)

37. ¿Hay algo que las escuelas puedan hacer para que no se pierda el español en los niños latinos? ¿Qué? (Is there something the schools could do so that Latino students do not lose Spanish? What?)
Phonological Characteristics in the Bilingual Comedy Genre

Diana De León

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Abstract

This paper addresses the most important contemporary linguistic phenomenon of Spanglish, in specific American popular cultural among Chicano/ Mexican American comedians. Comedians such as Richard Anthony Marin, better known by his Hollywood name, Cheech Marin and George Lopez are pioneers of bilingual comedy. The initial hypothesis was to focus on the phonological changes, like rate of speech, the elongation of vowels and consonants as well as code-switching. Also this paper researches verified how Marin and Lopez code-switch during their performances and the correlation of laughter and comprehension by monolingual and bilingual students from Sonoma State University. The results were unexpected from the initial research survey due to the generational difference from Marin’s material to Lopez’s material in standup. The component of sociolinguistic is reviewed as standup had become of a mirror image of society.

Sinopsis

Esta investigación se enfoca en la importancia contemporánea del fenómeno lingüístico conocido como Spanglish en los Estados Unidos por comediantes Chicano/ Mexicanos Americano. Los dos condimentos de este ensayo son Richard Anthony Marin, mejor conocido como Cheech Marin y George López. Los dos son considerados como pioneros del movimiento Chicano en los medios de Hollywood. Se analizar los elementos fonológicos que es usan durante standup como el cambio de idioma, estrés en vocales, y rapidez de hablar. También hay encuesta tomada por diez estudiante, cinco monolingües y cinco bilingües de la Universidad Estatal de Sonoma para ver la comprensión de standup de los comediantes. Los resultados no fueron esperados. La lingüística social es parte de standup ya que standup refleja mas la sociedad de los comediantes Cheech Marin and George Lopez.

Introduction

The purpose of this research is to observer phonological characteristics in bilingual comedians in the United States in specific Cheech Marin and George Lopez. Details like rate of speech, the elongation of vowels and consonants. Also am essential observation is manner that this bilingual comedians code-switch to create humor by having a survey be taken by monolingual and bilingual Sonoma State University student. This paper also suggests how sociolinguist has affected the terminology used throughout standup. Sociolinguist also assists into further analysis how bilingualism has evolved into popular American cultural. The selection of comedians was not done at random.

Richard Anthony Marin also known as Cheech Marin is considered to be a pioneer of the Chicano Movement in the United States in media and popular cultural. Marin was born in south central Los Angeles, California on July 13th, 1946 and raised in Granada Hills, California. He attended California State University, Northridge but dropped out and moved to Canada to void the Vietnam draft. In Vancouver he met Tommy Chong, his who later became his comedic partner. Marin started his career
in the 1970’s and 1980’s with improvisational stand-up but his big break was in the film *Cheech and Chong: Up in Smoke*. Culturally Cheech Marin has paved the way for Chicanos who may possibly share similar backgrounds in the comedy world. He continues to spread Chicanismo with art (Marin 2007). Marin and Lopez have approximately century of difference in fame.

George Lopez was born in Mission Hills in Los Angeles, California on April 23rd, 1961. He started with stand-up in the late 1980’s. As he’s name became more popular from his stand-up work he soon had he’s own show called the *George Lopez Show* on ABC network. He is the one first Latino to break through and have his own show on a major network. He is one of the top five grossing comedians in world, especially now with his most recent late night talk show on TBS network called *Lopez Tonight*. He had been featured in several movies for the last decade. George Lopez has been a key component to the recognition of Latinos in America CNN special.

**Method**

I created a survey that was associated with four video clips. I selected to specific video clips from each comedian. I used just standup routines for the video clips that are roughly three minutes long each. The video clips are taken from the website YouTube.com. Most of Cheech Marin comedy has been collaboration with Tommy Chong whereas George Lopez had made a solo career. The video clips I chosen had one mostly all Spanish speaking routine and Latino cultural influence from each comedian; as well an English routine more common in monolingual standup. I had five bilingual speakers and five monolingual speakers watch the video two separate times. The first time I was observing the surveyor to see their initial reaction to the clips without my bias. Hence, I didn’t make any facial expressions and made sure I was in an angle where the surveyor was visible to me and I was out of their direct view. I was keep tally of a certain expressions. The second time they just watch it and I had a few questions to ask afterwards. From the tally I noted and the answers received I was able to compute my results.

**Results**

As a result from tallying I was able to read the person without having to ask questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Note-Taker list</th>
<th>Monolingual</th>
<th>Bilingual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cheech Marin</td>
<td>George Lopez</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laughed out loud</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>giggled/smiled</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frowns</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who's funnier?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Lopez</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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7 Appendix A has direct links to the four video clips from Youtube.com
8 Appendix B has my tally sheet
9 Appendix C the series of questions ask after the second viewing of the video clips
Although the tally didn’t give concrete answer and defiantly gave a sense of awareness. Both comedians are funny but an overwhelming amount thought George Lopez was funnier. The graphs below show the ranking of who was the most funniest for ten Sonoma State Students. Although I wasn’t able to note as many phonological elements as stated due to the lack of questions that fulfill that component it is apparent that Cheech Marin and George Lopez are two very funny Chicanos.

Discussion

As the Latino population continues to grow in the United States with it as well is the newly acceleration of Spanglish usage, a fusion of English and Spanish speech, accompanies the expansion. Two examples of the exponential growth of the Latino population are found in the Southwest United States: boarder counties of Los Angeles, California and El Paso, Texas. According to the Census Bureau (2000) Los Angeles County has a population of 9,519,338 with 44.6% of its citizens classified as Hispanics/ Latinos. That is nearly almost half the population of a huge county. El Paso County has a smaller population of 657,970 compared to Los Angeles, but also a larger concentration of Hispanics/ Latinos with a population of 78%, which surpasses all other ethnic races in the county. As this new hybrid language is more and more in used Latino communities in the United State it would only be a matter of time until its became part of popular cultural. Mexican American comedies Cheech Marin and George Lopez are part of a more recent genre of comedy, drawing their own life experiences and creating humor.

I choose two Chicano/Mexican American comedians because I wanted to see the generational difference in their humor as comedians as well as linked the two with similar backgrounds, Cheech Marin and George Lopez fit the criteria. Both comedians were born and raised in the Los Angeles area but at difference historical moments. Marin was witness to first wave of Chicanismo while Lopez grew up right after the first initial impact of the Chicano Movement of the 1960's in the United States. Code-switching and terminology is based on their social and historical events during their standup routines.

The topic of code-switch specific to Spanglish is becoming a widely research topic. Due to the variance in structure of the dialect it is only regionalized throughout the United States amidst of Spanish and English speaking communities. Ardilla (2005) illustrates how Latino populations are centralized in certain geographical regions of the United States and within those specific regions there’s a dominant ethnicity
that sets precedence. For the sake of this research the region of much interest is the Southwest United States, that has a large number of Mexican influences. The contact of English and Spanish had been a part of society since as early as the colonization of the Spanish, in Mexico, and England, in the United States. Although research has shown there are many factors to code-switch like morphology and cognitive understanding elements. (Heredia & Altarribe, 2001)

Standup is a form of comedy performed usually in front a live audience. This feedback helps comedians dictate their routine. The comedy done by Cheech Marin and George Lopez is one that creates new cultural structure and values, as Mintz (1985) defines standup as a ritual within a culture. During standup deviance is socially accepted, especially by Chicano comedians like Marin and Lopez. Curse words, racial remarks, and political statements are made and are received by laughter and excused by classifying it as comic relief. Mintz (1986) states that contemporary anthropologist see the forbid taboos as part of the comedic world since it can be separated from reality.

On the other had Poplack (1997) classifies standup as change in sociolinguistics due to the transfer of grammatical structure. This statement is consider true since both Marin and Lopez use their personal experiences as material during their standup routines, this means that the comedy is only a reflection of society and it’s construction. The word Chicano is a perfect example of the historical significance as well as usage during comedy. Although interchangeably with Mexican-Americans, Chicano demands respect to someone’s values and persona (Haney 2003). This form of terminology is not extremely new but its frequency can be noted through history making an impactful change in sociolinguistics.

**Conclusion**

For further depth I think a list of phonological themes is needed to really chart the comedian’s routines and the focus only be stressed on one comedian instead of two. I stand corrected in thinking that both comedians are equally as funny. Their humor is different and the time they made the biggest impact in American popular culture was in different moments of history. The truth beyond humor and history is the hybridization of cultures and people in the United States is becoming more of a reality on a larger scale of witnesses then in small Latino communities. More research is to bind to come in the near feature, Spanglish is not called on the largest phenomenon in the United State by mistake it’s the reality of newer generations. As previously mention all in its due time will be seen and become part of popular culture. If the Latino population continues to grow as rapidly as it had been the last few decades Spanglish and Latino customs will no longer be a phenomena but a way of life in the United States. Socially and culturally Marin and Lopez have change the image of comedy braking way from the norm and using their heritage a point of profit.

**Acknowledgments**

Very special thanks to Dr. Jeffery T. Reeder during the process of this research and the final product. Also, thank you for the motivational words from Dolores Bainter,
faculty from Modern Language and Literature Department throughout my Spanish major career. To the students that assisted me with their time for the survey and research necessary, thank you. Last but not least, the constant enthusiasm from close friends and professors to see this research complete will forever is appreciated.

References


Appendix A

Video Clips

Cheech Marin video clip for English analysis: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=m4mLdCVNcp4](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=m4mLdCVNcp4)

Cheech Marin video clip for Spanglish analysis: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c-B0Siwgyz4](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c-B0Siwgyz4)

George Lopez video clip for English analysis: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NwA_dUQMfb8](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NwA_dUQMfb8)

George Lopez video clip for Spanglish analysis: [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FeyCnRmtyN8](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FeyCnRmtyN8)
Appendix B

Note-taker During First Viewing

1. Number of times person laughed out loud?
2. Number of times person giggled and or smiled?
3. Number of times person frowned or confusion as a facial expression?
4. If you had can please categorized this comedian in one of the fields:
   Hilarious │ Funny │ Somewhat Funny │ Not Funny │ Indifferent

Appendix C

Who did you consider funnier?
   Cheech Marin or George Lopez

Did you find yourself not understanding due to the usage of Spanish and English?
   Agree or Disagree

Did you find yourself not understanding due to the usage of Spanish and English?
   (1=comprehend, 2=somewhat comprehend, 3= didn't comprehend)

Who did you understand best?
   Cheech Marin or George Lopez
Minority Language Policy, Proposition 227 and Bilingual Education in California.

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Abstract

This paper is a summative study on the implications of language policy for L1 Spanish speakers in the Southwestern United States, primarily in California. A critical examination of the broader English Only movement is made with an emphasis on Proposition 227. Perspectives from experts within the field of sociolinguistics and education will be taken into consideration while examining the underlying intentions, greater social implications, and overall effectiveness of the initiative that banned bilingual education. The differing models of bilingual education are evaluated and correlated to their overarching political ideology. The many problems with the initiative are explored, including the possibility that the intentional subjugation of Latin@s through the discrimination of language may be taking place. In this endeavor data on graduation rates by ethnicity, overall academic successes, as well as psychological and personal impacts determined by longitudinal studies are presented. This study asks if ethnolinguistic discrimination, elitist power structure and the perpetuation of both is taking place via Proposition 227. Also included are perspectives from minority students, dual immersion graduates, and educational professionals.

Sinopsis

Este investigación se trata la política de las lenguas minoritarias en California y la controversia de la educación bilingüe. Este autor se enfoca en las implicaciones de Propuesta 227 en los L1 hispanohablantes. El autor hace una crítica equilibrada del movimiento de “Solo Inglés” y la iniciativa de “solo inglés” que ha desarrollada las escuelas públicas. Incluye varios consideraciones tal como la justicia, la democracia, etnocentrismo, y la etnolingüística. Las perspectivas de los expertos de los campos de la sociolingüística, la lingüística aplicada, y la psicolingüística contribuye al considerar las intenciones, implicaciones, y eficaz de la iniciativa que prohíbe la educación bilingüe en las escuelas publicas. Se coloquen los modelos diferentes de la educación bilingüe con su ideología correspondiente de la asimilación y el pluralismo y hace análisis de la efectividad y los implicaciones de los dos perspectivas. Se demuestra que sea posible que por las políticas haya la perpetuación de la subyugación de los hispanos por medio de la discriminación de su idioma. (Schmidt p.130). Se presente numerosos estudios longitudinales que demuestra que la educación bilingüe, especialmente el dual immersion, tiene un impacto positivo en los niveles de retención, índices de graduación, éxito académico, y satisfacción psicológico. Incluye los resultados de cuestionarios originales con estudiantes minoritarios sobre la actitud frente el idioma, comentarios por profesionales del campo de la educación.

Introduction

Although language policy affects L1 Spanish speakers in nearly all societal and language domains, this paper primarily focuses on language policy as applicable to education. The most recent and controversial law was the passing of Proposition 227 in 1998, a ballot initiative that prohibited bilingual education from all public schools in California. The initial concerns are rather political, and seeks to answer
many questions such as: Who wrote and promoted this initiative, and why? What were the authors’ intentions? Why did this initiative pass in such a linguistically and ethnically diverse state? And why did the initiative have a relatively high approval rating among Latino voters, the demographic representing the most significantly affected minority population? Although these questions have a primary concern with the impact of language policy of L1 minority speakers, the implications for national identity are at stake, and those in power generally do not wish to see any sort of change, and consequently use language to protect the exist power structure. In general, political debate seems to have a minimal interest in the relevance of applied linguistics; for this reason second language acquisition theories are explored, for search of logical explanation for their absence in historical discussion.

In addition to these crucial questions, the author also takes a closer look at the politics of educating L1 minority students. Many opponents of bilingual education, especially the maintenance models, are proponents of the Immersion model. These advocates claim that immersion is the most efficient way to integrate English Language Learners (ELL’s) into the mainstream classroom and thus expedited into mainstream society. The opposition, however, asserts that bilingual education has been proven to be effective in producing students who are high academic achievers, confident, and competent in two of the worlds most widely spoken languages (Lewis, 2009). Linguistic and education research heavily documents the factuality of these claims; however current law directly contradicts the implications of these findings, namely, Proposition 227 (Krashen, 2000; Ramirez, 2009, et al.).

This author intends to define the various models of bilingual education and understand what this look like when executed within a classroom. For example, what ratio of L1 and L2 is used in a bilingual classroom? Additionally, the various education models designed for L1 minorities are placed within the larger socio-political context and analyzed in terms of the intended outcomes of each model and the political and social implications therein. The level of effectiveness of the differing models as evaluated by L2 English proficiency, overall academic success, and personal satisfaction are then considered. And although a minor part of the research, students perspective are considered important because the student voice, especially when a minority, is often ignored or altogether unsolicited in matters that are directly concerning them. In consideration of policy, the ultimate purpose is to determine if Prop 227 is in fact an effective and justifiable policy.

**Method**

The research is primarily based on pre-existing works. The basis for the data and analysis are a variety of books, academic journals, university and professional websites, and informa
l conversations with education professionals. Background information was collected primarily from the printed texts in order to gain a deeper understanding of the national debate surrounding English Only education. Next, the original text of Proposition 227 was read in order to assure that the second –hand sources about the proposition were in fact accurate, and to look at any other critical components that may be relevant to the intentions and requirements of the regulation.

A general understanding of bilingual education and its various forms were acquired through the readings, as well as conversations with a former bilingual education teacher and current teacher of English Language Development (ELD) class. This teacher has had experience in both long establish highly successful programs, as well as new and experimental programs, thus her insight has been very useful. This source has provided information about the benefits and problems facing different programs and what has or has not allowed the program to be successful.

The results of a short survey taken among L1 Spanish speaking and LEP10 students from a Californian public school are included. This survey was given to the teacher to distribute among the students at her convenience. The teacher guided the students through the questions one by one in order to assure that each question was understood. The surveys were then mailed back to me to evaluate. The teacher and this author were frequently in communication.

An important part of the research was also looking at perspectives of leading second language acquisition specialists. This includes the theories and research of Stephen Krashen of USC, Kenji Hakuta of Stanford, and Jim Cummins of the University of Toronto. Among the most relevant theories is Cummins’ Common Underlying Proficiency, or Interlinguistic Dependence Theory (Cummins, 2009).

Multiple longitudinal studies comparing students in bilingual schools versus those who were in Immersion schools. Another key source were academic articles and other long term reports which provided the results of comparative studies of differing education models, primarily immersion versus dual immersion (Ramirez, 2009).

The most crucial source for considering the direct effects of the Unz Initiative is a 5-year longitudinal study funded by the California Department of Education and carried out by AIG and WestEd. This report provides detailed information on the impact as reported by teachers and districts along yearly increments. Many objective problems with the initiative as well as sound conclusions are a part of this report (Parish, 2006).

10 Limited English Proficient, also referred to as ELL
Results

Between the 1800’s to the mid 1900’s over 50 percent of the immigrants were consistently European, primarily of German national origin. By 1965 European descent immigrants decreased by 30 percent and Latin American immigrants increased by 40 percent, and in 1991 52 percent of United States destined immigrants were from Mexico (Schmid, 2001).

As a result of this new demographic of immigrants in the 1960’s there were a couple responses. One of them being the revitalization of bilingual documents, signs, services, etc. (Schmid, 2001). As this demographic changed, there were some changes made in policy on both the federal and state level. In 1967 Governor Ronald Reagan signed Senate Bill 53 which permitted the use of languages other than English to be used in public schools. In 1968 the Bilingual Education Act was passed. This act released federal funds to be used for establishing and running educational programs for Limited English Proficient (LEP) students. It was originally written in consideration of L1 Spanish speaking students, but was expanded and included as Title VII under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). In 1974 the Equal Educational Opportunity Act deemed it unlawful, as described in “section f”, for “the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers” (Educational Opportunities, 2008). In the very same year the landmark Supreme Court ruling of Lao vs. Nichols took place in San Francisco. In this case L1 minority students felt that they were not receiving a “meaningful education” because no programs were instilled that were designed to accommodate these ELL’s. This included over 3,000 ELL students. The court heavily relied upon the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and decided that the students were being discriminated against on basis of national origin.

Justice Douglas also declared that “There is no equality of treatment by merely providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers and curriculum, for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education” (Krashen, n.d.) Two years later the Chacón-Moscone Bilingual-Bicultural Education Act was passed, in 1981 the Bilingual Education Act was re-approved and revamped (Mora, 2001).11

It was during this same time period that the political climate was undergoing changes. Hostility towards Spanish speaking citizens and recent immigrants were increased, and began to be expressed through the “English Only” movement in the 1980’s, which by many is considered to be very reactionary and xenophobic (Schmid, 2001 & Crawford 2000). This is seen in 1983 by the establishment of the official English advocacy group U.S. English, and a slurry of California

11Dr. Mora was the recipient of California Association for Bilingual Education (CABE) Award for Excellence in Research, 2002
Initiatives. In 1986 by the passing of Proposition 63 made English the state’s official language, Proposition 187 that denied illegal immigrants access to education or healthcare, and the culminating Proposition 227 that banned bilingual education throughout the states’ public schools. In 2001 the infamous No Child Left Behind replaced the Bilingual Education Act with a clause for LEP’s, which is decidedly oriented towards monolingualism (Title III, 2009).

There are two overarching ideologies relevant to the L1 minority. Although generally directed towards immigrants, they are also applicable towards language education. The two sides are assimilationist and pluralists. The assimilationist says that English is and has been the single unifying factor in a highly multiethic nation and claims that the ELL’s chose to immigrate and so should also be willing to make the “choice” to assimilate and learn the dominant language. The pluralist contends that an official language has historically been used as a means of systematically excluding the subordinate groups from democratic participation and used as a mechanism to subjugate these populations. They also highlight the reality that many L1 Spanish Speakers, like other minorities, did not become American citizens through choice but rather annexation. Many also lost their land after such annexations. They also distinguish between minorities and immigrants. Whereas some immigrants come by choice, minorities are often members of society that have been repressed and deprived of equal opportunities, such as exemplified through the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo (Schmidt 2001).

Without surprise, assimilation favors transitional bilingual education and especially immersion, while the pluralists favor maintenance bilingual education, especially dual immersion. There are primarily two bilingual education models, transitional and maintenance. Maintenance has the intention of preventing L1 loss and promotes balanced bilingualism.

One longitudinal study taken across a 36-year span in a federally funded K-3 dual immersion school. The study provided important information on bilingual education effectiveness in comparison to immersion. The study found that the dual immersion students had more comfort socializing with other ethnic groups, had a similar academic achievement level of students in immersion programs. The dual immersion graduates also had a higher income in adulthood (Ramirez, 2009). This study showed that academic achievement did suffer with the maintenance of L1 proficiency, and a stronger sense of identity and self-confidence came in addition to the academic success.

Another longitudinal study taken in southern California had similar results. The experimental group (dual immersion) was primarily Mexican-American, and in this case actually had a higher academic achievement level than the control group (immersion) as displayed through standardized tests. Dual immersion students were taking higher math classes than their counterparts, reported a stronger interest in going to college, and even attributed not dropping out of school to the fact that their school implemented a bilingual program (McGroarty, 1997). State drop out rates also seem to suggest that the banning of bilingual education has increased drop out rates among Latinos. But other socioeconomic factors are also to be taken into consideration (Educational Demographics, 2009).

Many claim that the “new wave” of immigrants are less interested in learning English.
However, in an original survey handed out to sixth and seventh grade L1 Spanish speakers in an ELD class, 100 percent responded by saying that they wanted to learn English, and would even sacrifice proficiency in L1 if it came down to a decision between the two. However, 100 percent also considered it important to maintain their L1. The original survey was primarily a source of insight into L2 English Learner language attitudes, bilingual education, bilingualism, and intelligence with language as a determinant. It was important that the students in the original survey be L1 dominant and currently enrolled in some form of remedial English classes because this demographic has provided information on language attitudes, bilingualism and bilingual education from the perspective of those who were most significantly affected by Proposition 227.

In terms of Voting demographics shows that the majority of people who approved Proposition 227 were white conservative republicans over the age of 65, the very same demographic that voted for Proposition 187. Some cite improved test scores after the propositions’ passing, however in the same time period the state mandated class size reductions and new standardized tests were being used. (Parish, 2006).

**Discussion**

The main problem with the English only movement and English only education is that it’s supporters mistakenly believe that in order to learn English one must also lose their native language. According to Jim Cummins’ Common Underlying Proficiency theory, and evidence given by the longitudinal studies, L1 proficiency in fact aids the development of L2 literacy. Furthermore, Cummins has established a difference between CALP and BICS. BICS are expected to be reached within 6 months to 2 years, while CALP takes between 5 to 7 years. (Cummins, 1999). The implications of such findings means that students who appear to posses CALP in the classroom will be mainstreamed, when in fact the student has merely reach a certain level of BICS. This equates to a continuation of behind grade level achievement and social isolation.

This may be taken into consideration when examining the increased redesignation rates after

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12 See index for sample questions given to the students

13 see index for voting demographics
proposition 227. Many teachers likely were attempting to keep in compliance with the new law, especially because enforcement suits are a part of the legislation, and Unz himself has threatened to sue and to cause teachers to lose their homes and their cars (Unz, 1997).

I would attribute the success of the Unz initiative to a very delicate and effective campaign rhetoric. He avoided anti-immigrant language, and capitalized on the desire for immigrants to have their children learn English and be given the best opportunities. What is likely unknown to these parents that that L2 proficiency does not necessitate L1 loss.

Behind “closed doors” Unz shows his true character. James Crawford published an email exchange between himself and Mr. Unz in 1997. In this email Mr. Unz cites his hopes that the pesky bilingual education will be “completely wiped out” and refers to Mr. Crawford and all the opponents of Unz’s initiative as “academic loonies” (Crawford, 1998). Mr. Unz is referring to well respected professors at schools such as Stanford, USC and George Mason University. This attitude reflects the overly emotionally driven perspective taken by the English Only proponents, while a more balanced approach is generally displayed by those who provide information that supports the effectiveness of bilingual education.

One of the most outspoken advocates for English Only is the President of U.S. English Mr. Maurica claimed that “students in bilingual programs are destined for low academic standards and a life stuck in the ghettos” (Maurica, 2009). However, in well implemented and well supported programs, students have shown a higher academic achievement level than their immersion counterparts. Schoolwide success might be measured by the API, a ranking determined by statewide standardized states. One of the states’ first bilingual programs was Cali Calmécac, established in Windsor, California. In 2006 Cali was ranked third in the state according to its API, and nearby Napa Valley Language Academy ranked fourth. Both are dual immersion charter schools (Charter School Locator, 2009).

Although the United States is comprised of scores of ethnicities and languages, California is arguably the most diverse. The state has over 207 languages spoken within its borders, of whom 35 percent are L1 Spanish Speakers (US Census, 2009). This is over 12.4 million people, which is increasingly evident within the public school system. Over 85 percent of the states ELL’s14 are L1 Spanish Speakers, where the second most significant language spoken is only 2 percent of the

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14 English Language Learners
California Language Policy - 66

school wide population. (California Department of Education, 2009). Because of these numbers, the Latinos are the main group of language users affected by restrictive language policy.

One of the most significant contentions with official language is that it is a violate of constitutional rights. The freedom of speech is guaranteed, and does not restrict this freedom to any single language (Chen, 2000).

This author contends that "English for the Children" is a highly reactionary and xenophobic movement. It must observed, however, that language policy in general tends to be reactionary, despite which side is being supported.

The list of funding for the “no on 227” is indicative of the grassroots representation that strongly opposes the English only pedagogy. Among the list is: American Federation of Labor Congress, California Association of Bilingual Education (CABE), California Faculty Association PAC, California Teachers Association Issues PAC, California Federation of Teachers, Los Angeles County Federation of Labor, United Teachers Los Angeles, 2-Wy CABE (WestEd, n.d.).

The reality that all of the students this author surveyed had a strong and clearly expressed interest in learning English, despite their presence in and ELD class is relevant and suggests that in the instances where L1 Spanish speakers are having trouble developing English Proficiency is not necessarily the result of a lack of interest. It may be notable that every single one of the students also favored a bilingual program to their current situation. Furthermore, it may be deduced that the education model, rather than student inclination, is a significant, if not a primary determining factor, in the success of L2 English proficiency and “mainstream” academic integration.

Banning bilingual education with the supposed intention of given the L1 minorities greater and quicker exposure to English speaking students and classrooms is oxymoronic. It seems, according to the WestEd report, that mainstream mixing has taken place as a result of the propositions’ passing; however, the irony of this is that this mixing of L1 and L2 native speakers is exactly what takes place in dual immersion, the most revered model of bilingual education. Many schools even reported mixing in native English speakers with L1 Spanish speakers and maintaining a ratio of these groups. This alludes to the fact that the proposition did not remedy problems of bilingual education, but rather poorly executed immersion programs. This is most likely why many parents of children who were in such programs either availed of the parental waiver to converted the school into a charter. (Parrish, 2006, et al).

Conclusion
In general, the results from this study were quite expected. This author presumed that Proposition 227 was highly misguided, and with the evidence provided on comparative studies on educational models this seems to be true. (Ramirez, 2009). But how can a proposition like this pass? Well firstly, the majority of the voters were older white republicans who declared themselves conservative, and were likely strongly associated with nativist ideas. The irony, of course, is that in California the groups that have the ability to claim earlier ties if not their origin, to this land, is the same group that is called foreigners and whose language is repressed. It was rather interesting to find that many authors considered the use of language policy as a means of exerting power of the minority population (McGroarty, 1997).

The passing of Proposition 227 in California reflects a national attitude towards bilingualism. This attitude is significantly shaped by the desire, namely of the dominant Anglophones, to maintain a national identity shaped by monolingualism. A few others, however, contend that this a single language is the only means to equality. The reality of this claim is difficult to assert, especially when people make the claim that a lack of English proficiency is the main cause of ethnic inequality and poverty.

Furthermore, on a global scale the United States in the minority. Most European and many Latin American countries have multiple official languages, successfully. And although the United States is still the world power, thus pushing this monolingualism into the rest of the world, America’s standing in changing, and should begin to reflect the changes taking place with its demographics inside of its borders rather than attempt to resist change by promoting oppressive policy. This is perhaps largely indebted to the perspective that ever since the 1878 California Constitutional Revision, native inhabitants of this state have been deemed foreigners by the government, on the sole basis of language (Cummins, n.d.)

The most significant findings in regards to the most recent English Only proposition is the clear disregard for established research documenting the effectiveness of the very model of education that was banned. Many note that the parental waiver was availed of, this or opportunity was written out of the subsequent Unz Initiatives which passed in Arizona and Massachusetts (Krashen, 2000). This means that for the numerous cases where, on a local level the continuation of a bilingual program was very successful and had support for continuance, there are no alternatives. This decision by Mr. Unz readily appears to be an attempt to pursue his intentions to abolish bilingual education; however; it also displays an attitude that disregards the expressed interests of schools on the local level, as shown in the frequent availing of the “loophole”.

The one thing both sides of the debate share is the perspective that English, the dominant, is the language of socio-economic opportunity. The main disagreement is about how to achieve English proficiency for the L1 Spanish minority. Research suggests that bilingual education has many advantages of the immersion model (Krashen, n.d.; Hakuta, n.d.; Ramirez, 2006; Crawford, 1997; Kerper, 2001; Schmid, 2001, et al). There is no “sink or

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15 Also see Index section 3 for expansive excerpt
swim” in dual immersion. Why choose to risk “drowning” when “swimming” can be guaranteed?

The only clear benefit after Proposition 227 there was a steady increase in redesignation rates, perhaps a sign of finally one positive change, as one teacher the author interviewed reported that many of her students were capable of being mainstreamed and should not be in her ELD class (Parish, 2006). Being that this is the only potential benefit, more research is certainly warranted.

Additionally, two teachers commented that students with an English “deficiency” were often labeled as a special needs child and placed even further behind grade level, and of course stigmatized. One reported a student in her ELD class that was struggling in Math. The math teacher suggested that this child be placed in special needs classes, but the ELD teacher intervened because the student in fact had straight A’s in all classes but math. The word problems and mathematics terms, apparently, were the main problem, not any cognitive disability. Cases like these reflect the general ignorance of language barriers and racial motivation of segregation. As Noam Chomsky notes, “the question of language is basically a question of power” (Kelly, 1985). This is evident in the use of language policy as a means of controlling certain populations. Regardless of the positive or negative outcome, language is inextricably tied to ethnicity, and decisions regarding one will most likely affect the other. For this reason the author strongly suggests that the Spanish language be re-designated as a right and a resource rather than an impediment. If this attitude were to prevail, L1 Spanish speakers would not be prevented from using their mother tongue, especially as a means of vastly improved education and ultimately, as a means to ethnolinguistic equality for L1 Spanish speakers in California.

**References**


Summary: California’s Proposition 227 Experience (2009). Retrieved from

Proceedings of the 2009 SSU Undergraduate Conference on Hispanic Linguistics


Appendix

1) Survey questions

1) Do you feel like Spanish is "bad", inferior or less important than English?
   yes  no

2) Do you think other native Spanish speakers who speak English better than you are smarter than you are?
   yes  no  maybe

3) Do you think ALL English speaking students are smarter than you?
   yes  no  maybe

4) Are you embarrassed to speak Spanish?
   yes  no  sometimes

5) Are you ever embarrassed to speak English?
   yes  no  sometimes

6) Do you think it is important to know Spanish? Why?
   yes  no  i don't know

7) Do you think Spanish is/will be useful for:
   work:  yes  no  i don't know
   personal:  yes  no  i don't know

8) Would you rather:
   A) Be fluent and comfortable in English if it meant you could no longer speak Spanish?
OR

B) Be ok at English and Spanish?

9) Were you in a dual immersion program?
   yes  no
   If so did you like it?
   Yes  no

10) How long have you lived in the United States?

11) Would you rather live in:

   A) a place (country, state, or town) that was bilingual (School, signs, store clerks, etc. were in both Spanish and English)

   B) a place where only people spoke Spanish
   a monolingual Spanish community in United States.

   C) a place where people only spoke English

2) ELL and Graduation date from CDE.gov, graphs created by author
3) extended exert from constitutional revision meeting, www.Languagepolicy.net

Mr. SMITH of Santa Clara. I wish to offer an amendment to [Article IV].

The SECRETARY read: "Amend section twenty-four by adding 'and all laws of the State of California, and all official writings, and the executive, legislative, and judicial proceedings shall be conducted, preserved, and published in no other than the English language.'"

Mr. ROLFE. Mr. Chairman: I understand that refers to all judicial proceedings. I hardly think that it is necessary, and in some instances it would work injury. We have a provision in our present Constitution requiring laws to be translated and published in Spanish; that, I think is entirely unnecessary, and should be rescinded. We have statutes, however, passed for the purpose of meeting exigencies in some parts of this State, allowing, in some kind of proceedings – judicial proceedings in the Courts – to be conducted either in the English or Spanish language. Now, while I would not make that mandatory, and while I would say nothing about it in the Constitution, I would leave it in the discretion of the Legislature to make that same provision, for I can assure this Convention that there are Justices of the Peace in my county [San Bernardino], and their proceedings are judicial proceedings, who are intelligent
men, and very able Justices of the Peace, who have no knowledge of the English language. There are settlements in that county, in certain localities and townships, in which the English language is scarcely spoken, the population being made up, almost entirely, of people who use the Spanish language. Now, in this instance, it would work a very great injury. ... Therefore I think that in these townships where almost the entire population is made up of a Spanish-speaking people, there would be no harm done in allowing the judicial proceedings of the Justices’ Courts to be conducted in the Spanish language.

Mr. TINNIN. Mr. Chairman: I hope this amendment will be adopted. There was a day when such proceedings were necessary – in the early days of this State – but I contend that day has now passed. Thirty years have elapsed since this portion of the country became a portion of the Government of the United States, and the different residents who were here at that time have had ample time to be conversant with the English language if they desired to do so. This is an English-speaking Government, and persons who are incapable of speaking the English language certainly are not competent to discharge public duties. We have here in the Capitol now tons and tons of documents published in Spanish for the benefit of foreigners.

Mr. ROLFE. Do you call the native population of this State foreigners?
The Critical Period Hypothesis: Maturational Constraints on L2 Acquisition

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Abstract

Contained in this paper is a literature study on the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) language acquisition theory. The objective of this study was to investigate the supportive evidence for CPH and determine if is validated by present research. The investigation determined that many questions posed by scientists still remain unanswered, however, research and experimentation has led to significant progress in determining how language is stored in the brain. No define conclusions could be found concerning the validity of the CPH. However, it was found that, even with the existing uncertainty, the theory is still largely accepted. Study on maturational constraints on language is important for our world, because it will lead to more successful strategies in facilitating second language learning. Further study will allow mankind to better understand the human brain and know its limitations and capabilities.

Sinopsis

Esta papel es una estudia literaria de la teoría de la adquisición del lenguaje, La Hipótesis del Periodo Critico (HPC). El objetivo de este estudio fue investigar la prueba justificativa para la HPC y determinar si la investigación es valida. La investigación determino que hay muchas preguntas planteadas por los científicos siguen sin respuesta, sin embargo, la investigación y experimentación ha llevado a la progresión significativa en la determinación de cómo lenguaje se almacena en el celebro. No se puede encontrar nada conclusiones definitivas de la validez de la HPC. Sin embargo, se encontró, entre la incertidumbre existente, la teoría todavía esta aceptada en general. Estudia de las limitaciones maduracionales de lenguaje es importante para nuestro mundo, porque lo llevar a mas estrategias exitosas de la facilitación del aprendizaje de la segunda lengua. El estudio adicional lo permitirá a la humanidad a comprender mejor el celebro humano y conocer sus limitaciones y capacidades.

Introduction

The difficulty in learning a second language in adulthood poses some interesting questions, One of which is: Is there a time period in the brain’s development in which one may acquire a language naturally without a great deal of difficulty? Curiosity draws in many people from many areas of study to discover how language is learned and stored in the brain.

The difficulty of second language acquisition can cause people to take action or become hesitant in learning a new language. Some individuals are told as young children that it is crucial that they learn a second language while they are young and are placed in environments where a second language may be easily acquired. Others may be too old or inclined to believe that they are too old to learn a second language.

A study was conducted on language acquisition theory that has changed linguistics. This paper examines that study which supports the critical period hypothesis, and our current understanding of how language acquisition may be restricted to a certain time period in human development.
Critical Period Hypothesis

The critical period hypothesis suggests that there is hope in learning a second language. However, the catch is that there is a time frame in which you can easily do so. Biologist, Eric Lenneberg, suggests that between the age two and the onset of puberty is when one can easily acquire a second language. There is discussion by Singleton which suggests that the starting point of language acquisition may be as early as six months. Others believe that the critical period begins at birth. (Doughty and Long, 2003, p. 588).

The central idea to the CPH is that “a child needs exposure to language in order to develop the brain structures necessary for language acquisition” (Language files, 2008 p. 313). If a child is not exposed to language, then he or she will not achieve native competence, nor have normal language skills. Before the CPH was developed language was thought to be acquired by receiving and imitating input from one’s environment. It was thought that one could only acquire language by habits and imitation. Chomsky theorized that language acquisition involved a biological process with his proposal of Universal Grammar. He proposed that every human being has special innate components that allow language acquisition without the need of input. Chomsky developed his explanation of a critical period in the observation of how quickly a child can learn a language in contrast to an adult. His argument in support of the CPH is that children’s brains are “preprogrammed” to learn language at specific developmental stages before puberty (Gass, 2002, p. 253).

Some extreme and rare cases of children, who have been subjected to unusual circumstances, provide support to the CPH. Case studies on feral children, those who have suffered from complete isolation or very little interaction with other human beings, support the critical period hypothesis. For example a child named Genie who was totally isolated in the early years of her life did not start learning language until the age of thirteen. She developed considerable communicative ability; however, she has failed to acquire many grammatical skills” (Rod Ellis, 1997, p. 68). Over the years, a variety of case studies and experiments (like the case of Genie) have been accumulated which support the theory in one way or another. With all this evidence, behavioralist views have not disappeared. Rather, “what has changed is the conceptualization of how individuals process the input and how the input interacts with the mental capacities of those learning a language (first of second)” (Gass, 2002, p. 229).

The Critical Period Hypothesis has also led to other hypotheses, including one by Schachter which he called the Window of Opportunity Hypothesis. This hypothesis explains that there are specific periods in human development in which one can acquire different language functions. There also exists the idea of multiple critical periods, which states that “there are different onsets (and offsets) for different sub-components of language”. (Hyltenstam, Abramhamsson, 2003, p. 553) These theories follow the Innateness hypothesis that “language ability is innate in humans”. That, “humans are genetically predisposed to acquire and use language. (Language Files, 2008, p.311)

Lateralization

One area of research that supports the CPH is the lateralization of the cerebral hemispheres of the human brain. Eric Lenneberg supported the idea that child learners
are ideal learners because their language acquisition takes place before the process of lateralization. Lateralization occurs when "the two hemispheres become increasingly specialized for function, and eventually ...the polarization between of function between left and right takes place, displacing language entirely to the left and certain other functions to the right" (McLaughlin, 1984, p. 47). During lateralization, "each of the brain’s hemispheres is responsible for different cognitive functions" (Language Files, 2008, p.357). When the brain lateralizes in adolescence different regions are assigned for specific cognitive function, including language processing and the perception of nonlinguistic sounds. "After puberty the brain has lost its cerebral plasticity because of the completion of the process of cerebral dominance, or the lateralization of the language function" (McLaughlin, 1984 p. 46). It is believed that because a child has higher brain plasticity, and their brain has not undergone the process of compartmentalizing all of its input, that children are able to acquire language easily. An individual who learns language later in life makes use of other cognitive domains in learning a second language. It is believed that late learner does not have the ability to store linguistic information in the initial language domain that was established during childhood (McLaughlin, 1984).

Whether lateralization is completed in the brain during adolescence is not questioned. What is debated is whether lateralization of the brain prohibits one from successfully acquiring a language after lateralization occurs. Lenneberg did not deny that language learning was possible after puberty. A person can learn to communicate in a foreign language at the age of 40; but "automatic acquisition from exposure to a second language seems to disappear after puberty, and foreign accents cannot be overcome easily after this age." Lenneberg also noted that "language-learning blocks" rapidly increase after puberty (McLaughlin, 1984, p. 47).

**Location of Language**

Another area of research pertaining to second language acquisition is the location of language in the brain. Great advances in research can be made using the knowledge of how the brain is compartmentalized for storage of language. The CPH leads to a currently unanswerable question regarding human development. Since it is unknown how language is exactly manifested in the brain, language acquisition is an intriguing topic. There have been many different approaches to study how language is stored in the brain. Certain conclusions have been arrived at and accepted by the scientists in this area of study. Marsel Kinsbourne (1981, p. 52) lists the hypothesis of compartmentalization of language pertaining to first (L1) and second languages (L2):

1. L1 and L2 use the same cerebral territory, which is (a) greater or (b) no greater than that committed to language in monolinguals.
2. L1 and L2 use overlapping territories, with (a) L2 more extensive (b) L2 not more extensive.
3. L1 and L2 are separate territories, if they are (a) compound; (b) coordinate; or (c) either compound or coordinate.

However, scientists do have a general idea where language is stored in the brain. One area of the brain that has been determined to be particularly important in language production is the cortex. "The brain contains so-called language centers—parts of the cortex that, as far as we know, are used only for the production and comprehension of language" (Language files, 2008, p.355). The cortex is the outer one-fourth inch of the
brain and it is used in many other cognitive functions along with language. In addition to the cortex, language centers are found in both hemispheres, but "are usually found only in the hemisphere that is specialized for language: for over 90 percent of right-handed people and approximately 70 percent of left-handed people, this is the left hemisphere." (Language Files, p. 355) Much of the evidence relating to the location of language centers, such as Broca’s and Wernicke’s areas within the left hemisphere, comes from patients who received brain damage as the result of a stroke or an accident.” (Language Files, 2008, p. 356)

Harry A. Whitaker describes the growth and development of the brain as a “multidimensional process”. He writes that language development is a multidimensional process which also coincides with physiological development. “For example, articulatory and phonological development continue well after basic structure is mastered, vocabulary development is virtually a life long process” (Whitaker,1981, p. 68). He explains that the correlation between brain maturation and language acquisition can be observed, but can only be applied to early development and the first language. He states, “The factors of brain maturation may correlate in interesting ways with early phonological development and some limited aspects of early syntactic development in primary-language acquisition; they are not likely to correlate with any aspects of acquisition after 5-6 years of age.” (Whitaker, 1981, p.68) After this point it has been considerably more difficult to identify a correlation between maturation and acquisition as it has been understood. The following illustration depicts the growth of the brain as a multidimensional process. Areas of the brain are numbered to show the sequence in which the brain expands. (Whitaker, 1981)

![Brain Growth Illustration](Whitaker,1981, p. 68).

One study was conducted to find language mechanisms in the cortex of two bilingual subject’s brains. What was observed by Ojemann and Whitaker was that the localization of the two languages was different, but shared in others. How performed their study through cortical mapping using bipolar electrodes and a small electrical current. “The data clearly indicate that the two languages of each of these subjects only partially overlap; there are sites at which one or the other language is represented exclusively, and other sites at which both languages are represented, though not necessarily to the same degree” (Whitaker, 1981, p.72). One concept that this study was able to show is that there is variation in the location of language in the brains of one individual to the next, but that correlations from subject to subject could also be made. The following figure
demonstrates the language mapping of the cortical surface in the two bilingual subjects (Whitaker, 1981).

Maturational Constraints on Language

Social Psychologist, Wallace E. Lampert, explains that one can develop full bilingualism through education and intensive study of the desired language. Bilingualism is not determined by the starting age, but in other words it is "shaped by the age of inception." (Lampert, 1981, p. 9) In addition, he explains that a child's linguistic, cognitive, and emotional development will be significantly affected by the age in which acquisition begins. The outcome of second language proficiency will reflect the age in which an individual commences acquiring the language. He supports this statement with the review of neuropsychological studies including his own. He finds that there are considerable physiological differences between the late and early acquisition. He concludes that there is more involvement in the right hemisphere in the late language acquisition than in the early acquisition. "Early bilinguals apparently had a proclivity for a left hemisphere strategy, one based more on semantic analysis, while the late bilinguals had a right-hemisphere proclivity, using a processing strategy based more on the gestalt like or melodic properties of the input" (Lampert, 1981, p.19).

In a study involving the maturational constraints of language, Elissa L. Newport, also argues that people acquiring language in different stages do not arrive at the same outcome. She explains that "learners of different ages show differing degrees of success in inducing the internal organization of their linguistic input, with greatest success achieved by least mature learners" (Newport, 1990, pg. 22). She explains a puzzling paradox that with increased cognition in the brain's development the less cognitive one is
able to acquire a new language. She explains that unlike many other cognitive domains, it is to the child's advantage that full cognition is not developed. (Newport, 1990)

She also suggests that observed differences between the type of errors made by adult learners and child learners is due to differences between the way that "input is received and stored". She clarifies that these distinctions are not from "differences in their knowledge of linguistic constraints or in their abilities to perform linguistics analyses once the input is stored." (Newport, 1990, p. 25)

Observations have been made that "early bilinguals seem to develop relatively more pervasive, subordinate meaning systems that subserve both languages. In contrast, late bilinguals seem to have relatively more compartmentalized semantic systems for each of their languages, and the two language systems seem to be more functionally independent. (Newport, 1990, p.22)

**Conclusion**

The results of literature review are different than what was expected. Initially, correlations concerning the physiological development and second language acquisition were sought after. My initial idea was to research developmental stages of first and second language acquisition. With this understanding I expected to discover how the critical period may be supported with findings of how language is manifested in the brain. I was surprised to find that present research does not support this.

Our present knowledge of language and the brain is somewhat limited. Much of what we know has been developed from contrasting evidence. I discovered that even though there have been a considerable about of research relating to the brain and how we understand language; there still remains much work to be done.

Finally, I found that the CPH has received substantial support and remains to be a significant area of study. The biological evidence for CPH is supported by many scientists and has received much recognition. It was determined that there relatively few scientists who do not support the Critical Period Hypothesis.
Work Cited


The Second Language Learner: Language Proficiency upon Graduation

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Abstract

This paper reports on a survey of Spanish language students throughout California, and their proficiency levels upon graduation from a University. With volunteers in their final semesters of upper-division Spanish classes, the survey revealed that there are a number of issues surrounding these students’ proficiency levels. The survey, completed online, compiled a series of questions ranging from number of years each student has been studying Spanish, to the length at which they’ve gone in order to become proficient in the language. Of the students who responded that speaking was their biggest weakness in the language; they noted that there were areas in which their educations could be improved so that they wouldn’t have such problems. With the suggestions of the 135 survey volunteers, new teaching strategies were recommended in order to have more graduating seniors at a high proficiency level.

Sinopsis

Este trabajo de investigación informar sobre una encuesta de los estudiantes de español por todo de California y sus niveles de competencia encima de la graduación a una universidad. Con voluntarios en sus últimos semestres de sus cursos superiores de español, esta encuesta revela que hay problemas con los niveles de competencia en los estudiantes. Este encuesta, terminado en línea, tenía preguntas que incluye el numero de años cada estudiante ha estudiado el español, y los extremos que los estudiantes irán para obtener niveles competencia en su segunda lengua. De los estudiantes que respondían que la lengua hablada fue su debilidad primaria, ellos han tomado nota que hay áreas en que sus educaciones pueden mejorar para que estas estudiantes no tengan estos problemas. Con las sugerencias de los 135 voluntarios de encuesta, nuevas estrategias de enseñanza se recomendó para tener más estudiantes graduados con un nivel de competencia.

Introduction

After the first few weeks in my high school Spanish One class, I knew that Spanish had to be a part of my life. My grandmother learned Spanish as her first language, yet refrained from teaching the language to her children because she was punished in school for not knowing how to properly answer her teacher in English. As a result of my mother not learning Spanish at a young age, I was not taught and thus left to learn Spanish in school. Although my grandparents speak Spanish, because no one else in my family knew how to, the language was lost. Having this void in my life, I was inspired to learn more about my culture, most important of which was to learn the language.

As I mentioned before, I began studying Spanish as a freshman in high school, and haven’t stopped learning. When I began taking classes at Sonoma State, I felt very confident in my abilities. Throughout high school, I dated a boy whose family only spoke Spanish, so I got a lot of practice outside of the classroom, however, when I moved away and the relationship ended, my outside practice ended as well. In a short period of time, I went from a confident speaker, to feeling as if I was no
longer on the same level as my peers. I no longer considered myself as good of a speaker, because I was no longer getting the practice.

In a paper entitled *Group Work, Interlanguage Talk, and Second Language Acquisition*, Michael Long and Patricia Porter discuss the idea of group work learning. The teaching method that many professors currently use, lockstep, allows the teacher to talk for one half to two thirds of the time, which in a fifty minute class leaves the students about twenty-five minutes to talk. This averages out to be approximately thirty seconds per student per lesson, or one hour per student per year. In switching from the lockstep style of teaching to group work, there will be a 500% increase in student talk time (Long & Porter, 1985, 207). With the majority of teachers using methods such as Long and Porter’s lockstep, it is no wonder that I feel as if my oral proficiency has suffered. With no outside practice and most classes using lockstep teaching, gaining oral proficiency in a second language is extremely challenging.

As it came time for me to decide what my senior project should be, I took particular interest in a study previously done as a senior project by Deborah L. Lanterman, “*The Second Language Learner-From Learning the Language to Using It*.” The questions that she asked herself, I have also wondered myself. What do students feel they need in order to become proficient in their second language? What makes the difference between the students that excel in their second language and those who don’t quite reach the level of proficiency that they should be at? What can be done to promote higher proficiency upon graduation?

**Method**

To begin this study, I started by putting a survey together that asked all the questions I wanted answered about Spanish students like myself. I wanted to know the profile of the average Spanish student and what they did to gain proficiency in the language. In order to reach a large survey population, I knew I would have to put my survey online. I located a free online website that allowed you to create a survey and send it as a link through an email. With a free, basic account at surveymonkey.com, I was able to create a survey that could be answered by 100 people. Hopeful as I was that I would receive many responses to my survey, I made multiple copies of the same survey, entitled Spanish Linguistic Study, Spanish Linguistic Study 01, Spanish Linguistic Study 02, and so on and so forth, until I had enough identical surveys to send out to a number of schools on the west coast. I sent each survey to three different schools, expecting that there would be about 30 people from each school to respond; following the 100 response cap on the free account.

The Spanish Linguistic Survey, attached as Appendix A, covered questions ranging from number of years studying Spanish to the areas they felt most weak in. After creating the survey, I wrote a letter asking for help from professors at Universities across the west coast. In this letter, I explained to them that I was a graduating senior at Sonoma State University, and that I was conducting a survey on Spanish Language Proficiency as part of my senior seminar in linguistics graduation requirement. I asked them to forward the link to my survey to Spanish students.
with only 1-2 semesters left before graduation, and thanked them for assisting me in my study.

After many weeks of waiting for responses to my survey, I noticed that there were very few schools outside of California that were responding. Instead of projecting my findings on all west coast Spanish students, I decided to limit the results of this study to only the responses of Spanish students in California.

Results

Having learned Spanish only through my education in high school and in college, I wanted to see if others were more proficient because they were native speakers, and thus had the advantage in that they already knew how to speak the language. Out of the 135 volunteers that took my survey, only 31% said that they were native speakers. This led me to think that quite possibly, these were the people who said that they were fluent in the language. However, this was not the case as there was no correlation between being a native speaker and being fluent in the language. As it turns out, although these students can speak the language, their biggest weaknesses were in reading or writing, which lead them to feel as if they were not qualified to be deemed fluent.

Apart from being a Spanish major, I have also been working on my Nursing major as well. When beginning this study I thought that perhaps students with a second field of interest had less time to devote to their second language and thus were less proficient in the language because of it. My survey found that approximately 41% of Spanish Majors have second majors and 7.5% have minors.

With such a high percentage of students with a second field of study, I wanted to see if there was any correlation between having a second major and being a native Spanish speaker. The survey found that approximately 58.5% of double majors were native speakers. This was particularly interesting to me, in that I reason that the native speakers felt so confident in their speaking abilities that they were able to stretch themselves with a second major more so than the non-native speakers were.

In continuing with my study, I wanted to investigate the areas that Spanish students felt they are most weak in. 14.8% of students felt they were most weak in reading, another 14.8% of students felt they were most weak in writing, 11.1% of students felt most weak in other areas of Spanish, such as grammar and understanding slang, and only 14.8% of students felt as if they had no weaknesses at all. However, the biggest weakness for the majority of students was in speaking the language, with 44.5% of students saying it is their weakest area of the Spanish Language.

Why is this? Why are so many students most weak in actually speaking the language? In my survey, students were asked how many hours a week, if any; they were required to do extracurricular activities to help improve their verbal and auditory skills; 74% of students responded zero.
Is this the reason why so many students are having problems with their speaking abilities? They aren't required to do extracurricular activities to help them improve? Should it be mandatory that you speak outside of the classroom? The results of my survey say yes. An astounding 33% of students say that they have no one outside of the classroom to converse with in Spanish. Of these students with no outside practice, 45% of them say that they are most weak in speaking.

With a good part of Spanish students getting no outside practice via friends, family, or work, I wondered if studying abroad would help them gain proficiency in their speaking abilities. Yet, 48% of students said that they have never studied abroad. Of the 52% that did, 22% went for a semester, while 30% went for a year. Did traveling abroad help them? Of the students that studied abroad for a year, 87.5% said yes, while only 66.7% of students who went for a semester did. Why were some students not helped? Most said that because they had English-speaking roommates, they refrained from speaking in Spanish whenever they were together, and thus they didn't learn nearly as much as they would have liked because of this.

Having learned about the profile of these students, I wanted to know how they felt their education has prepared them for using Spanish on a daily basis. I wanted to know what level of proficiency these students felt they had reached. 29.3% of students said that they considered themselves fluent. As I said before, I immediately thought these students were the native speakers, however, no correlation was found between native speakers and calling oneself fluent. Additionally, 18.5% said they were highly proficient, 33.33% said they were fairly proficient and 18.5% said they were proficient in all areas except speaking.

Despite a large number of students saying that they were weak in some areas, and that they were only fairly proficient, 66.6% of students said they were as proficient as they thought they’d be upon graduation. When those students who felt they weren’t at the proficiency level they would have liked to be at were asked why, they gave numerous suggestions as to what could be done in order to help future students gain proficiency:

- Mandatory Study Abroad
- Advanced Conversation Classes with oral examinations
- Continuous grammar/vocabulary tests
- Outside class activities/volunteer work
- Classes of only non-native speakers

The changes that these graduating seniors would make are, by far, the most interesting part of this study. The lengths at which these students would go to gain proficiency in their second language are astounding.

**Discussion**

The data that I have uncovered reveal that there are significant problems in Spanish Language Departments, and something has to be done to ensure college graduates are at a high proficiency level. By implementing the suggestions that the
survey volunteers made, I feel we could help improve everyone’s Spanish abilities in all Departments across California.

Many students suggested that it should be required that you Study Abroad if you are a Spanish major. In Margo Milleret’s study entitled, *Assessing the Gain in Oral Proficiency from Summer Foreign Study*, she discusses the importance of study abroad, even in a short period of time. When discussing the importance of Study Abroad programs in improving oral proficiency, Milleret notes that “summer-study programs in which students speak only the target language and receive communicative classroom experiences and cultural immersion have reported impressive results (Milleret, 1991, 40).”

In a perfect world, where there is no economic crisis, mandatory study abroad for all Spanish majors would be ideal; however, in today’s economy this is not likely to happen. Yet, I feel studying abroad should be highly encouraged as “students make the greatest gain in oral skills as a result of foreign study (Milleret, 1991, 39).”

Although mandatory study abroad may not be a reality, there were a lot of suggestions made that could be made possible without any extra costs to the Spanish Department budget. It was suggested my numerous students that they wish they had a larger vocabulary and a better grasp on correct grammar usage.

In a field such as math, you learn a concept in the beginning of your studies, and then you continue to build on that concept. While continually using the introductory formulas, you learn others as well. The foundation you build carries on to learning harder concepts and more complex math. We need to apply that learning style to learning a second language. In lower-division Spanish classes, we continuously learn new vocabulary and have grammar tests so that we are continuing to build and learn. However, when we enter the upper-division Spanish classes, those vocabulary and grammar tests stop.

There were many students who felt that they still weren’t very strong in their grammar usage, and wished they were continuously tested on all the different tenses so that they could never forget them. Also, vocabulary seems to be a huge issue. Most students could talk about school work for hour long conversations, however, if they were asked a question about medicine, farming or construction, they would have a very hard time trying to carry a conversation, because that vocabulary just isn’t there. I feel we need to continuously explore vocabulary so that we are well-rounded Spanish students. If we made each class week a different realm of vocabulary and were given a list of words on Monday and then a short quiz on Wednesday, we wouldn’t have to use class time discussing the words if the teacher didn’t want to, yet we’d still be learning and enhancing our vocabularies. As Kenneth A. Gordon said, “classroom activities need to be reinforced (Gordon, 1987, 32).”

Another request from numerous students was to have advanced level conversation classes, so that instead of reading and writing assignments, we’d strictly be conversing and developing our speaking skills (perhaps using the vocabulary we’ve learned through the weekly vocabulary quizzes). This way we will actually
have to speak to earn a grade, and tests will be oral exams in a one-on-one session with the professor.

Having gone through numerous lower- and upper-division courses, I have had experience with a variety of teaching techniques. I have participated in simulated conversations, performed in short skits, and written numerous essays.

In a study by Tomas L. Graman, entitled, *The Gap Between Lower- and Upper-Division Spanish Courses: A Barrier to Coming Up through the Ranks*, he said that “classroom learning is insufficient because only in the ‘real’ world can students use the second language as they do their first language (Graman, 1987, 931).” The gap that persists between Spanish students who get outside experience and those who do not will continue to remain if something is not done. Graman also noted that “if students did involve themselves in genuine (as opposed to make-believe or contrived) communication activities in the classroom, the gap would probably not disappear, but it would narrow (Graman, 1987, 931).” In the proposed advanced conversation classes, students would have the opportunity to have these “real world” conversations, and thus their speaking abilities would drastically increase.

Along with the conversation classes, a surprising number of students said that they wished there were non-native speaker conversation classes offered. Where most native speakers feel they only want to help others with their speaking abilities, some non-native speakers feel as if they are being judged or feel anxious when surrounded by someone with a superior speaking ability. A non-native speaker conversation class would allow students to feel comfortable with students that are all on the same speaking level.

I know first-hand that it can be intimidating having peers on a superior level than you. Many of my peers are native speakers and have the opportunity to speak with family and friends outside of the classroom. With all this extra practice, in classroom conversations, they shine. Intimidated by their fluidity with the spoken language and fear that my response won’t match up to what someone else could say makes it so that I don’t speak up in class conversations. This lack of confidence in my speaking abilities has severely hindered my growth in the oral language. In a non-native speaker classroom, I feel that no one would feel intimidated by their peers, and everyone’s speaking abilities would grow.

Apart from what can be done inside the classroom, it is also what can be done outside the classroom that will help Spanish language learners gain proficiency in their second language. Most students wish they were required to participate in extracurricular activities which immersed them in the Spanish speaking community. They want to volunteer. They want to tutor. They want to see cultural events. Although this can be done on their own time, as a requirement, it will force students to get involved and help those who can’t afford to study abroad to be a part of a different community.

At Sonoma State, we offer many Service Learning classes in which volunteering is a requirement of the class. I feel that making one of our existing classes a Service Learning class could be an easy solution to meeting the needs of our students.
Other Universities should take note in that they too can find ways to incorporate a Service Learning Division into their schools.

**Conclusion**

Throughout my study, I was constantly surprised by my findings, however, not surprised in that students feel that their Spanish Departments could do more to help them gain proficiency upon graduation. With a majority of Spanish Language Learners feeling that they are least proficient in their speaking abilities, I feel something must be done to ensure that Spanish Programs are graduating students who are proficient in all areas of the language.

While it is true, that many students could do all of the things I’ve suggested on their own; the extracurricular activities, the vocabulary tests, and the day to day conversations, with these changes, we will have a better-rounded Spanish program that gives students what they feel they need in order to become proficient at their second language. We need to create a program in which students don’t have to do extra hours of outside work, and yet are able to become proficient in all areas of the language. With the information I’ve collected in my survey and the suggestions of graduating Spanish students, I feel that Spanish departments throughout California could be improved and create more proficient graduates.

**Acknowledgments**

I would like to thank the professors of Spanish at Universities across California for forwarding my survey to their graduating Spanish students, especially those professors at CSU Long Beach and CSU Fresno. I would also like to thank Dolores Bainter for her help sending the survey at Sonoma State, and Dr. Jeffrey Reeder for his advice and guidance throughout this study.

**References**


**Appendix A**

Questions for Spanish Linguistic Study

1. About how many students attend your school? Where is your school located?
2. How many years have you been studying Spanish and how long has it been your major?
3. What areas of Spanish Learning would you say you are most weak in: reading, writing, speaking, etc.?
4. Do you frequently speak Spanish outside of the classroom with friends, colleagues, or family? Please explain.
5. How many hours a week, if any, are you required to do extracurricular activities which improve your verbal and auditory skills? Please explain.
6. Have you studied abroad? If yes, please comment on length of time abroad, where you studied, and if it has or has not helped with your Spanish language proficiency in both auditory and verbal skills?
7. In your own words, please explain how proficient you feel you are in the Spanish Language.
8. Are you as proficient in your verbal and auditory Spanish skills as you thought you would be by the time you graduated? Please explain.
9. If you answered no to question 8, what do you think you should have done or should do to improve your verbal and/or auditory skills?
10. What changes do you think should be made to ensure that students in your Spanish Language Program will be more proficient in their verbal and auditory skills?
The Relationship Between Heart Rate, Respiratory Rate and Blood Pressure on Linguistic Output

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Abstract

This paper is an empirical study on the relationship between heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure on linguistic output. One volunteer underwent a series of experiments in which the subject’s heart rate, respiration rate and blood pressure were altered from their normal rates via exercise. The subject was then asked to read a basic Spanish reading comprehension paper to see how many words per minute could be read, how many breaths were taken and how many errors were made when the subject’s vital signs were altered. The results show that, after an exercise period of two minutes, the subject could read 4.2% less words per minute and took 29.4% more breaths with 50% more errors. During the exercise period of five minutes, the subject could read 5.5% less words per minute, took 56.3% more breaths, with 66.7% more errors when the heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure increased suggesting that an increase in vital signs leads to a decrease in verbal output.

Sinopsis

Este papel es un estudio de los efectos de un aumento del ritmo cardíaco, el ritmo respiratorio y la presión sanguínea y como se afecta la producción lingüística. Una voluntaria hizo unos experimentos en que el ritmo cardíaco, el ritmo respiratorio y la presión sanguínea de la voluntaria estaban modificados por ejercicios y después la voluntaria tenía que leer un pasaje básico en español por un minuto para contar cuantas palabras se podía leer, cuantas respiraciones se tomaba y cuantos errores se cometía. Los resultados sugieren que la voluntaria, durante la experimenta de dos minutos de hacer ejercicios, podía leer 4.2% menos palabras cada minuto, tenía 29.4% más respiraciones por minuto y cometía 50% más errores y durante la experimenta de cinco minutos de hacer ejercicios, podía leer 5.5% menos palabras cada minuto, tenía 56.3% más respiraciones por minuto y cometía 66.7% más errores cuando su ritmo cardíaco, la presión sanguínea y el ritmo respiratorio se suben. Este está sugiriendo que un aumento de los signos vitales hace que se disminuye la producción lingüística.

Introduction

Little has been researched on the effects of an increase in heart rate, blood pressure and respiration rate and how it affects a person’s verbal output once these factors have been altered. A study conducted in 1982, that was published in the Journal of Behavioral Medicine, showed a relationship between elevated blood pressure during verbal communication. The studies measurements were taken during verbal communications and noted the rise in blood pressure during the act of communicating (Long, Lynch, Machiran, Thomas, & Malinow, 1982). Another study done confirmed that during verbal communication, blood pressure readings were elevated and especially when associated with faster rates of speech than with slower rates of speech in
normotensive\textsuperscript{16} individuals (Friedmann, Thomas, Kulick-Ciuffo, Lynch, & Suginohara, 1982). Yet another study published in the \textit{Journal of American College of Cardiology} concluded that simple mental and verbal activities in healthy individuals affect the heart rate through changes in respiratory frequency (Bernardi, 2000).

Heart rate, blood pressure and respiratory rate are intimately connected through the physiological workings of the body. Vital signs are a simple check of a person’s health and assess the most basic body functions. The vital signs include heart rate, blood pressure, respiration rate, and body temperature\textsuperscript{17}. The heart acts as a pump to get oxygenated blood to the rest of the body. The blood moves through arteries when traveling away from the heart and then passes through smaller arterioles then to capillaries where blood is exchanged with tissues. Oxygenated and nutrient-rich blood leaves the capillaries and enters surrounding tissues and carbon dioxide-rich blood enters the capillaries and returns to the heart via veins. The blood will enter the heart deoxygenated and pass to the lungs to obtain oxygen and then return to the heart, where it will then begin the cycle again, being pumped out system wide.

In clinical medicine, the heart rate, or pulse as it is often referred to, is a measurement of how fast the heart is pumping per minute and is normally palpated\textsuperscript{18} at the radial artery (the wrist) or the carotid artery (the neck) whenever possible, as these areas are easy to locate and noninvasive. A normal heart rate for a healthy adult is between 60-80 beats per minute, however note that a well seasoned athlete will have much lower heart rate and are considered normal in the ranges of 30-45 beats per minute ("Pulse," 2009).

Respiratory rate, also known as the respiration rate, ventilation rate or breathing rate, is the number of breaths that are taken within a minute by watching how many times the chest rises within that minute. The normal rate of breathing for a healthy adult is between 12-20 respirations per minute ("Respiratory rate," 2008).

The respiratory system of the human allows gas exchange to occur throughout the body and is driven by the diaphragm. As the diaphragm pushes down the volume of the thoracic cavity\textsuperscript{19} is increased and therefore the pressure is decreased allowing air to rush in to equalize the pressure. This is known as inspiration. When the diaphragm pushes up, the volume of the thoracic cavity decrease and the pressure therefore increases which forces air out to equalize the pressure, which is known as expiration\textsuperscript{20}. Air will enter the respiratory tract either through the nose or mouth and pass to the trachea where it will then pass to the lungs via the bronchi, which branch into smaller parts and eventually end up in alveoli\textsuperscript{21}. The average human has 300 million alveoli in both lungs. In the

\textsuperscript{16}Normotensive are those individuals with blood pressure readings considered normal.
\textsuperscript{17}Temperature will not be measured in this study.
\textsuperscript{18}Palpated is to examine by touching
\textsuperscript{19}The thoracic cavity refers to the body cavity where the heart and lungs are located.
\textsuperscript{20}Inspiration and expiration are also referred to in common speech as inhalation and exhalation.
\textsuperscript{21}Alveoli are the tiny air sacs within the lungs where the exchange of oxygen and carbon dioxide takes place.
alveoli is where the actual gas exchange takes place. The oxygen is loaded into the blood to be transported body wide and carbon dioxide is loaded into the alveoli to be exhaled (Kimball, 2007). The oxygen molecule is carried on the hemoglobin molecule within the red blood cell. Whereas carbon dioxide is either dissolved in the blood plasma, bound to the hemoglobin or carried as a bicarbonate molecule (HCO$_3^-$). The drive to breath is not driven by the need for oxygen but rather the need to eliminate carbon dioxide, a toxic gas, from the body (Fox, 2009).

As carbon dioxide levels rise in the body and the body temperature rise via exercise, as seen in this experiment, the hemoglobin’s bond with the oxygen will become lessened and the hemoglobin will give up the oxygen more readily to allow the body the oxygen it needs when deprived. This is explained with great physiological detail by the Oxygen-Hemoglobin Dissociation Curve$^{22}$ (Fox, 2009).

Blood pressure is the pressure that is exerted by circulating blood within the body on the walls of the blood vessels. The blood pressure is typically measured using a sphygmomanometer, commonly called a blood pressure cuff, and a stethoscope. The gauge of the cuff calculates the pressure of the blood in millimeters of mercury (mmHg). It is common for the blood pressure to be measured at the upper arm, just above the elbow at the brachial artery. The blood pressure of an average healthy adult is 120/80 mmHg (Dugdale, 2009).

The blood pressure is calculated with two numbers: the systolic pressure over the diastolic pressure. When the cuff is inflated it cuts off the blood flow of the brachial artery. As the air is slowly let out of the cuff the first sound that is heard from the turbulent flow of blood is the systolic pressure, which represents the maximum pressure the heart exerts when it contracts. As the air is being let out slowly the turbulent sound of blood flow will disappear. This is the diastolic pressure which represents the minimum pressure in the arteries when the heart is at rest between contractions (Dugdale, 2009).

Within this study I hope to show that when the heart rate, blood pressure and respiratory rate are increased through exercise the number of words an individual can speak will decrease significantly. I also hope to find that they will take more breaths per minute.

**Method**

One volunteer was used to provide the data for this study, a bilingual female in her early twenties. The data was recorded in the afternoon between 2:00 pm and 3:00 pm in a house that was 63ºF. The subject was well-rested and in a self proclaimed low-stress state of mind. The process of the experiment was clearly explained to the subject before it began and any questions were answered. The subject was first asked to sit in a chair as her pulse was taken at the carotid artery for one minute, then her respiration taken for a minute by observation of how many times her chest rose, and then her blood pressure was...
taken with a standard sphygmomanometer and stethoscope\textsuperscript{23}. The subject was then asked to read the selected Spanish comprehension passage (see appendix) for one minute while being recorded for words per minute, number of errors during the reading and number of breaths taken during the reading of the passage ("No robes los peces," 2005). Afterwards, the subject was asked to ride the exercise bike for two minutes staying between a speed of 10.0 and 10.5 miles per hour the entire duration. The exercise bike was set with a resistance of three. After the two minutes had finished, the subject was immediately asked to read the same Spanish passage while being recorded to measure for the same factors as previously mentioned. After that minute, her pulse and respiration were taken simultaneously for one minute and then, with no delay, her blood pressure was taken\textsuperscript{24}. The subject was then asked to relax and participate in no physical activity for thirty minutes and to try to refrain from as much mental activity as possible.

After thirty minutes, the subject’s vital signs were taken again. First her pulse for one minute, then respiration for one minute and lastly her blood pressure reading\textsuperscript{25}. The subject was then asked to read the same Spanish passage while being recorded to measure the same factors as mentioned above. The subject was then asked to ride the exercise bike for five minutes staying between a speed of 10.0 and 10.5 miles per hour the entire duration again with the same resistance setting of three. After the subject completed the five minutes on the bike, she immediately read the same Spanish passage for the fourth time. Then her pulse and respiration were taken simultaneously for one minute and then her blood pressure was taken right after\textsuperscript{26}.

During the experiment the subject was asked to refrain from speaking or from being spoken to because during the research it was found that speaking or being spoken to significantly raises the blood pressure of normotensive individuals. The whole process was clearly explained to the subject and any questions were answered before starting the experiment. The only time at which verbal output occurred during the experiment was during the recording of the comprehension passage.

**Results**

As the heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure increase the verbal output decreased, the errors increased, and the number of breaths taken while

\textsuperscript{23} The sphygmomanometer used was a Prestige Medical Model No. A2 with cuff measurement 6” x 20”. The stethoscope used was a Prestige Medical Model No. S122. Timer used was a Taylor Digital Minute/ Second Timer Model 5806. Recorder used was a Panasonic microcassette recorder Model No. RN-305 with a Panasonic microcassette MC-60. Exercise bike used was a Life Gear Streamline Pro, Magnetic Upright Bike # 20660.

\textsuperscript{24} Note that the subject was asked to read and then her pulse and respiration were taken afterwards and then her blood pressure, possibly allowing time for slight alteration in these readings.

\textsuperscript{25} The subject’s pulse was always palpated on the right carotid artery.

\textsuperscript{26} Note that although the subject was instructed to stay within 10.0 and 10.5 miles per hour while riding the exercise bike there may have been some falter to perfectly accomplish this task.
reading increased as well in both experiments; after the two minute exercise period and after the five minute exercise period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>HR (beats/min)</th>
<th>RR (resp/min)</th>
<th>B/P (mm/Hg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial Resting</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>116/72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After 2 Mins. Exercise</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>122/82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resting After 30 Min. Break</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>114/72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After 5 Min. Exercise</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>128/84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.

Table 1 shows the subjects heart rate measured in beats per minutes, respiration rate measure in reparations taking per minute and blood pressure measure in mmHg. The measurements were taken at the initial resting time then after the two minute exercise period. Then again after the thirty minute resting break then again after the five minute exercise period.

Figure 1. Heart Rate in beats per minute.

Figure 2. Respiration Rate measured in breaths per minute.
Figure 3. Blood pressure is broken down into systolic (the upper number) and diastolic (the lower number). Both are measured in mmHg.

Figures 1-3 show the change in heart rate (figure 1), respiration rate (figure 2) and blood pressure (figure 3) over time. The graphs illustrate that after exercise all vital sign factors increased. From the initial resting period to after the two minute exercising period there was a rise in all vital signs. After thirty minutes the vital sign factors came down to a normal level for this individual. Then again increase, but this time with an even greater intensity, after five minutes of working out due to a longer duration period of exercise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reading Conditions</th>
<th>WPM/10</th>
<th>Resp/Min</th>
<th>Errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial Resting</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After 2 Min. Exercise</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resting After 30 Min. Break</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After 5 Min. Exercise</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Reading conditions. Note that WPM column is divided by 10 for proper formatting.
Figure 4. Graph of the reading condition and how they changed during initial resting period, after 2 minutes of exercise, after the thirty minute resting period and after 5 minutes of exercise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions:</th>
<th>HR</th>
<th>RR</th>
<th>BP Systolic</th>
<th>BP Diastolic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>% Increase Between Initial Resting Period</strong> and 2 Minute Exercise Period</td>
<td>20.3%↑</td>
<td>50%↑</td>
<td>5.2%↑</td>
<td>13.9%↑</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conditions:</th>
<th>WPM</th>
<th>Errors</th>
<th>Resp/Min</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>% Increase/ Decrease Between Initial Resting Period</strong> and 2 Minute Exercise Period</td>
<td>4.2%↓</td>
<td>50%↑</td>
<td>29.4%↑</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>% Increase/ Decrease Between 2nd Resting Period</strong> and 5 Minute Exercise Period</td>
<td>5.5%↓</td>
<td>66.7%↑</td>
<td>56.3%↑</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. The upper table shows the percent increase in the initial resting period and the two minute exercise period for heart rate, respiration rate, systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure. The lower table shows the percent increase in HH, RR, BP systolic and BP diastolic between the resting period of thirty minutes and the five minute exercise period.
Table 4. The upper table shows the percent increase or decrease in the initial resting period and the two minute exercise period for the words per minute (WPM), the errors made during that minute and the respiration taking during that minute of reading (Resp/Min). The lower table shows the percent increase or decrease in the WPM, the errors, and the respiration per minute between the resting period of thirty minutes and the five minute exercise period.

Discussion

The data suggests that there is a correlation between an increase of vital signs and a decreased linguistic output. The numbers of possible explanations of why this is possibly occurring is lengthy and physiologically in-depth. However, it is probably correlated to the body needing to eliminate excess carbon dioxide build-up and intake more oxygen into the body to provide sufficient oxygen supply to the freshly worked tissues. If the cells of the tissues do not get sufficient supplies of oxygen, they will die.

Another reason that could affect the data is the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system. Within this study, the sympathetic and the parasympathetic stimulation were not taken into account. The autonomic nervous system is divided into two parts: the sympathetic and the parasympathetic nervous systems. The autonomic nervous system normally functions below the level of consciousness and is out of one’s control although may work with the conscious mind. The sympathetic nervous system is known as the ‘fight and flight’ system because it accelerates the heart rate, constricts blood vessels therefore raising blood pressure. The parasympathetic nervous system is thought of as the ‘rest and digest’ system as it slows the heart rate and allows intestinal and gland activity to occur (Fox, 2009 and "System, parasympathetic," 1998). Due to the fact that these factors are controlled at a level below consciousness, the experiment could not take them into account. But it should be noted that they do exist and possible future experiments may want to find a way to control these factors more closely.

Given the small sample size of this study with only one volunteer and that this seems to be one of the first studies to investigate these happenings, it is not to say that this is a wide spread phenomenon and could be solely isolated in this particular individual. Future studies are needed with larger sample populations to truly understand if the results of this study suggest a correlation.

Another interesting point is that the words per minute only dropped 4.2% after two minutes of exercise and 5.5% after five minutes of exercise but the number of errors increase significantly. The errors made after two minutes of exercise increased 50% and the errors made after five minutes of exercise increased 66.7%. This is interesting due to the fact that after the five minutes of exercise, it was the subject’s fourth time reading the Spanish composition passage. One would think that errors would be very minimal, if any. However, they increased leading one to believe it may be due to the need for oxygen and the need to eliminated carbon dioxide that the brain cannot think and concentrate on so many things at one certain time.
The respirations the subject took during the reading of passage after exercise also increased. After two minutes of exercise the subject took 29.4% more respirations and after five minutes of exercise the subject took 56.3% more respirations. This follows what one would think to happen as the subject needs more oxygen to the tissues to support life and function of the tissues.

As to be anticipated the subjects heart rate, respiration rate and blood pressure all rose after exercising. This is due to the physical act of exercising causing a rise in these factors within the body. Notice that the subject's heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure are within normal range at the initial reading and the reading after the thirty minute rest period. The heart rate, respiratory rate and blood pressure all rise to out of normal range after exercise which is to be expected because exercise does raise your vital signs. The normal ranges are set during periods of rest.

**Conclusion**

Concluded from this experiment is that in this particular volunteer her linguistic output was affected by an increase in her heart rate, her respiration rate and in her blood pressure. Due to the fact that this individual is a normal healthy human, it may lead to suggest that in other individuals an increase of vital signs would affect and dramatically lower verbal output. This information can be used for the general public but more focused on students and business people who are expected to regularly give speeches out loud. They should keep in mind that if their vital signs are raised, their heart rate, their respiratory rate and their blood pressure, that they are going to be able to speak less words per minute, have more errors during speech and take more breaths while speaking possibly causing what they are saying to sound sloppy, ill-prepared and factually unsound. If one can take these factors into consideration, they may be able to control them slightly by knowing that they cannot run up the stairs late for a meeting and think it is going to go as planned, because this experiment and hopefully others to come suggest that a rise in vital signs lower linguist output and preciseness as well.

**References**


Appendix

Spanish reading comprehension passage which was read by the volunteer four times throughout the experiment for one minute each time:

¡No Robes los Peces!

Pat tiene una gata. Un día, Pat estaba jugando en su jardín. Su gata vino a casa. Ella tenía algo en la boca. Era de color anaranjado y azul, y se movía. Pat lo miró. ¡Era un pez grande!

“Yo conozco ese pez” dijo Pat. Su vecino tenía un estanque de peces. Estaba lleno de preciosos peces dorados. “¡Eres una mala gata!” dijo Pat. “¡No robes los peces del vecino!” El fue a buscar un cubo.

Pat llenó el cubo con agua. Su gata dejó caer el pez en el suelo. El pez se movió en el césped. Pat agarró el pez y lo puso en el agua. “Ahora voy a llevarte a casa” le dijo Par al pez. Pat y su gata caminaron rápidamente a la de su vecino. Pat llevaba el cubo. Pat puso el agua y el pez en el estanque.

Code Switching in Public and Private Domains in California

Jacqueline N. Jones and Kayla Van Kampen

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Abstract

This discourse focuses on the linguistic phenomenon of code-switching. While a wide range of opinions and analysis in literature exists surrounding the topic of code-switching, this particular study investigates events of code-switching from a sociologic perspective. Acts of code-switching is a behavior found in contexts of stable bilingualism as a means of communication between bilinguals, in this case, speakers of both Spanish and English. The observations and interviews of this study derive from events in the public and private language domains of Northern California where there is a large community of Spanish and English speakers. This study presents a wide range of language ability among bilinguals which will be analyzed on the bases of scholarly references. The collected data and evidence of code-switching is used to analyze how the different environment and contexts of the speech acts are influenced by societal and familial pressures.

Sinopsis

Este discurso se enfoca en el fenómeno lingüístico de los cambios de código en la literatura publicada una gran variedad de opiniones y análisis sobre el tema de los cambios de código, en esta obra se trata eventos de los cambios de código por una perspectiva sociolingüística. Esta manera de comunicar se encuentra entre bilingües en las comunidades, en eso caso, de hablantes de español e ingles. Las observaciones y entrevistas del estudio son derivados de los dominios públicos y privadas en el Norte de California donde hay una población grande que habla español e ingles. El estudio representa una amplia gama de habilidades lingüísticas de los bilingües que están analizados por el base de referencias eruditas. Los datos y evidencia escogidos de los cambios de código están usados para analizar cómo el ambiente y el contexto de los discursos en directo están influenciados por la presión social y familiar

Introduction

In California a large population of both English and Spanish speakers exists. Although the population of these specific language users have grown and created separate language communities, a variety of social factors allow constant interaction between members of both language communities. Ultimately, the constant use of both languages inside and out of separate communities is resulting from the linguistic phenomenon of code switching. “Code switching is the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent” (Poplack, 2000).

Born from and perpetuated by social change, code switching is pattern of communication used among bilinguals who have a common pragmatic understanding of the both languages spoken. In this study we will specifically concentrate on language patterns among Spanish-English bilinguals. This study will also discuss the social organizations that have influenced language use among Spanish-English bilinguals from a sociolinguistic perspective, meanwhile the research methods of this study have been designed in order to analyze language behaviors among the bilingual community of Northern California in particular.
Observations from both formal and informal sectors will be used to contextualize the variety of implications within speech acts containing code-switching as a phenomenon that occurs among bilinguals. We have observed, recorded and referenced several existing works of code-switching as a method of investigation and research. While the main goal of this study is not only to prove or disprove existing theories of code switching, we hope to bring awareness to prominent linguistic patterns that are demonstrated in our present society. This study is designed to engage individuals from all walks of life without any prior knowledge of the topic at hand. We hope to create a better understanding of our living environment and how language is a powerful catalyst that influences our daily experiences.

Method

The foundation of our topic immersed from two independent research topics. One was a study of general types of code switching characteristic of bilingual speakers in California. The second topic prompted Spanish language use in public and private domains of California. The researches of this study compounded their ideas for a study that most represents how and where Spanish is used in California.

This study was designed to analyze the existence of a particular language behavior in California that has emerged from the influence of English on the Spanish language. Initially the method to collect data was similar to a basic case study. By observing bilinguals interacting with other bilinguals we attempted to report instances of code-switching in private, as well as public settings. Our observations took place in the highly bilingual community of Santa Rosa, California. There we visited grocery stores, restaurants and schools. After each observation session of about an hour each we reported an insufficient amount of data to use as our examples and evidence. This strategy proved to be too time consuming for the time allotted for this particular research project. Moreover, the case study approach led us to focus more on categorizing the types of switches rather that the actual purpose or contributing factors behind the discourse. For this reason, we turned to scholarly sources to create a summary of existing works and provide our own perspective based on observations at the sites previously mentioned. Because the subject of code switching has been moderately explored, we collected diverse data from various sources to support ideas of other researchers.

Results

Our findings conclude that there is an interdependent relationship between language domains and code switching. In this research we focused specifically on how two types of domains, public and private, affect language choice in the respective settings. For our investigation we researched how a particular domain affects language choice and identity.

Public domains in U.S. society including work, school, grocery stores and also government-sponsored institutions affect language maintenance and language choice. English is primarily used within public domains of the majority population, but as the Hispanic population grows in the U.S., Spanish has become a
supplemental language for functioning within public domains. For this reason, Spanish is primarily used within private domains (i.e. home and neighborhood), while bilingual language dominates within communities of the converging dominant and minority populations. Although the state of California has not declared an official language, the codes that are imbedded within language domains speak volumes about the language ideology that exists within the dominant society.

Rosaura Sánchez example of code switching in the home domain is characteristic of speech acts in an informal context. D-1, D-2 and D-3 represent the daughters of the family who are at the dinner table with the other members of the family including their mother, father and grandmother. While the language choice of the adults is consistently Spanish in this discourse, the daughters switch from Spanish and English with great flexibility. There are several inferences that can be made about this particular dynamic with respect to language choice. First, the fact that the elders of the family use only Spanish to address others signals either an insufficient knowledge of English language to be able to code switch or a familiarity of experiences within this specific context in their native language. Although all of the members of this family are L1 Spanish speakers the difference lies in their degree of assimilation. The three daughters growing up in the United States learned Spanish at home but became native English speakers once they started their primary education. English is now used on a regular basis and has now become a code for which they use only to directly address each other. Spanish, on the other hand, is used by the daughters to address and respond to their elders. This demonstrates that the daughters’ preferred language is English because they identify with each other and themselves as English speakers, but using Spanish is a sign of respect to the culture and values of their family. By choosing to speak Spanish with their family, they are including everyone. The daughters’ language ability gives them the opportunity to choose which language serves their interest. Thus, the power of code switching allows individuals to include or exclude others from certain interactions.

The ideas of Sánchez in the previous paragraph coincide with our own observations. We found examples of English encroaching on the maintenance of L1. One such example is that of an El Salvadoran born women, Lilly. Her native tongue is Spanish, but having lived the majority of her life here in Northern California, English has become her dominant language.

**Statistics**

Statistics are important to our research because seeing the numerical values of the population and its change over time, will give us an idea of how language has evolved, and will evolve. As the Latino population grows, so does the Spanish language. Spanish is in constant competition with its dominant counterpart English, and because it is the subordinate language, Spanish is being influenced by English which is causing linguistic evolution. Over the course of several generations, the Spanish language has adopted loanwords, borrowing and calques from English. As of 2007 the Hispanic population in California was 13,219,000
which is equivalent to 36% of the total population\textsuperscript{27}. The population change of Hispanics in the United States was a 28.9% increase between 2000 and 2007. This is a significant change for just seven years, especially when compared to the white population change of just 2.1%. The rapid growth of the Hispanic population is changing California's demographic. Citizens of California must acknowledge this change that is occurring and take steps towards integrating the Hispanic population into mainstream society.

Discussion

Code switching is a symbol of social change. The Latino population is growing more rapidly than any other minority (and faster than the ‘white’ population) in California. With the integration of another culture comes a need for adaptation on the part of the incoming group as well as the established dominant group. One possible solution to the cultural and linguistic barrier is the adaptation of language. In California the process of assimilation is profoundly expressed in language use among the minority, Spanish-speaking population. In order to analyze our findings in this study it is necessary to discuss language choice and bilingualism as an appendage of language use. “Code switching is a particular type of verbal interaction characteristic of bilingual populations in the midst of social change (Sánchez 1994).” Thus, the practice of code switching among bilingual speakers is directly related to the social environment which requires both languages for mobility and participation within a society where dominant and subordinate languages exist. The social conditions of a particular region, in this case, California, influence where and what language is appropriate for a given situation. According to Pratt (1987) bilingualism is “less an attribute of a speaker than as a zone for working out social meanings and enacting social differences” (from Schecter and Bayley 2002). How language serves functions in certain domains of California is related to the social and economic factors which determine the status of English as dominant and Spanish as subordinate.

As in the case of Lilly, English has become the dominant language and it is used for social mobility and to create an identity. Having spent a lot of time with Lilly throughout the duration of this project, we have observed her language choices in a number of settings. She almost never speaks Spanish unless it is spoken to her first. Why is this? Has she become so assimilated to U.S. American society that she does not feel the need to identify with the people from a similar linguistic background? It seems that English has dominated Lilly's mother tongue. Sanchez explains that within our society exists a class system containing labor markets, residence, education and consumerism, all of which will affect a person's acquisition of a second language. A person who is exposed to any or all of these social occurrences will notice an affect on their language use. Lilly, having been exposed to all of these factors in the English language at a young age, noticed a language shift to English. She now identifies as an English speaker more so than a Spanish speaker. Here she describes her feelings about her Spanish ability, and the

\textsuperscript{27} Information from pewhispanic.org
fact that she is from El Salvador, not Mexico like the majority of Hispanics in the area.

L: Y a veces solamente me queda en ingles pero...y después cuando tengo que hablar español es más dificil. Pero, I don’t know cuando yo voy con las mamas de mis amigos que son mexicanos, como las mamas, son puros like mexicanos y solo pueden hablar español...oyen mi español y es como les quedan media risa porque lo hablo bien diferente.

(And sometimes I stay in English, but...and later when I have to speak Spanish it’s difficult. But, I don’t know, when I go to the mothers of my friends, they are like pure Mexicans and they can only speak Spanish...they hear my Spanish and it’s like they smile a little because I speak so differently.)

Lilly’s ability to speak both English and Spanish gives her social mobility, however, her she does not feel as confident in Spanish. This is because most of the common Spanish domains, such as the home, have become almost exclusively English for Lilly, therefore affecting her language choice in other domains.

It is important to note that Lilly uses several borrowings from English. Here she uses like and I don’t know. These are very common tag phrases in English and she is carrying them over to her Spanish conversation. Because her listener is also bilingual, she can use these switches. If she was talking to a native to El Salvador who had never heard a word of English, those two tags alone could change his/her understanding of the conversation. Although this excerpt does not show Lilly’s true ability to code-switch, it does demonstrate her comfort of using both languages. See Table 1 which shows how many times Lilly code-switches during a 40 minute conversation.

Language ideology and choice are directly correlated to mainstream society here in the United States. The U.S. strongly, if not solely, favors English as the dominant language. Although there is no official language, English is thought of by most to be the only acceptable language to be used in all public domains.

**Conclusion**

Language is constantly changing. Here in the United States English is the commonly accepted language of communication is nearly every domain; however, the rise of the Hispanic population brings an influx of Spanish speaking domains. This is fusing the once separate, monolingual domains into areas of bilingualism. In our research we hoped to observe these newly established bilingual domains to understand how, when and where this linguistic change is happening. Although our own observations did not give us adequate information for a case study, we were able to use the existing literature to facilitate our understanding of the changes occurring right here in Sonoma County.
Today, Spanish takes a stronger presence than ever in U.S. society as a result code switching has become a ruling language expression of the growing minority population. English language is preserved for formal or technical matters while Spanish remains the language of informal and intimate settings. As more Spanish speakers are entering in to the U.S. labor market the language practices that exist in the separate domains have begun to intermix among the working class.

The idea of the American dream has attracted many people from around the globe in search of an opportunity for success. The image the U.S. projects to the World is one of equality and prosperity which is believed by hopeless masses in developing countries. Latin America, a major region suffering from social, political and economic crisis also has neighboring borders with Northern America. Therefore a large Latino population has crossed the border in search for the promises of a better life in North America. These ideals are quickly proven misleading upon grave experiences of inequality and oppression. Language is a barrier that supports social divides and competition characteristic of capitalism. Thus, English language must me acquired for assimilation and even more importantly for success. English is not only a marker of competence within U.S society but also has framed qualities of success in societies around the globe. Code switching is a result of the dual identity that many Chicanos embrace. This study has illustrated the critical role language plays in forming identity.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Dr. Jeffrey Reeder for his support and guidance throughout the duration of our research. Also, we owe a special thanks to Lilly for her participation in our study. We would also like to thank each other for all of the time and dedication we each gave to the success of our project.

References


Appendix

Table 1
This graph demonstrates Lilly's ability to code-switch. She switches to English almost four times more than she switches from English to Spanish. One can infer that this is because she is more comfortable in English so once she is speaking English she would prefer to stay in English. Also, when speaking in Spanish, when Lilly comes upon a subject or topic that she is more familiar with in English, she switches.
La evolución de coloquialismos en diferentes generaciones.

Martha Rico

Sonoma State University
Sinopsis

Muchas veces no es tan fácil entender lo que dice la gente. Tal vez tenga algo que ver con las diferentes generaciones. Mientras pasa el tiempo, y con él las generaciones, los coloquialismos evolucionan o cambian. El estudio que conduje, trata de la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones. Nos podemos dar cuenta que mientras pasan las generaciones las cosas van cambiando. Una de esas cosas son las palabras que usamos para expresarnos. Las palabras que una persona utiliza para expresarse en una conversación cotidiana, tienen una conexión directa con su generación. Empecé por hacer una investigación, y una recopilación de información acerca de cómo evolucionan las palabras, los coloquialismos y sus variedades. También elabore una encuesta que contiene una lista de coloquialismos de diferentes generaciones, las personas que participaron circularon las palabras que entendían y que utilizaban, con fines de saber cuáles de los coloquialismos fueron trasladados a través de las nuevas generaciones, y cuáles de ellos se quedaron en el olvido y sin utilizar. Después de que la información fue analizada, los resultados fueron sorprendentes e inesperados. Descubrí que sí existe la evolución de coloquialismos pero también existen diferentes maneras de evolución.

Abstract

It's not always easy to understand what other people are saying. This might have something to do with differences in generations. As time and generations pass, words go through the process of change and evolution. The study conducted illustrates the evolution of coloquialisms throughout generations. We know that as generations elapse things change. One of those things is the words we use to express ourselves. The words that someone uses to express themselves in everyday conversations have a direct connection with their generation. The study began by researching and gathering data about the evolution of words, coloquialisms, and their varieties; it also created a survey that presents a list of coloquialisms from different generations in which the participants circled the words that they understood and that they used. The purpose was to find out which of the colloquialisms were kept throughout the new generation and which fell out of use. After the information was analyzed, the results indicated that the evolution of coloquialisms does exist, but that there are also different types of evolution.

Planteamiento

Aunque no hay muchos estudios realizados específicamente sobre la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones, decidí investigar este tema porque me llamó mucho la atención cómo es que las palabras van evolucionado con el tiempo. Es interesante cómo vamos desprendiéndonos de las palabras viejas y adoptando o adaptándonos a nuevas palabras las cuales tienen un significado para cada generación. Creo que este tema es muy significativo por la razón de que nos podemos dar cuenta de que todo en la vida pasa por un proceso de evolución o...
colombia. Así cómo vamos creciendo van existiendo nuevas generaciones con valores diferentes y creando nuevas palabras y significados. De esta manera, las palabras coloquiales evolucionan, hasta que dejan de ser usadas o no comprensibles para las nuevas generaciones. Existen algunos estudios similares que son sobre el Slang y el desplazamiento de valores tras generaciones. Moore (2004) nos explica que, “Slang expressions main functions are (1) to express approval and (2) to align the speaker with an attitude or set of values characterizing his or her generation” lo cual quiere decir, que usamos el slang para expresar que estamos de acuerdo con algo o con alguien, y para relacionarnos a una actitud o una serie de valores correspondientes a nuestra generación. Esta cita es muy importante para mi estudio, puesto que indica que cada palabra va a ser entendida, reconocida y utilizada por una persona que pueda vincularse con los valores y la identidad de su respectiva generación.

En mi estudio sobre la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones, la definición de evolución tiene un uso específico. Evolución en el sentido de cambio total, y no de algo que ya existe o que va transformándose a ser otra cosa con características similares. La definición de generaciones se refiere a una estructura de años que yo previamente delineé. Por ejemplo las generaciones en mi estudio se compone de tres, la primera es de 15-30 años, la segunda es de 31-55 años, y la tercera consiste de 56-80 años. A través de estos medios, y de mi encuesta quiero identificar la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones, y haciendo uso de estos medios identificar los cambios que hay entre estas generaciones.

Método de investigación

Para llevar a cabo mi estudio, investigue cuales eran las palabras coloquiales más usadas entre los tres tipos de generaciones que escoji y las dividí en dos categorías: coloquialismos antiguos y coloquialismos modernos. (Apéndice D). De las palabras que encontré, seleccioné veintiséis. También investigué y elabore una lista de la definición y el contexto en que son utilizadas de acuerdo a cada generación. (Apéndice C). Después formé un banco de las veintiséis palabras coloquiales y desarrollé una encuesta (Apéndice B). La encuesta constaba de dos preguntas claves y le pedía al participante seguir las instrucciones. La primera pregunta era ¿Cuál es tu edad? Y les especificó que seleccionaran entre las tres opciones de años. De 15-30 años, de 31-55 años, y de 56-80 años. Esto me ayudó a definir a que generación correspondían. La segunda pregunta fue ¿Cuáles de estas palabras usarias en tu vocabulario cotidiano para expresarte? Esto me ayudó a saber cuáles palabras coloquiales del banco de palabras usaban. Las instrucciones eran que, circulan las palabras que entendían y que utilizaban. Quince voluntarios tomaron mi encuesta, cinco de cada generación. La mayoría de los voluntarios de 15-30 años

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28 Slang (Jerga) - a variety speech “used in situations of extreme informality, often with rebellious undertones or an intention of distancing its users from certain midstream values” Finegan (1994, 373). A way of creating distance (i.e., from social norms) and promoting solidarity for members of a group Drake (1980).
eran estudiantes, los voluntarios de 31-55 años eran trabajadores29, y por último los voluntarios de 56-80 años simplemente han trabajado y han tenido que convivir entre más generaciones. A cada uno de ellos les expliqué de lo que se trataba mi estudio, y después que firmaran la hoja de autorización (Apéndice A) les volví a aclarar que tenían que circular sólo las palabras que entendían y que utilizaran. En cuanto las encuestas fueron finalizadas, las tome para estudiarlas, y analizarlas.

Tomé las encuestas y las dividí por generación, después para cada generación tome una lista de las palabras que fueron circuladas con más frecuencia. Seguí este mismo método para las otras dos generaciones. Después con esa información desarrollé una tabla correspondiente a la información y de aquí pude obtener mis resultados. (Apéndice E)

Resultados

Como dije anteriormente, los resultados de mi estudio fueron muy sorprendentes e inesperados. Al empezar mi estudio, tenía en mente que las palabras evolucionaban y que muchas de ellas eran olvidadas y dejaban de ser usadas. Los resultados de mi estudio comprobaron mi teoría principal que las palabras evolucionan y a veces dejan de ser utilizadas tras generaciones, pero también mis resultados crearon dos categorías más, las cuales no me lo esperaba. Descubrí que no sólo existe la evolución descendiente de coloquialismos, o sea de generación uno a generación dos a generación tres, sino que en mis resultados descubrí que hay un tipo de evolución que retrocede, o evoluciona al revés. Además descubrí que hay coloquialismos que no evolucionan y permanecen con nosotros tras generaciones. A continuación explicaré más a fondo los tres descubrimientos.

Parte 1

En la parte uno voy a explicar cómo es que mi teoría fue comprobada. En la Tabla 1 vemos todas las palabras y las frecuencias en la que fueron circuladas por las diferentes generaciones. Por ejemplo: El coloquialismo *Apapachar* fue circulado tres veces por la generación uno, dos veces por la generación dos, y una vez por la generación tres. Así sucesivamente, podemos darnos cuenta que de las veintiséis palabras coloquiales sólo diez comprueban mi teoría que existe una evolución. Estas palabras (que están subrayadas en rojo), fueron frecuentemente usadas por la generación uno, y a través de las generaciones fueron utilizadas con menos frecuencia hasta que la generación tres la utilizó menos, o simplemente la dejó de usar.

**Tabla 1:**

---

29 Trabajadores – Se refiere a que no asisten a la escuela, sino que son empleados de cualquier sector de trabajo.
En la parte dos voy a explicar el primer descubrimiento. Descubrí que los coloquialismos Modernos (véase Apéndice D) usualmente usados por la generación tres, son adquiridos, entendidos, y utilizados por las generaciones anteriores. En la Tabla 2 vemos que la generación tres, y la generación uno, tienen mucho parecido. Por ejemplo: El coloquialismo *Aguas* fue circulado cuatro veces por la generación tres, cuatro veces por la generación dos, y cinco veces por la generación uno. Esto significa que la generación antigua está adaptándose y usando los coloquialismos modernos con más frecuencia. O sea que envés de la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones también hay una evolución retrogresiva, de generación tres, a generación uno. De las veintiséis palabras coloquiales ocho de ellas (que están subrayadas en azul) respaldan este nuevo descubrimiento. 

**Tabla 2:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Generación 1 (56-80)</th>
<th>Generación 2 (31-55)</th>
<th>Generación 3 (15-30)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ahí nomas</td>
<td>X X</td>
<td></td>
<td>XXX XX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mismamente</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guay</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td>XXX X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masacar</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mosquito</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que cañón</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chido</td>
<td>X X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pelar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perro (no de familia)</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispania</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fregurere</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilesteise</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que le haces</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chule</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recibirse</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liviano</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escuchar</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orfe</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutado (no el verbo)</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresca (no la fruta)</td>
<td>XX</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prieto</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rospedaie</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aguas</td>
<td>XXX XXX X</td>
<td>XXX XXX X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chela</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ya mi la avellanas</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chesco</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>XXX</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
En la parte tres voy a explicar mi segundo descubrimiento. También descubrí que los coloquialismos no sólo evolucionan descendientemente, y que tampoco sólo lo hacen al revés, sino que a veces no hay ningún tipo de movimiento o evolución tras generaciones. En la Tabla 3 podemos ver que siete de de las veintiséis palabras no han cambiado, las tres generaciones siguen entendiendo e usando estos coloquialismos. Por ejemplo: El coloquialismo *Esculcar* fue circulado dos veces por la generación uno, dos veces por la generación dos, y tres veces por la generación tres. Estas siete palabras (que están subrayadas en verde) respaldan este otro nuevo descubrimiento.

### Tabla 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GENERACION 1 56-80</th>
<th>GENERACION 2 31-55</th>
<th>GENERACION 3 15-30</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ahí nomas</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mismamente</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gúey</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apechear</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mosquear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que cañón</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chido</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaseosa</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Padre (no de familia)</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tlapalería</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figúrate</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dilatarse</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que se hacemos</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chale</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recibirse</td>
<td></td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liviano</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esculcar</td>
<td></td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sílale</td>
<td></td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mande (no el verbo)</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fresa (no la fruta)</td>
<td>× ×</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prieto</td>
<td>×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospedaje</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Águas</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chale</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ya ni la amuelas</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chesco</td>
<td>× × ×</td>
<td>× × × ×</td>
<td>×</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Análisis**

Podemos concluir que sí existe la evolución de coloquialismos en diferentes generaciones. La generaciones tres, ya no está utilizando las palabras que la generación uno utiliza. Algunos de ellos olvidan estas palabras, o por la razón que ya pasaron de moda, o les ocasiona vergüenza al utilizarlas se quedaron en el olvido. Aparte descubri que también existe un tipo de evolución que retrocede, o evoluciona en forma inversa de la generación tres hacia la generación uno. Esto nos indica que nuestros padres o abuelos están usando las palabras que nosotros, la generación tres utilizamos hoy día. Tal vez esto lo hacen para sentirse más juveniles o que quieren estar a la moda con la generación nueva. En el estudio de Moore (2004) su conclusión dice que “Basic slang typically arises within the context of a youth culture and in its earliest usage serves to highlight value differences between young and old” lo cual quiere decir que la jerga básica normalmente surge en el contexto de una cultura de los jóvenes y en sus primeros usos sirve para resaltar las diferencias de valores entre los jóvenes y los viejos. Esta conclusión de Moore está en parte en desacuerdo con la de mi estudio. La jerga básica sí surge en el contexto de los jóvenes, y también resaltan las diferencias entre jóvenes y viejos, mi descubrimiento indica que la generación uno usa los coloquialismos de la generación tres pero tal vez nuestros abuelos no quieren que exista o que resalte tal diferencia de valores por eso es que están adaptando estos coloquialismos. También descubri que hay coloquialismos que no evolucionan y permanecen con nosotros en diferentes generaciones. Estos son las palabras que todas las generaciones usamos en común. Me deleite cuanto obtuve estos resultados porque significa que hay un balance, algo neutro en la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones. Así, si todos utilizamos los mismos
coloquialismos no tendríamos que clasificar lo antiguo con lo moderno. Este estudio es muy interesante, pero tenemos que tomar en cuenta que sólo hubo cinco voluntarios de cada generación y claro que no representan a todos los que componen cada generación, y aquí es donde pueden ocurrir errores que alterarán los resultados. Se debería hacer investigación más afondo con más voluntarios. También sería bueno que tomaran a una población con un vocabulario análogo como voluntarios. Otra cosa que hay que tomar en cuenta es que los coloquialismos que escogí provienen de un lugar específico de México, así que no todos mis voluntarios entendían los coloquialismos de la encuesta.

Agradecimientos

Me gustaría tomar este medio para agradecer principalmente a mi familia por su apoyo en todo. También muy importante a los estudiantes de la clase de Lingüística del 2007 por hacer un buen trabajo y servir como guías para los siguientes alumnos de de esta clase. Algunos trabajos que fueron muy útiles para completar mi estudio fueron los de Julie Portillo y el de Alfonso Rodríguez. Sin olvidarme de la gran ayuda mi compañero de clase Joel Zárate y del profesor Jeffrey Reeder.

Referencias


Apéndice A

La Evolución de Coloquialismos Tras Generaciones.

Información general sobre el estudio:
Mi nombre es Martha Rico, soy estudiante de español en la Universidad Estatal de California en Sonoma. Estoy cursando la clase de Lingüística, y es requerido hacer un proyecto de investigación. La encuesta que usted va a tomar es parte del proyecto y va a ser utilizada para usos académicos.

¿Quién verá la información del estudio?
La información del estudio será utilizado sólo para usos académicos.

¿Qué tengo que hacer para participar?
1. Leer ésta hoja de información y firmar la autorización.
2. Tomar la encuesta adjunta.

¿Qué va a pasar con la información que doy?
La información coleccionada va a ser analizada para determinar la evolución de coloquialismos tras generaciones.

¿Puedo ver los resultados?
¡Por supuesto! Mi estudio estará terminado el 8 de Diciembre del 2009. También tendremos una exposición de este y otros trabajos de lingüística el 8 y 10 de Diciembre. Si desean más información sobre estas fechas, favor de escribir su nombre y correo electrónico para ponerlos al tanto.

¿Con quién debo comunicarme si tengo preguntas sobre el estudio?
Puede comunicarse conmigo:
Martha Rico
(707) 536-3550

AUTORIZACIÓN:
Yo he leído la información en esta hoja sobre el estudio. Entiendo que mi participación es completamente voluntaria y no recibiré ningún tipo de compensación por mi participación. Entiendo que la información que doy va a ser utilizada para un estudio e incluido en un ensayo formal. Entiendo que si tengo preguntas sobre el estudio puedo comunicarme con la investigadora.
Apéndice B

¿Cuál es tu edad? 15-30  31-55  56-80

¿Cuáles de estas palabras usarías en tu Vocabulario cotidiano para expresarte?

Circula las palabras que entiendes y que usas.

Ahí nomas  Mismamente  Güey  Apapachar
Mosquear  Que cañón  Chido  Gaseosa
Padre (no de familia)  Tlapalería  Figúrate
Dilatarse  Que le hacemos  Chale  Recibirse
Liviano  Esculcar  Órale  Mande (no el verbo)
Fresa (no la fruta)  Prieto  Hospedaje  Aguas
Chela  Ya ni la amuelas  Chesco
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Translation</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mismamente</strong></td>
<td>Precisamente, exactamente.</td>
<td>¡<strong>Mismamente</strong> te iba a decir que te fueras hoy!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Güey</strong></td>
<td>Término informal entre amigos.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: ¿No vas a ir a jugar futbol <strong>güey</strong>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Apapachar</strong></td>
<td>acariciar, abrazar.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: A mi gato le <strong>apapachen</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mosquear</strong></td>
<td>Molestarse fácilmente sin motivo.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: Tú te <strong>mosqueas</strong> fácilmente sin motivo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Que cañón</strong></td>
<td>Expresión sobre algo difícil o fuete.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: <strong>Que cañón</strong> esta la situación de Mayra, pensar que ya no tiene donde vivir.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chido</strong></td>
<td>Estupendo, maravilloso.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: ¡<strong>Chido</strong> esta tu CD de rock!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gaseosa</strong></td>
<td>Bebida con gas.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: ¡Señor, me <strong>podría</strong> dar una <strong>gaseosa</strong> de limón por favor!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Padre (no de familia)</strong></td>
<td>Bueno, excelente, chido.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: El carro de la Rosi está bien <strong>padre</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tlapalería</strong></td>
<td>Tienda de herramientas.</td>
<td>¡Ramiro, ve a la <strong>tlapalería</strong> a traerme unos clavos!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Figúrate</strong></td>
<td>Imagínate o imagináteme, aparentar.</td>
<td><strong>Figúrate</strong> que no hemos ido al a casa de mi amigo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dilatarse</strong></td>
<td>Demorar, tardarse.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: No hay que <strong>dilatarse</strong> porque la misa está por comenzar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Que le hacemos</strong></td>
<td>Expresión para decir que no se puede hacer nada al respecto.</td>
<td>¿Vas a trabajar hasta la noche? --Pues si, <strong>que le hacemos</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Chale</strong></td>
<td>No, de ninguna manera.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: <strong>Chale</strong>, jefa los frijoles salieron bien salados.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recibirse</strong></td>
<td>Graduar(se), titular(se).</td>
<td>¡Mi Juanito va a <strong>recibirse</strong> de Doctor en unos Meses!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Liviano</strong></td>
<td>De poco peso, ligero.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: Toma, carga este que está más <strong>liviano</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Esculcar</strong></td>
<td>Registrar, buscar.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: ¡Hijo, ni me vallas a <strong>esculcar</strong> mi bolsa porque no te voy a dar dinero!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Órale</strong></td>
<td>Palabra para expresar que estás de acuerdo, o para indicar molestia.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: ¿Te veo a las cinco? --¡<strong>Órale</strong>!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mande (no el verbo)</strong></td>
<td>Voz de respeto usada para responder a quien llama o para pedir que se repita algo.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: Laura díme como se apaga la tele. -¿<strong>Mande</strong>?- Que me digas como se apaga la tele.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fresa (no la fruta)</strong></td>
<td>Persona adinerada o de clase alta(o que aparenta serlo), una persona creída.</td>
<td>Ejemplo: Esa vieja es bien <strong>fresa</strong>, no te va a hacer caso.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prieto</strong></td>
<td>Color oscuro, de color manchado.</td>
<td>¡Ya no te comas ese fruto, está muy...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
prieto!

**Hospedaje** -- Albergue, alojamiento, estancia. Señor, ¿me podría dar hospedaje en su casa por esta noche?

**Aguas** – Avisar, advertir a alguien a tener cuidado. Ejemplo: ¡Aguas, güey no te vayas a cortar con la navaja!

**Chela** – Cerveza. Ejemplo: Oyes, pásame otra chela.

**Ya ni la amuelas** – Expresión de alguien que te dice, que estás o hiciste las cosas mal. Ejemplo: Ya ni la amuelas, ¿cómo te atreviste a darle la carne ala león?

**Chesco** – Soda, refresco. Ya no tomo chesco, porque me duela la pansa.

### Apéndice D

#### COLOQUIALISMOS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Antiguos</th>
<th>Modernos</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mismamente</td>
<td>Que cañón</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Chido</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Padre (no de familia)</td>
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<td>Chale</td>
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<td>Aguas</td>
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<td>Que le hacemos</td>
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<td>Prieto</td>
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Apéndice E
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<tr>
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<td>X</td>
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Spanish-English Code Switching in George Lopez’s Stand-Up Comedy

Lindsey Rose

Sonoma State University
Abstract

In this study I examine George Lopez's standup comedy routine and show how he uses Spanish-English code switching to his advantage for comedic value. I also include in my research a brief history on Spanish-English code switching, the difference between 'Spanglish' and Spanish-English code switching, and the comprehension of the standup routine by a monolingual English speaker, a English-Spanish bilingual of Anglo-Saxon descent, a Spanish-English bilingual of Mexican descent, and a monolingual Spanish speaker. I will include why in some cases Lopez decides to use English or Spanish, and what kind of audience he is entertaining. My research shows that in order to fully comprehend George Lopez's standup comedy routine you have to be bilingual. Only the bilinguals, either of Mexican descent, or Anglo-Saxon, enjoy his comedy. The monolinguals of either language do not; they cannot understand his jokes, and do not appreciate them. The monolinguals found the jokes offensive, and would not even attend a George Lopez comedy routine if it was free. George Lopez is a favored comedian for Mexican-American bilinguals, and his use of Spanish-English code switching aids in reaching this audience.

Sinopsis

En este estudio examino el numero de comedia de George López y muestro como él se lo usa el cambio de código entre Español e inglés como una ventaja para su muestro. También incluyo una historia breve sobre el cambio de código entre Español e inglés, las diferencias entre 'spanglish' y el cambio de código entre español e inglés, y la comprensión de su muestro de una personal monolingüe de inglés, un bilingüe mexicano, un bilingüe americano, y una personal monolingüe de español. Incluyera la razón porque en unos casos López decide hablar en inglés o español, y a cual tipo de público el quiere divertir. La investigación dio los resultados siguientes: solamente personas bilingües comprenden la comedia de George López, los monolingües no les gustan porque no lo entienden, y creían que los chistes son insultantes. Los monolingües ni siquiera querrían atender una muestra de comedia de López si fuera gratis. George López es un cómico solamente favorecido por bilingües, especialmente bilingües mexicanos americanos, y su usa de cambio de código entre inglés y español le ayuda a alcanzar a este público.

Introduction

George Lopez is increasingly famous Mexican-American comedian and actor. He was born in Mission Hills, Los Angeles, California and raised by his grandmother and step-grandfather. With the help of his self-produced show, The George Lopez Show, on ABC Family, he is recognized throughout many American's homes, regardless of ethnicity. He now also has a late night talk show, Lopez Tonight. Lopez started his career doing stand-up comedy. The basis for the majority of his jokes is his Latino background. He is known for hilarious impressions of his family members and stories about his childhood. He has released two HBO specials, America’s Mexican (which I used for my study), and Tall, Dark, and Chicano, and one Showtime special Why You Crying? (Wikipedia, December 6, 2009). I hope to accomplish in my study a better understanding of Lopez's stand-up comedy, which portrays much more controversial topics than his show. I also hope to aid in an increased appreciation for the cultural concepts he awakens through his use of Spanish-English code
switching. Spanish-English code switching and "Spanglish" are two very different phenomena. While Lopez does have a skit in his America's Mexican DVD titled 'Spanglish', he is actually mistaken in his description of the term. His example of Spanglish is indeed code switching. "Code-switching, or language mixing, occurs when a word or phrase in one language substitutes for a word or phrase in a second language" (Heredia, Altarriba, 2001, 164). Also, "[...] it appears that speakers who code-switch are competent in the syntactic rules of both languages" (Pfaff, 2000, 314). Code switchers simply switch from language to language. "Spanglish" is more specific, as it is literally a hybrid between Spanish and English and can be directly identified in certain words. For example 'referido' for referral, 'yardas' for yards, or 'gangas' for gangs are all used by people who speak Spanish, but aren't technically Spanish words (Radial 2005, 61). "Spanglish" is "[...] spoken (or broken) by many of the approximately 35 million people of Hispanic descent in the United States, who, no longer fluent in the language of Cervantes, have not yet mastered that of Shakespeare" (Stavans 2000, 1). Stavans also suggests that the "Spanglish" phenomena may have begun as early as 1803, "Between 1803, when Thomas Jefferson negotiated the Louisiana Purchase, and 1848, when the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo signed over almost one-third of Mexico's land to the United States, Anglo arrivals created a dialogue between English and Spanish, beginning a tentative merging of the two tongues" (Stavans 2000, 2). Many studies have been done on both "Spanglish" and Spanish-English code switching (Stavans 2000, 6), (Torbido 2002, 89-119), (Ardila 2005, 60-81), (Pfaff 1979, 291-318), (Costa, Santesteban, Ivanova 2006, 1057-1074), (Lipski 2005, 1-15), (Heredia and Altarriba 2001, 164-168). Also, the famous linguist, John Gumperz did some work on code-switching, "John Gumperz, is his seminal 1982 work on discursive strategies, notes the important functions achieved by code switching. The premise underlying early studies was that code switching is always a conscious choice on the part of the speaker" (Torbino 2002, 92-93). One study has been done on Lopez's sitcom, The George Lopez Show: the same old Hispano? In Bilingual Review, by John Markert. "This study of The George Lopez Show seeks to assess how Latinos are presented on contemporary television. The premise is that the show is successful in part because it reflects the general view of Hispanics prevalent in the wider society" (Markert 2004, 2). The previously mentioned studies aided in my understanding of the differences between Spanglish and code switching, however, I wanted to create a new study unlike the ones that I had previously seen. My study is unique in which I chose to specifically study the code switching phenomena present in the George Lopez DVD America's Mexican and assessing the comprehension of the four viewers as previously mentioned.

Method

In order to study Lopez's use of Spanish-English code switching, my first step was to buy the DVD of his HBO Special, America's Mexican. I watched it and manually recorded every time he switched from Spanish to English, as well as words he used that were neither Spanish nor English. I then separately showed the DVD to 4 individuals, one a monolingual English Speaker, one an English-Spanish bilingual, a Spanish-English bilingual, and a monolingual Spanish speaker. After they watched it I had them each complete an assessment of their understanding and opinion of the show. I then collated my data and compiled the assessments.
## Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phenomena</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Words in DVD</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Words in chapter names of DVD</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unknown words</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish Cuss Words in DVD</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of times Lopez says ‘Latino’ in Spanish accent</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Graph showing funniness, comprehension, and feelings of insult across different language types](image-url)
Discussion

Lopez primarily switches to Spanish when he is telling a funny story about his family. The majority (97%) of his act, however, is in English. Only 3% of the total words spoken were Spanish, approximately 23% of them swear words. He also uses a few unknown words, and says the word ‘Latino’ in a Spanish accent. The unknown words did not qualify as Spanglish, but rather were English words that do not exist like ‘hided’ and ‘nowheres’. Latino is spelled the same in English and Spanish, and Lopez’s deliberate use of his Spanish accent when saying ‘Latinos’ was another means of portraying his bilingualism and culture. Bilinguals such as Lopez code switch for a variety of reasons. Lopez spoke Spanish at home with his grandparents, English at school in class, and a mixture of both socially (Lopez America’s Mexican). This is typical for many Hispanic-Americans. “Spanish-English bilinguals […] typically receive their formal education in English, and most of their personal interaction and communication with other bilinguals takes place in Spanish or in both languages” (Heredia and Altarriba 2001, 165). Three out of four of the subjects in Torbío’s 2002 study reported they code switched because ‘there is no translation for a concept’ and ‘I might not know a word’ (Torbío 2002, 92,100,107,112). Other possibilities that some subjects stated were ‘it allows me to express myself more fully’, ‘just because I can’, and ‘to express emotion’. These findings lead to an fascinating phenomena, “[...] the quantity and quality of code-switching attested varied considerably [...]” and, more significantly, with their differing attitudes toward code alternation and its role in establishing their sociocultural identity” (Torbío 2002, 115). This could very well be the case with Lopez’s code switches. Some individuals in Torbío’s study felt it was a sign of being in a poor socioeconomic class to code switch (Torbío, 2002, 100), which would reflect on Lopez’s stories of being poor growing up (Lopez America’s Mexican). Lopez also may code switch simply because of the fast pace of his speaking. “Switching to English makes it easier and faster to retrieve the word” (Heredia and Altarriba 2001, 165). Or, since his direct memories were spoken with the use of code switching, he retells them using code-switching. “The research we have reviewed suggests that language accessibility may be the key factor in code switching” (Heredia and Altarriba 2001, 167). Either way, the rate and frequency of the code-switching comes very naturally for Lopez. As previously shown, the bilingual subjects in my study understood, found funny, and did not feel very insulted by Lopez’s comedy. The monolinguals in my study did not understand, did not find funny, and felt insulted. The interesting phenomena are that although there was not very much actual Spanish spoken in the DVD, the monolingual English speaker did not feel as though he could understand the routine. Also, although the monolingual Spanish speaker felt as though he could not understand any of the routine (except for the bad words, although there were not as many as one would think), he still did not feel insulted. The reasons for these phenomena are unclear and difficult to explore further, however it is definitely the cultural differences that caused the monolingual English speaker to feel insulted and feel as though he could not understand it. The bilinguals enjoyed Lopez’s comedy very much. They felt as though they could relate to the concepts in his jokes on a personal level. The Spanish-English bilingual in particular could directly relate her childhood experiences to some of Lopez’s stories. She also expressed...
the normalcy of Spanish-English code switching in day to day life, directly reflecting Lopez’s act.

Conclusion

Concluding my study, I discovered George Lopez does use Spanish-English code switching to his advantage for comedic value to specifically hit home for his favored audience: Spanish-English bilinguals. He does not use “Spanglish”, and he code-switches very rapidly and easily, directly reflecting the types of communication that occurred in his home as a child. The cultural factors in his comedy are what make it difficult for monolinguals to understand, not necessarily the switches between Spanish and English. The results of my study speak to how easily and quickly one judge a comedian, especially a comedian of a different culture. Hearing a few Spanish words made the monolingual English speaker feel as though half of the DVD was in Spanish and it was impossible for him to understand the jokes. The monolingual Spanish speaker could not even understand why I was showing him a DVD where he felt as though the only words he understood were the swear words. The stories Lopez tells are familiar to some, but many others, having never been exposed to that culture, might find them offensive. Just as there is an ‘American’ culture, the fact is our country is a mix of many cultures. Mexican-Americans choose to keep many of their traditions while adding new ones, therefore transforming into a new type of culture. With this change comes a change in language. Language and Culture are very much intertwined, as language is the means of communication within a culture. Mexican-American culture cannot be considered anything other than the two cultures combined, so the mix of Spanish and English is completely reasonable and understandable given the blend of both cultures. George Lopez has done and continues to do well in portraying the reality of his culture, and making light of some difficult topics. His fans thank him for it, which can be seen in how popular he has become. He has also helped to pave the way for other Mexican-American and Latino comedians and actors. I hope my study has helped raised awareness about the importance of the exposure to as many different cultures as possible, even cultures present and intertwined with our own.

Acknowledgments

Many thanks to the subjects who participated in my study: Derek Baum, Diane Rose, Mireya Madrigal and Gilberto Santos Cruz. Also, thank you to George Lopez for being such a great comedian.

References


**Appendix**

1) Do you find this skit funny? Rate on a scale of 1-10, 10 being very funny 1 being not funny at all:

¿Cree usted que ese chiste era chistoso? Indique abajo sus sentimientos en la calificación de 1 a 10 con 1 representando que no le gustó el chiste y no era chistoso, y 10 representa que le gustó muchísimo y fue muy chistoso:

1---2---3---4---5---6---7---8---9---10
2) Did you understand every word he spoke? 1 signifies that you understood none of the words, while 10 represent you understood all of the words. ¿Se entendió usted perfectamente cada palabra que él dijo? 1 significa que entendió ninguna de las palabras 10 representa que entendió todas de las palabras.

1---2---3---4---5---6---7---8---9---10

3) Did you feel at all insulted or uncomfortable with this joke? 1 represents feeling very insulted/uncomfortable 10 represents not insulted in the slightest. ¿Se sintió usted incomodo o ofendido? 1 representa sintiendo muy incomodo y ofendido 10 representa que no había ningún problema y no tiene sentimentos negativos:

1---2---3---4---5---6---7---8---9---10

Notes/ Notas:

Short Answer
1) Would you buy tickets to see a George Lopez standup comedy event? Explain why or why not. ¿Compraría usted boletos para ver a George Lópe en vivo? Explique porque si o porque no.

2) Would you go see a George Lopez show if it were free? Explain why or why not. ¿Iría usted a una muestra de George López si fuera gratis? Explique porque si o porque no.

3) How would you feel if the jokes were exactly the same but George Lopez was white? Please elaborate. ¿Como sintiera usted si los chistes de George López fueran exactamente lo mismo si él fuera Americano? Por favor explique.

4) Do you believe his use of Spanish-English code switching is good for his act (i.e. aids in comedic value) or actually hinders his comedic abilities? Explain. ¿Cree usted que el uso de español e inglés en la muestra es Buena o mala? ¿Hace que la muestra es más chistosa o menos chistosa? Explique.

5) What is your opinion of George overall? What do you believe he represents? Elaborate and explain. ¿Que es su opinión de George sobretodo? ¿Qué representa el? Explique largamente por favor.
Target language pragmatics in L1 English learners of Spanish and L1 Spanish learners of English: a comparative study

Karina Rousseau

Sonoma State University
Abstract

This study focuses on a small sample of students at Santa Rosa Junior College (SRJC) in Sonoma County, California, who are either native speakers of Spanish learning English or native speakers of English learning Spanish. By providing them with a brief situational-based survey, this study assesses and compares the students’ developing pragmatic abilities by examining how they are learning to ask questions in their second language. As residents of California, the relevance of pragmatics and bilingualism in Spanish and English are of particular importance to these participants. Although more than half of Californians over the age of five speak English, according to the 2006-2008 American Community Survey (performed by the U.S. Government Census Bureau) close to 30% of this population speaks Spanish at home. As the population of Spanish-speakers in this area continues to rise, individuals with well-rounded pragmatic abilities in both Spanish and English may be at an advantage economically and socially in the near future.

Sinopsis

Este estudio se enfoca en un pequeño grupo de estudiantes en Santa Rosa Junior College (SRJC), en el condado de Sonoma, California, que son hablantes nativos de español que están aprendiendo inglés, o son hablantes nativos de inglés que están aprendiendo español. Por el uso de una encuesta breve que consiste de situaciones, este estudio evalúa y compara las habilidades en la pragmática de los estudiantes, por el método de examinar cómo ellos están aprendiendo a preguntar cuestiones en sus segundas lenguas. Como residentes de California, la relevancia de la pragmática y bilingüismo en español y inglés tiene una importancia especial para éstos participantes. Aunque más de medio de la población de California que tiene más edad de cinco años habla inglés, según una encuesta hizo por el Departamento de Censo del Gobierno de los Estados Unidos (se llama American Community Survey), cerca de 30% de ésta población habla español en el hogar. Como la población de hispanohablantes en esta área continúa a crecer, individuos que tienen habilidades fuertes en la pragmática en español y inglés podrían tener más oportunidades económicas y sociales en el futuro no muy lejano.

Introduction

This study is based on a previous study performed in 2007 by Barış Kahraman and Derya Akkuş, titled "The Use of Request Expressions by Turkish Learners of Japanese". In their study, Kahraman and Akkuş examined the pragmatic abilities of Turkish learners of Japanese by analyzing Turkish students’ use of request acts in Japanese. I chose to follow the method of examining student responses in a learned language as laid out by Kahraman and Akkuş, because as a native speaker of English who has spent the last few years learning Spanish in a classroom setting,
I have had the most difficulty with understanding pragmatics and as such this study has great relevance for me.

The study by Kahraman and Akkuş was rare in its focus on Turkish learners of Japanese, a group of which there has been little attention in terms of linguistic study. However, their study also falls under the area of the study of pragmatics in the second language, of which there is a dearth of information and scholarly dedication. A general explanation of the study of pragmatics is that it is how the entire context of an interaction affects its meaning and interpretation. As a learner, it can be very difficult to master pragmatics in a second language, and thus one of the common areas of study within pragmatics is how it relates to and is developed by L2 learners of another language. “As the study of second language learning, interlanguage pragmatics investigates how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform action in a target language” (Kasper and Rose 2002).

The study by Kahraman and Akkuş examines pragmatic abilities of L2 learners through the use of request acts, which are a type of speech act that basically amount to the act of asking a question. Request acts are commonly used in second language study for multiple reasons, for one because they “are useful and occur frequently, especially among learners of a new language” (Achiba 2003), and also because “requests occur in particularly useful contexts for the investigation of the development of a learner’s pragmatic competence,” (Achiba 2003). By surveying groups of students and analyzing how they performed request acts, Kahraman and Akkuş found that most of the students had an easier time requesting from a teacher but, due to pragmatic failure, these same students were not as successful when requesting from a friend. The authors suggest that the students’ pragmatic failure in one area over another may be the result of narrow textbook material and also a limited context in which the students are learning.

This study will examine how L1 English and L1 Spanish students perform request acts in formal and informal situations in their second languages of Spanish and English, respectively. It will also focus on any recurring errors made by each group of students and whether any of these errors are common between the two groups. Due to my own experience as someone who has studied another language within the context of formal education, I expect to find similar results to Kahraman and Akkuş, which is to say that I expect participants from both groups of students to have an easier time requesting in a formal situation (although they may still make some mistakes), than in an informal situation, as a result of pragmatic failure and learning in a more formally-oriented context.

**Method**

Following the study by Kahraman and Akkuş I created a survey with two situations which were almost identical to theirs, with a few exceptions: instead of being in Turkish and Japanese the surveys are in Spanish and English; the wording is slightly different; and there are two versions of the survey for two different groups of language learners rather than just one survey for one type of group. The participants, all of whom are students at SRJC, included 10 native English speaking students taking an intermediate level Spanish class (Spanish 4), and 10 native
Spanish speaking students taking an intermediate level English as a Second Language class (ESL 12). All of the survey, including the instructions and each situation, was written in the participants’ native languages, (although oral instruction was given in their second languages as requested by their professors). They were asked to respond to the survey by writing in their second languages. For example, a native speaker of Spanish would receive a survey written entirely in Spanish but they would be asked to write their own responses to the survey in English. The students were given as much time as was needed to respond thoroughly to both situations, which took about five to ten minutes depending on the student. The survey situations were as follows, with the version received by the L1 Spanish participants in parentheses:

1. How would you ask a teacher for help with a homework assignment? 
   (¿Cómo pediría ayuda a un maestro con una tarea?)
2. How would you ask a good friend for money to buy a soda? 
   (¿Cómo pediría dinero a un buen amigo para comprar un refresco?)

The surveys were collected and read by native speakers of whichever language the responses were in. I read the responses in English that were written by native Spanish speakers, and for every error found I categorized it as a grammatical error, a lexical error, a lexicosemantic error, or pragmatic failure. For the responses that were in Spanish by the native speakers of English, I had a friend of mine who grew up in Mexico City and is a native Spanish speaker help me go through the responses, identify errors and categorize them in the same way. We also noted whether a response was completely correct.

In addition, I created a scale from one to five by which to judge the “natural feel” of a response. Each response for both situations was given a number to indicate whether it felt like something which would likely be said by a native speaker of that language in that particular situation. A five indicated an excellent response which we felt could be said by a native speaker of the language in that situation. A one indicated a poor response which either felt very unnatural or did not convey any logical meaning. This portion of the analysis of the responses was less technical and more individually feeling-based but gives a rough idea of a respondent’s pragmatic competence in each situation.

Results

In Situation 1, eight out of ten L1 English participants (80%) responded correctly. The remaining two L1 English participants (20%) made four errors in Situation 1, which were mostly grammatical errors (75%). There was also one instance of pragmatic failure (25%). In situation 2 the students made significantly more errors, with only three out of ten L1 English participants (37.5%) answering correctly. The remaining seven participants made twenty mistakes, many of which, (as in Situation 1) were grammatical errors (40%), followed by lexicosemantic errors (30%), five instances of pragmatic failure (25%) and one instance of lexical error (5%).
Of the L1 Spanish students, two gave correct responses to Situation 1 and zero responded correctly to Situation 2. The types of errors made by the L1 Spanish participants were considerably different than those made by the L1 English participants in both Situations 1 and 2. In Situation 1, seven out of 14 errors were grammatical (50%), five were cases of pragmatic failure (about 36%) and there was one instance each of lexical and lexico-semantic error (about 7% each). In Situation 2 the L1 Spanish participants made twenty errors, exactly as many as were made by the L1 English students in Situation 2, although the types of errors differed. In Situation 2 the L1 Spanish participants made seven grammatical errors (35%), six lexical errors (30%), 5 lexico-semantic errors (25%), and there were two instances of pragmatic failure (10%).

Figure 1: Breakdown of types of errors made by both groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Correct</th>
<th>Grammatical</th>
<th>Lexical</th>
<th>Lexico Semantic</th>
<th>Pragmatic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>L1 English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation 1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>L1 Spanish</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Percentages of Incorrect Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Situation 1</th>
<th>Situation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>L1 English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Situation 1</th>
<th>Situation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>L1 Spanish</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation 1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total*</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*rounded to nearest whole percentage
As the L1 English participants had more correct responses to both situations, they also scored higher on the “Natural Feel Scale” as well, with eight out of ten of the respondents scoring a five for Situation 1. However, only three out of ten received a five for their response to Situation 2.

Results for the L1 Spanish participants were spread more evenly on the “Natural Feel Scale”, with two out of ten responses receiving ones and two out of ten responses receiving fives for Situation 1. Not one response received a five for Situation 2.

Figure 3: Scale of “Natural Feel” (one indicating an unnatural sounding response and five indicating a very natural sounding response)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 1</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1 English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1 English</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 1</th>
<th>5</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1 Spanish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation 2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1 Spanish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Although the results from both groups differed considerably in terms of what types of errors the participants made and how often they made them, what is most significant about the results overall is that most of the participants from both groups had an easier time responding to Situation 1 (in which they had to request from a teacher), than they did responding to Situation 2 (in which they had to request from a friend). As found in the study by Kahraman and Akkuş, this is probably due to the fact that the participants are learning their second language in a classroom environment and so have already had experience requesting from a teacher in this language. In addition, and also as noted by Kahraman and Akkuş, the participant’s textbooks likely focus on the more formal aspects of their second language than the informal possibilities.

Some of the best examples of correct responses by the L1 English participants for Situation 1 occurred several times, for example “¿Por favor, puede ayudarme con la...”
tarea?" occurred twice, and a similar response using the conditional tense of poder instead of the present tense form in the exact same phrase occurred once, “Por favor, podria ayudarme con la tarea?” For the L1 Spanish participants, an example of a correct response for Situation 1 was, “Could you help me with my homework please?” which occurred only once. There were no duplicate correct responses to Situation 1 by the L1 Spanish participants.

In both situations 1 and 2, incorrect responses by the L1 Spanish participants were mostly due to grammatical errors, more specifically errors within the subject-verb order, incorrect conjugations of verbs, and missing verbs altogether. For example, one participant’s incorrect response to Situation 1 was, "You can help me with my homework?" and their response to Situation 2 was “You can give me a money because I buy a soda and I paid tomorrow.” Both responses have incorrect subject-verb order with the subject “you” and the verb “can” and both responses lack the word "please", which makes them pragmatically incorrect. The response to Situation 2 had additional errors, including missing a verb between “I” and “paid tomorrow”. Their response to Situation 2 also lacked a question mark, a common punctuation error which was made by many of the L1 Spanish participants in both responses.

Also interesting are the errors that both groups had in common. Many of the L1 Spanish students had difficulty with the verbs “to borrow” and “to lend” in their responses to Situation 2, either misspelling these words (lexical error) or substituting the verb “to give” in their place (pragmatic failure). Likewise, many of the L1 English students either did not know or chose not to use the verb prestar in their responses to Situation 2, and instead used the verb dar, which was a case of pragmatic failure. A limited vocabulary could explain this similarity between the two groups, as it is possible that neither has heard or had much experience using verbs specifically related to borrowing or lending in their second language, whereas the verbs “to give” and dar are broader in meaning and thus probably more commonly taught to language learners in school.

Finally, it is relevant to note that the L1 English participants overall had more correct answers to both situations than the L1 Spanish participants and that many of the L1 Spanish participants made grammatical errors in their responses to both situations whereas in comparison the L1 English participants rarely did so. This may be due to differences in the educational opportunities and backgrounds of both groups. Indeed, research shows that in many Latin American countries, “…the equality, quality (including effectiveness, equity, and efficiency), and relevance of educational provision continue to be critical issues, especially now that Latin American states are financially pressed. Elementary and secondary schooling continue to be segregated by class, with the poor attending public schools, while middle- and upper-class students are largely educated at private institutions” (Torres and Puiggrós 1995).

It is possible that native speakers of English living in the United States, such as the L1 English participants, have received a stronger and more grammatically-focused education in school, whereas students who have grown up in Spanish-speaking countries, such as the L1 Spanish participants, and are now living in the United States may have had fewer opportunities to study grammar (or have had fewer
educational opportunities period), while they were learning their first language. Nevertheless, both groups of participants had a common link through having more correct responses to Situation 1 than to Situation 2.

Conclusion

The factors that may have influenced my results in this study are practically limitless, as each participant has a unique background which could have affected their responses in myriad ways. As a small introductory study with little participant background information, their responses serve not as a general reflection of how their language group at large might respond to such situations as those posed in the survey, but serve more as an indicator of how second language learning and teaching could be improved in classes such as ESL 12 and Spanish 4 at SRJC, and perhaps within the greater school system at large.

In their study, Kahraman and Akkuş note that limited textbook material may have affected their participants having an easier time requesting in formal rather than informal situations, and as a solution they suggest, "In addition to the main textbook, different request styles in different situations which are expressed by different linguistic forms can be provided as an input to TLJ in the classes. To achieve this, Japanese movies, TV programs, novels and the like may be useful" (Kahraman and Akkuş 2007). I believe the participants from this study might also benefit from improved textbooks and broader supplementary materials to enhance their pragmatic competence in the second language. In addition, I believe a wonderful solution to improving informal pragmatic skills in my participants would be to create a time for them to interact and practice each other’s languages in an informal setting. Perhaps in lieu of an extra homework assignment or required language laboratory hours my participants could receive credit for meeting with one another outside of class time for informal conversations. The future reality is that people like the participants from the two groups in this study will be interacting in a bilingual setting whether formally or informally more and more often as demographics in California continue to change. It would behoove the participants and others like them to have a strong grasp on pragmatics in the formal as well as informal areas of their second languages.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Santa Rosa Junior College professors Raquel Rasor and Susan Ackerman and the students in their ESL 12 and Spanish 4 classes for participating in my study, as well as Arturo Peñaran, Joel Zárate and Sonoma State University Professor Jeffrey Reeder.

References


**Appendix**

Survey for L1 English participants:

1. How would you ask a teacher for help with a homework assignment?
2. How would you ask a good friend for money to buy a soda?

Survey for L1 Spanish participants:

1. ¿Cómo pediría ayuda a un maestro con una tarea?
2. ¿Cómo pediría dinero a un buen amigo para comprar un refresco?
Los juicios de gramaticalidad del indefinido y del imperfecto en el español de L1 y L2

Christina M. Sabuco

Sonoma State University
**Sinopsis**

Hoy en día mucha gente quiere aprender español. Surge la duda de si quienes estudian español manejan bien la gramática y, especialmente, los verbos que supuestamente cambian de significado cuando se conjugan en el pretérito indefinido o en el pretérito imperfecto. El énfasis de este proyecto está en analizar lingüísticamente si, en general, los hispanohablantes y los anglohablantes, quienes estudian español manejan bien las diferencias entre el pretérito indefinido y el pretérito imperfecto de la lengua española. Se les repartió una encuesta de juicios de gramaticalidad a los estudiantes en Español 300, los estudiantes en Español 305 y a un grupo de estudiantes bilingües con alto nivel de español en la Universidad Estatal de Sonoma. El promedio de las respuestas correctas fue un 50,60 por ciento para Español 300, un 66,67 por ciento para Español 305 y 68,57 por ciento para los estudiantes bilingües.

**Abstract**

Many people today want to learn Spanish. The question arises as to whether or not individuals who are studying Spanish have a good understanding of Spanish grammar and, especially, the verbs whose meaning supposedly change when they are conjugated in the preterite or imperfect. The emphasis of this project is on linguistically analyzing if, in general, Spanish speakers and English speakers, who are studying Spanish have a good understanding of the differences between the preterite and the imperfect in the Spanish language. A grammaticality judgment task survey was handed out to Spanish 300, Spanish 305, and to a group of bilingual students with a high level of Spanish proficiency at Sonoma State University. The average of correct answers was 50.60% for Spanish 300, 66.67% for Spanish 305, and 68.57% for the bilingual students.

**Planteamiento**

¿La gramática es importante de verdad? ¿Hay verbos que realmente cambian de significado, si están en el pretérito indefinido? El análisis de la gramática española sí es muy importante, porque sin la existencia de la gramática bien utilizada, sea cual sea la habilidad de pronunciación del estudiante, es muy difícil comunicarse. Es mucho más fácil de enterarse de lo que el estudiante trata de decir si maneja bien la gramática, pero no tanto la pronunciación. Se puede manejar perfectamente bien la pronunciación, pero sin la buena gramática, sólo son sonidos bien pronunciados.

Muchos lingüistas modernos comentan que no existe una frase mal dicha. No quieren que simplemente se propongan reglas de la gramática, sino que se anote en qué contexto se utiliza una estructura que, a primera vista, tal vez no parezca correcta. Por ejemplo, puede ser que unas personas empleen frases como “me se ha olvidado”, en lugar de “se me ha olvidado” y “siéntensen”, en vez de “siéntense”. A diferencia de los lingüistas prescriptivos o tradicionales, que dirían que estos dos ejemplos están completamente incorrectos gramaticalmente, los lingüistas modernos creen que es importante investigar por qué algunas personas siguen...
utilizando estructuras así. En algunas regiones tal vez sean aceptables en el habla, pero, en principio, casi nunca son aceptables en la escritura. (Olarrea y Escobar, 2004).

Es importante aclarar algunos términos lingüísticos: el tiempo y el aspecto. El tiempo es una categoría que sitúa el evento con respecto al momento del habla u otro punto temporal preestablecido. Desde el punto de vista de la expresión gramatical, en español se distinguen tres tiempos principales: presente (canta, come, vive), pasado (cantó, comió, vivió; cantaba, comía, vivía) y futuro (cantará, comerá, vivirá).

"El aspecto es una categoría que tiene que ver con cómo visualizamos el evento que describe la oración. Podemos ver el evento enfatizando el comienzo, el final, o su totalidad o bien verlo en su desarrollo." Si uno se enfoca en el comienzo, el final o en la totalidad de una acción, se utiliza el indefinido. Por otra parte, si uno se enfoca en el desarrollo de la acción, se emplea el imperfecto. Por ejemplo, en la frase "ayer fue a la tienda", la acción de ir a la tienda se terminó ayer. Dado que se enfoca en la terminación de la acción, se usa el indefinido. En la frase "ayer iba a la tienda" cuando empezó a llover" se usa el imperfecto porque el ir a la tienda estaba en proceso cuando otra acción tuvo lugar. (Olarrea y Escobar, 2004).

Se han hecho unos pocos estudios acerca del indefinido y del imperfecto. Por ejemplo, los profesores Berta, Lindgren y Pegot hicieron un estudio para ver si la lengua natal afecta el proceso de aprender una lengua extranjera y se enfocaron en las diferencias entre el indefinido y el imperfecto, porque los hablantes del finés y los del húngaro no hacen la distinción entre el indefinido y el imperfecto en finlandés ni en húngaro. Les repartieron una encuesta dónde tenían que escoger el verbo adecuado de cuarenta y siete frases junto con una sección de traducción a ciento veinticinco estudiantes universitarios de Finlandia y de Hungría. Concluyeron que los resultados no estaban muy claros. Al principio les pareció que para la primera parte del cuestionario los estudiantes finlandeses tenían más problemas con los tiempos verbales del español que los húngaros. Pero, como no han estudiado los varios grupos dentro de los hablantes del finlandés y del húngaro, no se puede decir de verdad si había una clara diferencia. En la segunda parte, los problemas más frecuentes tuvieron que ver con los acentos ortográficos. (Berta, Lindgren, Maillo Pegot, 2000).

El lingüista Young y el libro Spanish/English Contrasts comentan que apenas si hay libros de texto del español que tratan de las diferencias verdaderas entre el pretérito indefinido y el pretérito imperfecto. Muchos dicen que existen verbos "especiales" en español que tienen diferentes significados dependiendo de si están en indefinido o imperfecto. Resulta que hay verbos como querer, saber, poder, tener y conocer que a veces tienen distintas traducciones al inglés, según el aspecto, pero en español simplemente se escoge utilizar el indefinido, en lugar del imperfecto, por las mismas razones que cualquier otro verbo. De hecho, muchos monolingües no conocen esta diferencia y se sorprenden cuando un estudiante de español les pregunta acerca de este fenómeno. Por ejemplo, muchos libros de texto dicen que al conjugar el verbo saber en el pretérito indefinido cambia de significado a found out, en vez de knew. Así que según esta supuesta regla, habría que decir sabía en el siguiente contexto:

-¿Cómo te fue el examen?
-Muy mal, no sabía nada de lo que preguntaron en el examen.

En este caso, aunque se puede decir no sabía para expresar que I didn’t know anything they asked on the exam/test, se puede también decir no supe. Está contra esta supuesta regla decir no supe para expresar I didn’t know, pero en este contexto puede que se diga así con más frecuencia. Si se dice supe, da a entender que ya pasó y se enfoca en la terminación. Duró un tiempo limitado-durante el examen-y no se supo nada de lo que preguntaron. Si se dice no sabía, indica que antes de hacer el examen y mientras se hacía el examen, no se sabía nada, y ahora tal vez sí o tal vez no. También puede ser una acción durativa que acompaña al indefinido. Sería muy semejante a decir cuando hacía/hice el examen, no sabía nada de lo que preguntaron. Por eso, puesto que las dos formas están correctas, en este contexto, con matices un poco diferentes, comprueba que esta regla no siempre funciona. Así, es más bien algo que tener en cuenta que una regla. En el siguiente contexto, sería más normal decir sabía que supe.

-¿Por qué no preguntaste?
-No sabía que podíamos hacer preguntas.

En este diálogo, hay que utilizar sabía para expresar que antes no sabías (you didn’t know before). La acción de saber es durativa. De ahí que sea más lógico emplear el imperfecto. El artículo de Young comprueba que la regla tampoco sirve en todos los contextos para los verbos querer, no querer, poder, tener y conocer. (Young, 1995).

Al leer el artículo de Young y el libro Spanish/English Contrasts me fascinó este fenómeno de las diferencias entre el pretérito indefinido y el pretérito imperfecto y quise enterarme de si los estudiantes universitarios en la Universidad Estatal de Sonoma y los estudiantes bilingües conocían estos supuestos cambios de significado con verbos particulares y, en general, si manejaban bien la gramática española. Creo que estas diferencias son muy importantes aprender porque no sólo un hispanohablante puede detectar inmediatamente que el estudiante es extranjero, sino que también puede impedir la comunicación. Por ejemplo, si se dice, “Ayer fui a la tienda...” es muy diferente que decir “Ayer iba a la tienda...”.

En este estudio, comparto y contrasto las distintas habilidades en cuanto a la gramática española de los estudiantes en dos clases universitarias de español y de los estudiantes universitarios bilingües en la Universidad del Estado de Sonoma. La intención de esta investigación es enterarse de si, en general, los estudiantes universitarios que hablan español como la L1 y los que hablan español como la L2 saben bien las diferencias entre el indefinido y el imperfecto. La hipótesis fue la siguiente: creo que cada estudiante que curse una clase de español podrá distinguir las diferencias entre el indefinido y el imperfecto en orden ascendente, de acuerdo con la clase, y que los estudiantes bilingües podrán observar las diferencias mejor.

**Método de investigación**

Se empezó creando una encuesta de los juicios de gramaticalidad con veintiuna preguntas para ver si la gente sabe bien la gramática española. Las veinte preguntas eran de los periódicos el País y el Universal, el libro de texto A New...
Reference Grammar of Modern Spanish de John Butt y Carmen Benjamin y el artículo de Young. Así que todas las frases de las fuentes mencionadas arriba son del habla común y corriente, salvo unas frases del libro A New Reference Grammar of Modern Spanish, la revista académica Hispania y unas preguntas que fueron inventadas por la investigadora. El formulario y la encuesta que se les repartieron están en el apéndice. La(s) respuesta(s) correcta(s) está(n) marcada en negritas.

Después de recoger toda la información de la encuesta, se calcularon los porcentajes de los diferentes grupos entrevistados y se crearon figuras para analizar toda la información.

Análisis de texto

Los libros A New Reference Grammar of Modern Spanish y Spanish/English Contrasts fueron muy útiles en este estudio. A New Reference Grammar of Modern Spanish contiene nueve páginas acerca de las diferencias entre el pretérito imperfecto y el pretérito indefinido. El libro también sirvió de inspiración para crear varias preguntas de la encuesta. No sólo compara y contrasta las diferencias entre el indefinido y el imperfecto, sino que, en general, la gente que dijo las frases eran hablantes nativos del español.

El libro Spanish/English Contrasts fue muy útil en que provee numerosos ejemplos del fenómeno del indefinido y del imperfecto. El libro empieza con la típica regla que cada libro de texto de español describe y Spanish/English Contrasts declara que con esta regla pueden surgir muchos problemas.

“Imperfect Preterite
(1) tells what was happening (1) records, reports, narrates
(2) recalls what used to happen with certain verbs, causes a change in meaning
(3) describes a physical, mental, or emotional state in the past
(4) tells time in the past
(5) describes the background and sets the stage upon which another action occurred.”

A primera vista, parece que en español no se utilizara el indefinido con mucha frecuencia; sólo hay dos ocasiones en que es adecuado emplear el indefinido. Así que según esta regla, si el estudiante está en duda, debería utilizar el imperfecto. Obviamente estos entendimientos son falsos. En principio, no se emplea el imperfecto mucho más que el indefinido. Además, Spanish/English Contrasts dice que se pueden fácilmente encontrar frases correctamente escritas que no siguen la regla. Por ejemplo, “estuvimos cansados” está en el indefinido probablemente porque el contexto nos indica que ocurrió durante un periodo de tiempo en concreto o plenamente lo dice a continuación, pero sea la razón que sea, la frase está en el indefinido y la regla dice que para los estados físicos y mentales se debe emplear el imperfecto. Otro ejemplo que va en contra de la regla es la frase...
“esta foto no está bien porque Abuelita masticaba chicle y Jorge bostezaba y Papá se sonaba la nariz”. La regla dice que hay que usar el indefinido para recordar, reportar y narrar, lo que sí está claro es qué está haciendo el autor. (Whitley, 2002).

El libro señala que muchos libros de texto incluyen esta regla para que haya una regla simple de seguir para los estudiantes que aprenden las diferencias por primera vez, pero puede ser muy engañosa. Muchos estudiantes suelen adivinar por adivinar, ya que no manejan bien las diferencias con esta regla, o peor aún inventan híbridos. Por ejemplo, dicen “yo vendí, tú vendías...” Lo importante es que el estudiante sepa que la diferencia entre el pretérito imperfecto y el pretérito indefinido no es cuestión del tiempo, sino que es asunto de dos aspectos diferentes del mismo tiempo pasado. Se puede decir “a las siete miraron/miraban la luna” con una diferencia de significado muy sutil. Al decir “a las siete miraron la luna”(at seven they looked at the moon) indica que a las siete en punto comenzaron a mirar la luna. También se puede usar para expresar que le echaron un vistazo a la luna; o sea que fue una acción puntual y enseguida hicieron otra cosa. Al decir “a las siete miraban la luna” (at seven they were looking at the moon/at seven they used to look at the moon) da a entender que el mirar la luna ya estaba en proceso a las siete o que solían mirar la luna a las siete.

Hay varias frases en que se puede optar por o el indefinido o el imperfecto y sin importar la selección del aspecto hay poca diferencia del significado. Por ejemplo, se puede decir “en ese momento pasó/pasaba un coche”. Al escoger “pasó” indica que “en ese momento” la acción de pasar ocurrió. Con “pasaba” sugiere que un coche estaba en el proceso de pasar en un momento dado, pero probablemente sucedió otra acción a la vez. Por ejemplo, se podría decir “en ese momento pasaba un coche, cuando un gato caminó enfrente del coche. El coche se paró justo a tiempo”. Además, “pasaba” puede indicar que era una acción habitual; es decir que en ese momento solía pasar un coche. También se puede decir “el presidente habló/hablababa por televisión. Al decir “habló” puede indicar que “ayer/la semana pasada/el año pasado o cualquier otro periodo de tiempo en concreto el presidente habló por televisión”. Por otra parte, si se comenta que “el presidente hablaba por televisión” indica que tal vez otra acción ocurría a la vez o que simplemente era una acción en progreso; no se reportó ni al principio de la acción ni al final, sino que se reportó en medio de la acción. Con “hablaba” uno también puede referirse a que el presidente solía hablar por televisión. En fin, el indefinido se enfoca en el comienzo o en la terminación de la acción y el imperfecto siempre da la idea de estar en medio de la acción.

Aparte de la regla mencionada que muchos libros de texto proponen, varios libros comentan que con ciertos verbos como “conocer, querer, saber, tener
y poder” hay un cambio de significado al conjugarlos en el indefinido. El verbo conocer en el indefinido supuestamente significa met, querer significa tried, saber quiere decir found out, tener significa got/received y poder quiere decir succeed in doing something. Por ejemplo, se traduciría la frase “ayer lo conocí” como “I met him yesterday”, aunque el verbo conocer quiere decir to know/to be familiar with en inglés. Por otra parte, se dice “lo conocía” para traducir “I knew him”. Resulta que sólo es una coincidencia en términos de las traducciones. Para traducir la frase “ayer lo conocí” al inglés no se dice I knew him yesterday, sino que I met him yesterday. La razón por el cambio de significado no tiene nada que ver con el verbo en español, sino que tiene mucho que ver con la traducción inglesa. Se puede decir “conocí a Jaime cuatro años, mientras estudiábamos en la universidad” y significa I knew Jaime for four years, while we were studying at collage. Aunque conocer está en indefinido, no significa I met, como dice la regla, sino que I knew. Otro ejemplo sería “(en ese momento) quise abrir el paquete”. Puesto que la acción de querer abrir el paquete pasó durante un tiempo específico, se debe utilizar el indefinido, pero según la regla que dice que el verbo querer cambia a tried to en el pasado, la traducción sería (at that moment) I tried to open the package. El verbo es querer, no tratar de ni intentar. En este contexto, se traduciría la frase correctamente como (at that moment) I wanted to open the package. Entonces, a veces los verbos cambian de significado en el indefinido, no porque en español algunos verbos cambien de significado, sino que para que tenga sentido en inglés hay que cambiar el verbo, o mejor dicho la traducción.

Resultados

Se enteró de que los estudiantes en Español 300 sacaron un promedio de 50,60 por ciento en la encuesta, los estudiantes en Español 305 sacaron un promedio de 66,67 por ciento y los estudiantes bilingües sacaron un promedio de 68,57 por ciento.
El promedio de las respuestas correctas:

**Español 300:**
las preguntas correctas/21 preguntas
(24 estudiantes) = 50,60%

**Español 305:**
las preguntas correctas/21 preguntas
(21 estudiantes) = 66,67%

**Los bilingües:**
preguntas correctas/21 preguntas
(5 estudiantes) = 68,57%

Figura 1. El promedio de las respuestas correctas en la encuesta.

**Las notas en la encuesta hecha por los estudiantes en Español 300**

Figura 2. Las calificaciones en la encuesta: Español 300.
La figura representa el número de estudiantes en Español 300 con la misma nota en la encuesta. El eje X denota el porcentaje y el eje Y representa el número de estudiantes con la misma nota.

Las notas en la encuesta en Español 305
Los porcentajes

Figura 3. Las calificaciones en la encuesta: Español 305.
La figura demuestra el número de estudiantes en Español 305 que sacaron la misma calificación en la encuesta. El eje X es el porcentaje y el eje Y es el número de estudiantes con el mismo porcentaje.

Los estudiantes bilingües con alto nivel del español

Figura 4. Las calificaciones en la encuesta: los estudiantes bilingües.
La figura muestra la frecuencia y los porcentajes de los estudiantes bilingües en la encuesta.

Análisis

Los datos sugieren que los estudiantes en Español 300 sacaron el promedio más bajo de los tres grupos entrevistados, los estudiantes en Español 305 sacaron un promedio más alto que los en Español 300 y que los estudiantes bilingües del español sacaron la calificación más alta. Los estudiantes en Español 300 no
Manejar muy bien la diferencia entre el indefinido y el imperfecto.

Promedio sólo fue 50,60 por ciento. Tal vez las preguntas son demasiado difíciles para su nivel, no tenían suficiente contexto para determinar el uno del otro o a lo mejor sus profesores en el pasado no se enfocaron en el tiempo pasado. Podrían haberse enfocado más en la pronunciación o en otro aspecto gramatical, lo cual explicaría el número muy bajo de preguntas correctas.

Los estudiantes en Español 305 les fue mucho mejor que los en Español 300, lo cual tendría mucho sentido. Los estudiantes en 305 hicieron el curso de Español 300, 301, 304 y ahora están haciendo Español 305. Así que han tenido mucha más experiencia con el indefinido y el imperfecto, especialmente con los verbos que a veces tienen traducciones diferentes al inglés, dependiendo de si están en indefinido o imperfecto. Fue interesante que hubiera siete estudiantes con una calificación diferente y que las demás calificaciones fueran distribuidas entre cada dos estudiantes; es decir, dos estudiantes sacaron un 61,90 por ciento y dos estudiantes sacaron un 80,95 por ciento.

Dos de los estudiantes bilingües aprendieron español tanto en casa como en la escuela y los demás aprendieron español sólo en casa. El estudiante que sacó la calificación más alta-un 83,33 por ciento-anotó en la encuesta que el español era su lengua materna, pero que dominaba mejor el inglés y no ha hecho cursos formales donde se haya enfocado en la gramática española. Esto indica que alguien que habla español como primera lengua, ya puede saber casi de forma natural si una frase está gramaticalmente correcta o no, según las normas que ha aprendido hablando el idioma. De hecho, el/la estudiante con la segunda calificación más baja, anotó en la encuesta que hizo cursos formales de español. Sólo sacó un 13,5, así que con todas las reglas gramaticales que aprendió en los cursos a lo mejor lo/la confundieron. Es decir que la multitud de reglas gramaticales confundieron su manera de detectar si una frase está bien o no, según si la diría así, porque ya no era algo casi innato para él o ella, sino que era una lista de reglas que tenía que seguir.

La calificación más alta fue un 83,33 por ciento, que dos estudiantes sacaron. Uno de los estudiantes era bilingüe y aprendió español en casa y el otro estudiante estudió español en el extranjero. De hecho, un(a) hablante nativo(a) del español sacó un 61,90 por ciento en la encuesta. Entonces, en este caso, si el hablante nativo no hubiera aprendido español enfocándose en la gramática y si nunca hubiera estudiado el indefinido y el imperfecto, en general, no tendría ninguna

1 Por ejemplo, el verbo querer en el imperfecto significa “wanted to”, el verbo querer en el indefinido puede significar “tried to” o “wanted to” y “no querer” en el indefinido quiere decir “refused” o “didn’t want”, dependiendo del contexto.

Ej 1
- **Quería** hacerte un favor= I **wanted to** ask you a favor
- **Adelante**

Ej 2
Ayer te vi, pero **no quise** interrumpírte porque estabas hablando con la novia.= I saw you yesterday, but I didn’t want to interrupt you because you were talking to your girlfriend. (Se usa “no quise” porque ocurrió precisamente “ayer”.)
En fin, los verbos en español nunca cambian de significado dependiendo de si están en indefinido o imperfecto, sólo las traducciones al inglés a veces cambian.
ventaja en la encuesta como si lo tendría si fuera una encuesta oral enfocada en la pronunciación. Estas dos calificaciones, junto con dos de 80,95 por ciento, comprueban que sí fue posible sacar buena nota en la encuesta. También resulta que el porcentaje de las preguntas correctas con respecto al indefinido y el imperfecto sube, en principio, con el conocimiento del español; es exactamente lo que dice la hipótesis.  

**Conclusiones**

Toda la información de la encuesta comprobó que la hipótesis fue verdadera. Los estudiantes en Español 300 sacaron un promedio de 50,60 por ciento, los estudiantes en Español 305 sacaron un promedio de 66,67 y los estudiantes bilingües sacaron un promedio de 68,57 por ciento. De ahí que, al hacer más cursos de español, y al obtener más conocimiento de la gramática española, los estudiantes pudieran reconocer mejor las diferencias entre el pretérito imperfecto y el pretérito indefinido. Me sorprendió mucho de que el promedio de los estudiantes bilingües sólo fuera un 68,57. Por otra parte, si los estudiantes bilingües sólo sacaron un promedio de 68,57 y los estudiantes en Español 305 sacaron un 66,67, indica que una vez que se entra en Español 305, la instrucción del fenómeno de las diferencias entre el indefinido y el imperfecto es tan bueno, que casi se llega al nivel de reconocimiento de un estudiante bilingüe. Pareció que los estudiantes, en principio, pensaban que los verbos “especiales” siempre cambiaban de significado al conjugarlos en el indefinido. No se dieron cuenta de que sólo las traducciones al inglés a veces cambian, pero se usa el indefinido o el imperfecto por las mismas razones con cada.

**Agradecimientos**

Antes que nada me gustaría agradecer a mi madre, mi padre y a mi hermana Carisa por apoyarme en este proyecto y por apoyarme en toda mi carrera de español, especialmente por animarme a seguir con el español durante la primera clase de español cuando estaba en el noveno grado. A mí también me gustaría agradecer a Doctor Reeder por ayudarme con todas las correcciones y sugerencias a través de todo el proceso de escribir este reportaje. Me gustaría dar un agradecimiento muy especial a los estudiantes en Español 300, los en Español 305 y a los estudiantes bilingües. Sin toda tu ayuda, este proyecto no habría sido posible.

**Referencias**

2 Originalmente se les iba a repartir la encuesta a veinticinco estudiantes en Español 300 y a veinticinco estudiantes en Español 305 en la Universidad Estatal de Sonoma, a la Universidad de Burgos y la Universidad de Girona en España, pero con todas las complicaciones y los altos costos por el envío no fue posible. Como todos no fueron a clase, se les repartió la encuesta a diecinueve estudiantes en Español 300, a veintiún estudiantes en Español 305 y a cinco estudiantes bilingües con alto nivel de español, quienes funcionaron como el grupo control del experimento. Puesto que el tamaño de la muestra consiste en cuarenta estudiantes junto con cinco estudiantes bilingües para funcionar como el grupo control, los datos son bastante confiables.


Apéndice
La forma de autorización

Información general del estudio: Soy estudiante universitaria en la Universidad del Estado de Sonoma y estudio español y matemáticas. Mi proyecto final para la clase de español 490, es investigar acerca de la gramática española y, concretamente, sobre las diferencias entre el pretérito indefinido y el pretérito imperfecto. Le agradecería mucho si Ud. pudiera participar en este estudio completamente voluntario y confidencial. La información del estudio estará impresa por posibles futuros usos.

¿Quién verá la información?: Esta entrevista es completamente confidencial. No se quiere el nombre de la persona que toma la entrevista. Y toda la información sólo será usada por usos académicos.

¿Qué hay que hacer para participar en la entrevista?:
1. Favor de leer esta hoja y firmar la hoja de autorización.
2. Después de terminar la entrevista, favor de poner la hoja de autorización y la entrevista en lugares distintos para que la entrevista se quede confidencial.

¿Qué pasará con la información que doy?: Toda la información será confidencial. Se va a utilizar para los propósitos académicos sólo. La utilizaré en un reportaje formal, donde compararé los resultados de tres universidades diferentes alrededor del mundo.

Autorización: Yo he leído toda la información en esta hoja acerca del estudio. Entiendo que esta entrevista en voluntaria y no recibirá ningún tipo de recompensa por mi participación. Comprendo que la información que doy va a ser confidencial y usado en un trabajo formal.

Firma:_________________________ Fecha:_______________

Authorization Form

General Information about the study: I am a college student at Sonoma State University and I am majoring in Spanish and minoring in mathematics. My final project for Spanish 490, is to research about Spanish grammar and, concretely, about the differences between the preterite and the imperfect. I would really appreciate it if you could participate in this completely voluntary and confidential survey. The information about the study will be imprint for future possible uses.

Who will see the information?: This survey is completely confidential. The name of the person taking the survey is not wanted. All of the information will be used only for academic uses.

What do I need to do to participate in the survey?:
1. Please read this paper and sign the authorization form.
2. After finishing the survey, please put the authorization form and the survey in distinct places so that the survey will remain confidential.

What will happen with the information that I give?: All of the information will be confidential. it will be utilized for academic purposes only. I will use it in a formal report, where I will compare the results of three different universities around the world.

Authorization: I have read all of the information on this piece of paper about the study. I understand that this survey is voluntary and I will not receive any type of recompense for my participation. I understand that the information that I am giving is going to be confidential and used in a formal essay.
Una encuesta de la gramática española
A Grammaticality Judgment Task Survey

Favor de circular la información biográfica pertinente a Ud.
¿El español es su lengua materna? Sí No
¿Ud. es bilingüe? Sí No
¿Aprendió el español y el inglés a la vez? Sí No
¿Domina mejor el inglés? Sí No
¿Domina mejor el español? Sí No
¿Cómo aprendió a hablar español? En casa y en la escuela, sólo en casa, estudiando en el extranjero, o trabajando en el extranjero.
¿Ha hecho cursos formales de español dónde se ha enfocado en la gramática española? Sí No.

Please circle the pertinent biographical information to you
Are you a native Spanish speaker? Yes No
Is your native language English? Yes No
Are you bilingual? Yes No
Did you learn Spanish and English at the same time? Yes No
Do you speak English better? Yes No
Do you speak Spanish better? Yes No
How did you learn to speak Spanish? At home and at school, only at home, studying abroad, or working abroad.
Have you taken formal Spanish courses where they have focused on Spanish grammar? Yes No

1. ¿Cuál es la frase correcta gramaticalmente?
   a. La última se produjo en julio de 2008.
   b. La última se producía en julio de 2008.
   c. La última se produjeron en julio de 2008.
   d. No estoy seguro/segura

2. ¿Cuál es la frase correcta?
   a. El presidente José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero abriría ayer la puerta a un aumento de los impuestos indirectos (es decir, los que gravan el consumo, como el IVA y los impuestos especiales sobre la gasolina, el alcohol y tabaco) dentro del paquete de medidas destinadas a recaudar unos 15.000 millones de euros con los que hacer frente al creciente déficit.
   b. El presidente José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero abrieron ayer la puerta a un aumento de los impuestos indirectos (es decir, los que gravan el
consumo, como el IVA y los impuestos especiales sobre la gasolina, el alcohol y tabaco) dentro del paquete de medidas destinadas a recaudar unos 15.000 millones de euros con los que hacer frente al creciente déficit.

c. El presidente José Luis Rodríguez Zapatero abrió ayer la puerta a un aumento de los impuestos indirectos (es decir, los que gravan el consumo, como el IVA y los impuestos especiales sobre la gasolina, el alcohol y tabaco) dentro del paquete de medidas destinadas a recaudar unos 15.000 millones de euros con los que hacer frente al creciente déficit.

d. No estoy seguro/segura.

3. ¿Cuál es la frase correcta?
a. Había tenido el cuadro en mis narices toda mi vida y ahora reaparece al estilo cenicentita”, confesaba este profesor del Institute of Fine Arts de la Universidad de Nueva York.
b. Hubo tenido...
c. Hubiera tenido...
d. No estoy seguro/segura.

4. ¿Cuál es la frase escrita correctamente?
a. Desde 1979 se creyó que procediera del taller del artista.
b. Desde 1979 se creyó que procedía del taller del artista.
c. Desde 1979 se creyó que procedía del taller del artista.
d. No estoy seguro/segura.

5. ¿Cuál es la forma correcta de saber en el siguiente contexto?
a.- Nosotros no supimos nada de lo que preguntaron en ese examen.
b.- Nosotros no sabíamos nada de lo que preguntaron en ese examen.
c.- Nosotros no supiéramos nada de lo que preguntaron en ese examen.
d. No estoy seguro/segura.

6. Favor de marcar la frase que le suena mejor.
a. En su vivienda el agua alcanzó más de 1.5 metros de altura y sus dos automóviles flotaba en el patio, uno de los cuales se estrelló contra sus vidrios y entró parcialmente a la sala; sólo en un caso acudió el seguro y declaró por el vehículo pérdida total.
b. En su vivienda el agua alcanzó más de 1.5 metros de altura y sus dos automóviles flotaban en el patio, uno de los cuales se estrelló contra sus vidrios y entró parcialmente a la sala; sólo en un caso acudió el seguro y declaró por el vehículo pérdida total.
c. En su vivienda el agua alcanzó más de 1.5 metros de altura y sus dos automóviles flotaban en el patio, uno de los cuales se estrelló contra sus vidrios y entró parcialmente a la sala; sólo en un caso acudió el seguro y declaró por el vehículo pérdida total.
d. No estoy seguro/segura.

7. ¿Cuál de las siguientes frases le suena mejor?
   a. **Fue rey durante ocho años.**
   b. Era rey durante ocho años.
   c. Fueron rey durante ocho años.
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

8. ¿Cuál es la frase gramaticalmente escrita?
   a. Por un instante pensaba que me caía.
   b. Por un instante pensar que me caía.
   c. **Por un instante pensé que me caía.**
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

9. Favor de marcar la frase correcta.
   a. **Lo primero que escribí fue un cuento.**
   b. Lo primero que escribió era un cuento.
   c. Lo primero que escribí fueron un cuento.
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

10. ¿Cuál es la frase correcta gramaticalmente?
    a. **Cuando abrí el horno, se sintió calor.**
    b. Cuando abrí el horno, se sentía calor.
    c. Cuando abrí el horno, se sintiese calor.
    d. No estoy seguro/segura.

11. ¿Cuál es la forma verbal correcta del verbo leer en el siguiente contexto?
    **Ana estaba contenta mientras leía la carta de su novio.**
    Ana estaba contenta mientras leyó la carta de su novio.
    Ana estaba contenta mientras leyera la carta de su novio.
    d. No estoy seguro/segura.

12. ¿Cuál es la frase correcta?
    a. David estaban contento por un rato hasta que volvió a pensar en el accidente.
    b. **David estuvo contento por un rato hasta que volvió a pensar en el accidente.**
    c. David estaba contento por un rato hasta que volvió a pensar en el accidente.
    d. No estoy seguro/segura.

13. Favor de circular la(s) frase(s) correcta(s).
    a. **Pensé que eran las tres de la tarde.**
    b. Pensaba que eran las tres de la tarde.
    c. Pensara que eran las tres de la tarde.
d. No estoy seguro/segura.

14. Favor de marcar la frase correcta.
   a. Carlos pensó en sus padres cuando, de repente, aparecieron.
   b. Carlos pensaba en sus padres cuando, de repente, aparecieron.
   c. **Carlos pensaba en sus padres cuando, de repente,**
      **aparecieron.**
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

15. ¿Cuál es la forma correcta del verbo **tener**?
   a. **Tuvo fiebre durante tres días.**
   b. **Tenía fiebre durante tres días.**
   c. **Tuviera** fiebre durante tres días.
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

16. ¿Cuál es(es) la(s) forma(s) correcta(s) del verbo **querer**?
   a. Perdone, **quise** hablar con el director.
   b. **Perdone, quisiera hablar con el director.**
   c. **Perdone, quería hablar con el director.**
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

17. Favor de escoger la frase correcta.
   a. **Como era un día magnífico,** fuimos al zoo.
   b. Como fue un día magnífico, fuimos al zoo.
   c. Como fuese un día magnífico, fuimos al zoo.
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

18. ¿Cuál es la frase correcta?
   a. Volví a la sala, pero él ya no estuvo.
   b. **Volví a la sala, pero él ya no estaba.**
   c. Volví a la sala, pero él ya no estuve.
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

19. ¿Cuál(es) es(es) la(s) frase(s) correcta(s) gramaticalmente?
   a. Críamos que Paco llegaría muy pronto.
   b. **Creímos que Paco llegaría muy pronto.**
   c. **Creíamos que Paco llegaría muy pronto.**
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

20. Favor de marcar la(s) frase(s) correctas.
   a. **Ese coche costó $15.**
   b. **Ese coche costaba $15**
   c. Ese coche costaron $15
   d. No estoy seguro/segura.

21. Favor de escoger la frase correcta.
   a. **Ayer vi una película y me pareció muy bien.**
b. Ayer vi una película y me parecía muy bien.
c. Ayer vi una película y pensaba que era muy buena.
d. No estoy seguro/segura.

The presence of cultural synthesis in Caribbean music: non-Hispanic influences in the semantic style of Cuban and Dominican music

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Abstract

Throughout my career in the University, the significance and meaning of words in music lyrics have interested me. It is well known that music from the Caribbean combines and borrows African elements of musical style as a result of the complex history of the Caribbean region. For example, there is a strong influence from the Yoruba culture of Nigeria in certain Cuban-based genre. Out of personal curiosity, I was interested to see if there are semantic influences in the lyrics of songs as there are with musical styles and elements. I specifically focused my research on songs from three genres based in Cuba and the Dominican Republic.

With emphasis on the two genres son and afro-Cuban from Cuba and bachata from the Dominican Republic, I analyzed two songs from each respective genre. I paid particular attention to the frequency with which certain words or phrases appear while looking for the use of non-Spanish, non-Hispanic, argot, and slang vocabulary. Furthermore, how these terms related with the contexts of the songs were of particular interest to me. Through my personal analysis, I found that the most frequently repeated words did have a connection to the context and that each song differed in the amount of non-Spanish, non-Hispanic, argot or slang used.

Sinopsis

Durante mi carrera en la universidad, me ha interesado la importancia y significado de las palabras de letras de música. Debido a la historia compleja de la región caribeña, la música cubano es bien conocida por la combinación y uso de elementos africanas. Por ejemplo, hay una influencia fuerte de la cultura Yoruba que proviene de Nigeria en ciertos géneros desarrollados en Cuba. De mi propio interés, querría ver si hay influencias semánticas en respeto a las palabras de canciones como hay en los elementos musicales. En particular, enfoque la investigación en las canciones de tres géneros de Cuba y la República Dominicana.

Con énfasis en los dos géneros, Son y Afro cubano de Cuba y el género Bachata de la República Dominicana, analicé dos canciones en cada género. Preste atención a la frecuencia en que aparecen ciertas palabras y frases mientras buscaba el uso de palabras no-españoles, no-hispanicos argot u slang y sus significados. Además, me intereso como estas palabras relacionan con el contexto de cada canción. Con mi propio análisis encontré que las palabras más repetidas tienen conexión con el contexto. También, cada canción varía en la cantidad de palabras no-españoles, no-hispanicos, argot u slang ocupado.

Introduction

Although Christopher Columbus is viewed as the iconic Conquistador who discovered the Americas, he is also credited with the discovery of the Caribbean countries, Cuba and the Dominican Republic (Diego, 1985). With his goals of exploration and conquest, he also brought new cultural practices and traditions to the island of Cuba. As more and more Spanish conquistadores settled on the island
so did the institution of slavery. Long after the death of Columbus, a system with three racial categories was established in the mid 19th century. This included the Whites, those of Spanish and the Criollos, or creoles of American decent, non-slaves of color and slaves. While some people of color were not condemned to slavery, they were confined to service industries. This stratification lead to a sort of underground rebellion where music and song were used by the lower classes to protest injustices committed against them (Olsen & Sheehy, 1998).

The practice of the Yoruba religion and culture by those who suffered most from this stratification contributed greatly to Cuban society. “The religions brought by African groups to Cuba enriched the art of the entire region. Even now, we often find musical instruments, characteristic ways of playing them, songs, rhythms, dances, and even the use of music for magical functions” (Olsen & Sheehy, 1998, p. 823). The editors of the Garland encyclopedia of world music state, “The history of Cuba’s musical culture reflects a complex pattern of migrations and cultural confluences, leading to the emergence of widely differing musical traditions in remote areas of the country” (Olsen & Sheehy, 1998). An example of this pattern is the son, considered one of the most important genres in Cuba that originated in the 1980s. It the first of five traditional music complexes which uses the tres, a version of a guitar, and the bongos. (Olsen & Sheehy, 1998, p. 829). Son has borrowed elements from African cultures, such as the Yoruba from Nigeria, which have contributed to its growth and development.

France gained control of the Island of Hispaniola and divided it into Haiti and St. Domingue. In 1844, St. Domingue or Santo Domingo became the Dominican Republic. A stratification similar to that which occurred in Cuba also happened in the Dominican Republic where there was a necessity for slave labor in the sugar cane trade. “The millions of Africans brought by the French into St. Domingue and their ethnic origins led to the development of a society more densely populated than and culturally different from neighboring Haiti. Years later in 1930, people of color were once again oppressed; Dictator Rafael Leónidas Trujillo Molina instituted a policy of racial segregation, separating those of pure Hispanic descent from those of Haitian, Black and African descent (Olsen & Sheehy, 1998, p. 845). With oppression and the denial of the right to expression, there is often a backlash which leads to creative expression.

Bachata is said to have emerged from the Bolero style in Cuba the help of its originator Pepe Sanchez (Holston 2002). This genre has evolved to combine the use of electronic instruments and amplifiers often in place of the traditional acoustic guitar. The congo and guira usually accompany the lead, rhythm guitar and bass. Until about the mid 1980’s the genre bachata was limited to the poorer classes and not listened to on a large scale. With the emergence and support of various bachata groups and bachateros, like Xtreme, Aventura and Frank Reyes, fewer Dominicans frowned upon this form of expression ("Kings of bachata," 2009). Support for this evolving genre continues to increase in various areas of the Dominican Republic and other countries.

As Cuba and the Dominican Republic have experienced a wide array of musical influences, the genres of afro-Cuban, son and bachata reflect these variations in musical style. With these musical variations in mind, I developed the hypothesis that there are influences in semantic style from other languages that will accompany African and European musical influences in afro-Cuban, son, and bachata. I hope to find that the lyrics of songs within
theses genres contain words of non-Spanish, non-Hispanic origin, argot or slang. In addition, I will study the relationship of the most frequently repeated words to the physical, topical or social context of the songs (Whitley, 2002, p. 327).

Method

In this process, the first step was to visit the World Music Central (Romero, 2008) online database. I counted and determined that the Artist by Country database listed 163 out of the 189 to 195 officially recognized countries of the world. The country lists in the categories of C and D contained Cuba and the Dominican Republic. I looked for artists in each country category and then determined that the artists from Cuba had produced songs in the genres of afro-Cuban and son and that the artists from the Dominican Republic had produced songs in the genre of bachata.

If the discography of the artist was listed, I reviewed the database Itunes (“Itunes” 2009) to review that the CD contained a song from the afro-Cuban genre. I did this with the work of multiple artists for the categories of all three genres, afro-Cuban, son and bachata.

After assuring that I could listen to the music of an artist, I searched online databases such as Lacuerda.net (http://lacuerda.net/tabs/a/afrocuban_all_stars/amor_verdadero) and Letrascanciones.mp3lyrics.org (http://letrascanciones.mp3lyrics.org/) to find the lyrics to these songs. I then printed the lyrics to have a clear visual reference.

I did find the lyrics and music of two afro-Cuban songs produced by Cuban artists from Cuba, two son songs produced by Cuban artists from Cuba and two bachata songs produced by Dominican artists from the Dominican Republic. In the afro-Cuban genre, the Afro-Cuban All Stars produced Amor Verdadero and Los Van Van produced Que Sorpresa. In the son genre, Eliades Ochoa produced Que Humanidad and Ibrahim Ferrer, in collaboration with Buena Vista Social Club, produced Dos Gardenias. In the bachata genre, Antony Santos produced Ay! Ven and Frank Reyes produced Orgullo de Mas. For each of the six songs, I listened to the music at least three times and then read the lyrics three times separately. After, I played the song recording while reading the lyrics three times. I wrote down my interpretations of the contexts for each piece of music.

For each individual song, I looked for the word with the most repetition and counted how many times it appeared. I did the same for the word with the second most repetition. I then searched for any non-Spanish, non-Hispanic, argot or slang within the lyrics. With three different color pens, I highlighted the most frequently repeated word with the color blue. I highlighted the second most frequently repeated word with the color yellow. And I highlighted any non-Spanish or non-Hispanic word, use of argot or slang with the color green.

I reviewed dictionaries such as the Diccionario de la lengua española (1984) and the Compact Spanish and English Dictionary (1994). I then used an etymological dictionary such as Vicente García de Diego’s Diccionario etimológico español e hispánico (1989) to search the non-Hispanic, non-Spanish, argot, and slang terms.
to verify their origins. I placed the findings in various charts to clearly view the results (see Appendix A.).

**Results**

Figure A.

Genre: Afro-cuban
Lyrics to Amor Verdadero:
(Afro-Cuban All Stars)

Guajira, el son te llama, a bailar, a Gozar.

Amigo pida otra copa, caramba,
Que este cantor le convida.
Que aunque a ustedes no le importa
Voy a hacerles la historia de mi vida.

Amé mucho a una mujer
De mi alma la más querida.
Me traicionó la perdida, caramba
Que ingrato y mal proceder.

Ella me hizo beber
Ella me hizo un perdido
A la droga me tiré, amigo mío,
y a la cárcel fui llevado.

Los amigos me olvidaron
Sólo mi madre lloraba
A Dios pedía y rogaba
Que salvara su hijo.

Recuerden lo que les digo
Que en la prisión y en la cama
Sólo nuestra madre nos ama, caramba,
no hay dinero, no hay amigos
Linda guajira, mi son te llama!

Y al piano Don Rubén González.
Oiga compay mire quien viene por allí,
Compay barbarito Torres... Special.
Guajira el son te llama, a bailar, a gozar.

Las dos palabras que más
Me llenan de regocijo
Es cuando me dicen hijo, es cuando digo
Mamá.


**Guajira** el son te llama, a bailar, a gozar.

La **madre** es un surtidor
De miel que nunca cierra
Es un astro de la tierra
Brilla mucho más que el sol.

**Guajira** el son te llama, a bailar, a gozar.

No le teme a la negrura
Del vicio y todo su espanto.
Piensa en mi **madre**
Y su encanto me cubre con su ternura.

Figure B.

Genre: Afro-cuban
Lyrics to Que Sorpresa:
(Los Van Van)

Oye Q sorpresa me lleve

Salí a buscar un sueño viejo, deje volar mis pensamientos,
Ohhh Q Paso Ahhh ya veras
no me asustaban las sorpresas tenia mi corazonada pero no sabia esta vez lo q me esperaba.

Cruce montañas y praderas anduve en tren y en bicicleta,
hasta q al fin de madrugada llegue a la puerta de su casa y solo pedí al abrir la puerta,
**agua** yo solo tenia sed de ella, **agua**

me dio **agua** caliente **agua** salada de madrugada me parece q la niña se asusto cuando me vio en la mañana.
me dio **agua** caliente **agua** salada de madrugada y me dio **agüita** caliente cuando llegue a su morada me dio **agua** caliente, **agua** salada de madrugada siempre tuve mi corazonada pero nunca imagine q me diera **agua** salada nene me dio **agua** caliente, **agua** salada de madrugada pero dime cosa linda lo q hiciste pero dime q te pasa

oyeee

mira, la niña me dio **agua** caliente, **agua** salada por eso yo lo voy a publicar todo, todo,
todito todo en la prensa

( **Voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa,** ) **Voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa,**
( **Voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa** ) para q la gente de tu barrio sepa a quien se enfrenta
( **Voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa** ) q lo q hiciste conmigo fue mami fue una cosa muy violenta

---

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Figure C.

Genre: Bachata
Lyrics to Ay! Ven:
(Antony Santos)

Ya no me queda nada
mi vida ya no existe
desde que tú te fuiste, corazón
en mí todo ha cambiado
ya yo no soy el mismo
dime porque lo hiciste, corazón
es que tu amor a mí me devora
por eso tanto lo siento ahora
a mi conciencia lo llevo ahora
¡perdóname!
nunca en mi vida yo había sentido
esta pasión tan demoledora
en mi canción yo te grito ahora
por favor ven

ay ven ay ven
que yo no quiero perderte amiga
me siento bien cuando estoy contigo
ay ven ay ven
olvidarte yo no he podido
y solo quiero volver contigo
y la memoria ya la he perdido
no sé que hacer ni conmigo mismo
no es tan fácil perderte ahora
vuelve conmigo
y voy pensando en cada momento
las cosas que hacíamos siempre
cuando menos hacíamos el amor
como inocentes
ay ven ay ven
amarte siempre es mi destino
por eso quiero que estés conmigo
Ay ven ay ven
yo soy tu sombra y tú eres mi abrigo
como yo vivo sin ti cariño
ay ven ay ven

no sé como decirte
lo que me pasa ahora
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Figure D.

Genre: Bachata
Lyrics to Orgullo De Mas:
(Frank Reyes)

Dios Mio, Por que no nos juntamos
Que difícil es para los dos continuar nuestra relación nuestro orgullo todo lo arruino nos separamos queriéndonos

Y mas difícil es cuando nos vemos nuestras miradas quieren confesar que queda algo de lo que sentimos pero el orgullo nos hace callar...

Maldito orgullo (maldito orgullo) que no nos deja (que no nos deja) vivir nuestra ilusión, que sentimos los dos y nuestra amor se aleja

nuestras miradas quieren confesar que queda algo de lo que sentimos pero el orgullo nos hace callar...

Maldito orgullo (maldito orgullo) que no nos deja (que no nos deja) vivir nuestra ilusión, que sentimos los dos y nuestro amor se aleja

Maldito orgullo (maldito orgullo) que nos separa (que nos separa) si es la oportunidad de volver a empezar y entregarnos el alma
este es un mal que afecta nuestra vida si nos dejamos no puede faltar y para siempre seremos felices basta ya, volvamos a empezar y entregarnos el alma

Este es un mal que afecta nuestra vida Si nos dejamos no puede faltar y para siempre seremos felices basta ya, volvamos a empezar

Y más difícil es cuando nos vemos Nuestras miradas quieren confesar que queda algo de lo que sentimos Pero el orgullo nos hace callar

Maldito orgullo (maldito orgullo) que nos separa (que nos separa) si es la oportunidad de volver a empezar y vivir nuestra ilusión que sentimos los dos y nuestra amor se aleja

Figure E.

Genre: Son
Lyrics to Que Humanidad:
(Eliades Ochoa)

Por qué han de meterse en mi vida Si yo no me meto en la vida de nadie Por qué ha de ser Que humanidad ¿Por qué ha de ser Que Humanidad
Lo que tu haces Cómo tu vives Todo lo quieren saber Lo que tu haces Cómo tu vives Todo lo quieren saber
[Que humanidad chico!] (Qué humanidad) (Qué humanidad) Si vives bien te critican y si vives mal también (Qué humanidad)
(Qué humanidad) Que como quiera que se ponga me la tiene que pagar (Qué humanidad) (Criticones...) (Qué humanidad) Yo vivía en Mejiquito y ahora vivo en otro lado (Qué humanidad) (Qué humanidad) Después me fui para el Distrito y ahora vivo en San Germán (Qué humanidad) (Qué humanidad) Qué humanidad caballeros, qué humanidad (Qué humanidad) (Qué humanidad)
La culpa no ha sido tuya, quien la tiene es tu mamá (Que pelo más malo tienes que panza más colorada)
Que siendo tu padre un blanco tu saliste una javá (Que pelo más malo tienes que panza más colorada) No te eches procedimientos que el pelo no va 'ba atrás' (Que pelo más malo tienes que panza más colorada) No te estés pasando el peine te vas a quedar pelada (Que pelo más malo tienes que panza más colorada)
Caballero la Habana ae! la Habana (Ae la Habana, Ae la Habana) En la Habana caballero yo si gozo de verdad (Ae la Habana, Ae la Habana) Cuando tu quieras
gozar ven conmigo y tu verás (Ae la Habana, Ae la Habana) Yo me voy con una chica hasta por la madrugada (Ae la Habana, Ae la Habana)

Figure F.

Genre: Son
Lyrics to Dos Gardenias:
(Ibrahim Ferrer)

Dos gardenias para ti
Con ellas quiero decir:
Te quiero, te adoro, mi vida Ponles toda tu atención
Que serán tu corazón y el mío
Dos gardenias para ti
Que tendrán todo el calor de un beso
De esos besos que te di
Y que jamás te encontrarán
En el calor de otro querer
A tu lado vivirán y se hablarán Como cuando estás conmigo
Y hasta creerán que se dirán:
Te quiero.
Pero si un atardecer
Las gardenias de mi amor se mueren
Es porque han adivinado
Que tu amor me ha traicionado Porque existe otro querer.

Figure G.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word/phrase with most repetition</th>
<th># of time most repeated phrase occurs</th>
<th>Context</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amor verdadero</td>
<td>guajira</td>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Que sorpresa</td>
<td>agua</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ay! ven</td>
<td>ay ven</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orgullo de mas</td>
<td>nuestra, nuestro, nos</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que humanidad</td>
<td>que humanidad</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dos gardenias</td>
<td>te quiero, querer</td>
<td>5</td>
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</table>

Figure H.

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<th>Word/phrase with second most repetition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Amor Verdadero</td>
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<td>Que Sorpresa</td>
<td>voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ay! Ven</td>
<td>ahora</td>
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<tr>
<td>Orgullo de mas</td>
<td>maldito orgullo</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que humanidad</td>
<td>que pelo más malo</td>
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</table>
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Figure I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Words/phrases non-hispanic, non-spanish, argot and slang</th>
<th># of times words/phrases non-hispanic, non-spanish, argot and slang</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>guajira</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gallego: Compai</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>special</td>
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<td>Latin: compadre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Netherlands Antilles, (Olsen, 1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que Sorpresa</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ay! Ven</td>
<td>ay</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orgullo de mas</td>
<td>---</td>
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<td>---</td>
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<td>Que humanidad</td>
<td>java, pa’atrás</td>
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<td></td>
<td>mejiquito</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Castellano: en ultimo lugar</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Latin: tras</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dos Gardenias</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

It is essential to note that this is a personal analysis from the perspective of a second language (L2) learner of Spanish who has studied this language for nine years and lived in Santiago de Chile for one year. I do not have full competence (Whitley, 2002) in Spanish nor do I have the experience of living in the Caribbean countries of Cuba and the Dominican Republic. If I had grown up in these countries, my perception, understanding and analysis of these six songs might vary greatly.

I did my best to critique these songs based on the most frequently repeated words, their meaning and connection to the context. The appearance of non-Hispanic, non-Spanish, argot, and slang terms was relatively frequent, but the relationship to the context was more difficult to understand. Some of the slang was comprehensible from my past experiences with the terms. For example, “caramba” is an exclamation and the equivalent of saying “dang” in place of “damn”. As a result of a personal conversation with a Mexican friend, I learned that “Mejico” was the original spelling of “Mexico”. I therefore deduced that “Mejiquito” was how the author fondly referred to Mexico.

It is interesting to note that the most repeated word, excluding connectors, in the song Amor Verdadero by the Afro-Cuban All Stars, is “guajira” (see Figure G.) which appears six times. It is related to the social context of the song. The band is
singing to a guajira, which is the name for a peasant girl or woman from the eastern side of Cuba. With the use of the phrase, “Guajira, mi son te llama” (see Figure A), a call to escape everyday life and enjoy music and dance is made. Also, the narrator specifically states, “Voy a hacerles la historia de mi vida” (See Figure A.) which means I am going to tell you the story of my life. The second most repeated word, “madre” or mother, fits perfectly into the story of his life, in that his mother has always played a central role in his life (see Figure H).

In the lyrics of the piece Que Sorpresa by Los Van Van, the most frequently repeated word is “agua” which appears 14 times in the text. It is the object and symbol that is central to the theme. The narrator tells the story of his adventure in the countryside, where he asked a local girl for some water and she responded by giving him a glass of hot salt water. His desire to seek retaliation is apparent with the second most repeated phrase, “Voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa” (see Figure H). It seems that he is calling to the audience for approval to seek revenge in this manner.

Within the song lyrics of Ay! Ven by bachata artist Antony Santos, the most repeated phrase is “ay ven”, roughly translated as “oh come!” which appears 16 times. It serves to emphasize the frustration the narrator, or singer, feels toward his long lost lover. His life has not been the same since she left him. It is specifically a way to praise her, blame her and call her back to him. The second most repeated word is “ahora” which creates a physical context. This may be a ballad about regretting what has happened in the past, but the use of the word “ahora” brings the audience back to the present moment. It creates certain empathy between the narrator and audience even if there is no passion left from the lover for the narrator.

In the bachata ballad, Orgullo de Mas by Frank Reyes the most frequently repeated term is “nuestro” which appears 24 times. This emphasizes the intimacy between the narrator and his lover, the audience. This seems to be more of a private conversation or lament which the audience has the privilege of listening to. The phrase with the second most repeated term is “maldito orgullo” which is what keeps the former couple separated.

The musical piece Que Humanidad by Eliades Ochoa contains the phrase “que humanidad” which seems to be a statement of disbelief and indignation. Although I reviewed the definitions of the words in the phrase, “que pelo mas malo tienes, que panza mas colorada”, I could not find a way to translate the meaning of this colloquialism.

In the song Dos Gardenias performed by son artist Ibrahim Ferrer and the Buena Vista Social Club; the most frequently repeated terms are “te quiero, querer”. These terms appear five times and contain several meanings in the context of the song. “Te quiero” is used to express the desire or intention to say something to the audience. Yet it is also used in the more traditional sense of “I love you”. “Querer” functions as the object of affection or someone who loves and is affectionate toward another.

**Conclusion**
I was able to answer one of my questions. The most frequently repeated words within lyrics do have a strong connection with the context. The most repeated and second most repeated term relate directly to the physical, topical or social context of the song.

The question of whether the songs contained non-hispanic, non-spanish, argot or slang words was not completely answered. A variety of factors, from limited availability of current, comprehensive dictionaries to the differences between Hispanic and Spanish words, influenced these results. M. Stanley Whitney states that since the “break-up of the Indo-European, meaning and pronunciation have changed too drastically for the relationship to be clear to the non-specialist” (2002). Also, without extensive previous experience in the field of etymology, it was difficult to establish relationships between these words, other cultures and the context of the musical pieces.

If I were to complete this music review again, I would focus on the lyrics of songs created by composers from Cuba and the Dominican Republic in place of singers from this region. I would also ask a group of five Africans, five Cubans, five Dominicans and five L2 learners of Spanish to share their perception of the context. It would be interesting to compare and contrast these four varying perspectives.

Acknowledgments

I would like to sincerely thank Dr. Jeffrey Reeder for his teachings and support throughout the semester. I would also like to thank the fall 2009 Spanish 490 class for creating a dynamic environment to work on this assignment.

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Kings of bachata. (2009, October 31). *Billboard*, 121(43), Retrieved from [http://0-web.ebscohost.com.iii.sonoma.edu/ehost/detail?vid=4&hid=112&sid=a9c50f37-79f0-4f01-8b6b-d37d225afe6%40sessionmgr113&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFyZTMzYzNjNjI0bmd0aWxl7JmVzZWFzOjA=](http://0-web.ebscohost.com.iii.sonoma.edu/ehost/detail?vid=4&hid=112&sid=a9c50f37-79f0-4f01-8b6b-d37d225afe6%40sessionmgr113&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFyZTMzYzNjNjI0bmd0aWxl7JmVzZWFzOjA=)


va](http://www.lyricsmania.com/search.php?c=artist&k=Juan+Oli
va)


**Appendix**

A.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Songs:</th>
<th>Repetition:</th>
<th>Word/phrase with most repetition</th>
<th>Word/phrase with second most repetition</th>
<th>Words/phrases non-spanish, non-hispanic, argot/slang</th>
<th># of times most repeated phrase appears</th>
<th># of times second most repeated phrase appears</th>
<th># of times words/phrases non-spanish, non-Hispanic, argot/slang appear</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>madre</td>
<td>caramba compay guajira</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que Sorpresa</td>
<td>agua</td>
<td>voy a publicar tu foto en la prensa</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>Ay! Ven</td>
<td>ay ven</td>
<td>ahora</td>
<td>ay</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orgullo de Mas</td>
<td>nuestra, nuestro, nos</td>
<td>maldito orgullo</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Que Humanidad</td>
<td>que humanidad</td>
<td>que pelo más malo tienes...</td>
<td>java pa’atrás mejiquito</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dos Gardenias</td>
<td>te quiero, querer</td>
<td>gardenias</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
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</table>
Spanish informal and formal forms of address in a business setting: a Case study

Greg Vermeulen

Sonoma State University
Abstract

This is a case study of Spanish informal and formal forms of address in a business setting. The study took place at an American big box electronic retail store in Santa Rosa, California. The purpose was to determine whether ethnicity and/or sex affect a native Spanish speaker's pronoun selection when addressing an employee. Three employees, a Caucasian of European descent in his early 20's who is conversant in Spanish, a Guatemalan male, and a Mexican female who are native Spanish speakers and in the same age category collected 25 samples each from authentic customer employee interactions. The samples included their customers' pronoun use, nationalities, and estimated ages. The results illustrate that ethnicity is not a principle factor that affects a native Spanish Speaker's pronoun selection when addressing an employee, but sex is.

Sinopsis

Este es un estudio de casos prácticos de tratamiento informal y formal del español en un escenario de negocio. El estudio se llevó cabo en una gran tienda norteamericana de productos electrónicos en Santa Rosa, California. El propósito del estudio fue determinar si la etnicidad y/o el sexo afecta la selección de tratamiento de un hablante nativo del español cuando habla con un empleado. Tres empleados, un anglohablante nativo que está conversado en el español y tiene alrededor de veinte años, un guatemalteco y una mexicana que son hablantes nativos del español y tienen más o menos la misma edad, cada uno reunió 25 muestras que incluyó como fueron tratados por su clientes, las nacionalidades y las edades estimadas de los clientes. Los resultados ilustran que la etnicidad no es un gran factor en la selección de tratamiento de un hablante nativo del español cuando habla con un empleado. Sin embargo, los resultados muestran que el sexo afecta la selección de tratamiento de un hablante nativo del español.

Introduction

In contemporary spoken and written English there is only one pronoun of address, you. You is both used to address one person and more than one person. However in French, German, Italian, Spanish, and other Indo-European languages, there are two singular pronouns of address. The choice of which pronoun to use is deeply rooted in a choice between power and solidarity (Brown and Gilman, 2003[1960]). The use of two singular pronouns is directly borrowed from Latin that began utilizing two singular pronouns in the 4th century. Until the 4th century Latin used tu as a singular form address and vos as a plural. “The plural vos as a form of address to one person was first directed to the emperor” (Brown and Gilman, 2003[1960], p. 156). Although there are several theories surrounding why the emperor started being addressed by vos, the most feasible is because during the 4th century the Roman Empire had two emperors, one who ruled the western empire who sat in Rome, and one who ruled the eastern empire who sat in Constantinople. Therefore, because the empire was administratively unified, anytime speaking to
one emperor, it was implied that one was speaking to both. This implied plurality may have been the reason why vos became the pronoun used to address the emperor (Brown and Gilman, 2003[1960]).

Regardless of its origin, eventually the Latin plural vos as a singular form of address was extended from the emperor to other power figures, and between the 12th and 14th centuries the other Indo-European languages adopted the use of two singular pronouns (Brown and Gilman, 2003[1960]). As stated, the choice of which pronoun to use is based on a choice between power and solidarity. Power is defined by Brown and Gilman (2003[1960]) as a, “...Relationship between at least two persons, and it is nonreciprocal in the sense that both cannot have power in the same area of behavior” (p. 158). Therefore, the power semantic is also nonreciprocal; in dyadic discourse the interlocutor with superior power addresses the interlocutor that has less power with the informal form of address and receives the formal form (Brown and Gilman, 2003[1960]). Power can be derived from many aspects, such as, wealth, age, family, ethnicity, role in a group or institution, occupation, etc. The second dimension, or choice, is solidarity. The solidarity semantic is described as the mutual agreement between two individuals that they are of the same power level and thus can use a reciprocal form of address with one another (Brown and Gilman, 2003[1960]).

In contemporary Spanish, the two common forms of singular address are tú and usted, and respectively are informal and formal. Although other singular forms of address exist, such as vos (informal), which is used throughout most of Central America and Argentina, and su merced and mio (formal), that are used in Columbia and parts of Central America, the semantics and pragmatics of such forms are generally observed as the same as tú and usted. Pronouns in Spanish, like in many other Indo-European languages can also be derived from verb morphology.

Yolanda r. Sole (1978) discusses that, “Usted may signal formality, courtesy, deference, social or psychological distance, and respect. Whereas tú may be expressive of informality, familiarity, affection, or intimacy” (p. 941). Diane Ringer Uber (1985) states that, “The usage of these pronouns is often described as familiar vs. formal, or friendly vs. polite, respectively” (p. 388). Sole (1978) supports Brown and Gilman (2003[1960]) by illustrating that forms of address are either symmetrical or asymmetrical. “The unmarked form of usted is universally considered the appropriate address form between adult interlocutors who are only casually acquainted with each other or whose relationship is one of a transactional nature: physician-patient, salesperson-customer, teacher-student, waiter-customer, lawyer-client, etc. A reciprocal tú, on the other hand, occurs between children, adolescents, and those adults who are related by blood, marriage, or tied by bonds of personal friendship, provided they are not separated by generational distance or relative authority” (Sole, 1978, p. 943). When two people are separated by relative authority status or generational distance, asymmetrical use occurs and is considered legitimate (Sole, 1978).

However, many studies such as Diego Marin (1972), Maria Elena Placencia (2005), Yolanda Lastra de Suarez (1972), Dolores Brown (1975), Diane Ringer Uber (1985) and Damaso Alonso (1962), indicate that a shift in pronoun use to the
Informal and formal forms of address

symmetrical tú is occurring. Marin (1972) attributes the shift to Latin American societies becoming egalitarian. Marin (1972) even dubs tú as the “egalitarian pronoun”. Alonso (1962) illustrates the spread of the tuteo (symmetrical use of tú) in Madrid before 1936 and that its use should continue. Placencia’s (2005) data supports Alsono’s speculation by illustrating the exclusive use of tú in corner store interactions in Madrid. Lastra de Suarez (1972), Ringer Uber (1985), and Brown (1975) all display a common theme of younger people using the reciprocal tú more than middle to upper age adults. The frequent use of the symmetrical informal address amongst young people may or may not carry into their adulthood.

None the less, it is evident that the use of two singular forms of address has created numerous semantic and pragmatic possibilities. The possibilities are often deeply rooted in a choice between power and solidarity, which is often predetermined by the interlocutors’ age, socioeconomic levels, ethnicities, occupations, family and/or sex. Although Sole (1978) states that both forms of address have speech contexts where they are “universally considered appropriate”, many studies, such as Marin (1972) display that a shift to the symmetrical use of tú is occurring. This study aims to discover whether ethnicity and/or sex affect a native Spanish speaker’s pronoun selection when addressing an employee in a large American electronic big box retail store.

Method

The study was conducted at the Santa Rosa Best Buy in California. The Santa Rosa Best Buy is a large American big box retail store that averages 2000 customers a day. Three employees all in their early 20’s who have each worked at the Santa Rosa Best Buy for a minimum of one year participated in the study. A Caucasian male of European decent who is conversant in Spanish was used as the primary study. A Guatemalan male and Mexican female who are both native Spanish speakers were used as comparison studies. Each collected 25 samples from authentic customer employee discourse. The samples included the forms of address used by their native Spanish speaking customers, the customer’s nationality and estimated age. If the customer’s nationality could not be derived from authentic customer employee discourse, a basic question asking where they are from (¿De donde es usted?) would be used to obtain their nationality. Other than this question, no other questions pertaining to the study were asked in order to keep the study as authentic as possible. All data collected was transcribed by each employee in 3 inch x 5 inch memo pads.

Results

Figure 1. The graph below illustrates the number of informal (tú) and formal (usted) forms of address each employee received. The Caucasian male received 23 informal forms and 2 formal forms of address. The Guatemalan male received 19 informal forms and 6 formal forms of address. The Mexican female received 9 informal forms and 16 formal forms of address.

![Graph showing number of informal and formal forms of address received by employees.](image-url)
Informal and formal forms of address

Figure 2. The chart below displays the different ethnicities that comprised the three sample populations combined. Out of 75 interactions, there were 61 Mexicans, 3 Guatemalans, 3 Peruvians, 2 Costa Ricans, 2 Argentineans, 2 Salvadorians, 1 Venezuelan, and 1 Chilean.

![Ethnicity Pie Chart]

Figure 3. The graph below exemplifies the different age categories and the distribution of the informal and formal forms of address used by each. Customers in their twenties used 27 informal forms and 9 formal forms of address. Customers in their thirties used 14 informal forms and 9 formal forms of address. Customers in their forties or older used 10 informal forms and six formal forms of address.

![Address Form Distribution Chart]
Discussion

The results display that ethnicity is not a principal factor that affects a native Spanish speaker’s pronoun selection when addressing an employee in an American big box retail store. This is congruent with previous studies illustrating the expansion in the domain of tú such as Diego Marin (1972) who states that tú is now the egalitarian pronoun that is representative of contemporary society, Maria Elena Placencia’s (2005) data collected from corner store interactions in Madrid, Lastra de Suarez (1972) for younger and middle class and upper class speakers in Mexico city, Dolores Brown (1975) for Mexican American students, Diane Ringer Uber (1985) for middle age adults, and Damaso Alonso who noted the spread of the tuteo in Madrid before 1936.

However, the results demonstrate that sex does affect a native Spanish speaker’s pronoun selection when addressing an employee in an American big box retail store. When analyzing the data further, it appears that both the sex of the employee and of the speaker influence this phenomenon. Out of the 9 informal forms of address that the Mexican female received, 6 were from other females. Whereas 11 of the 16 formal forms of address she received were from males, suggesting that both the sex of the employee and of the speaker affects pronoun selection.

Although 81% (61) of the customers in the study were from Mexico, a clear difference in forms of addressed used by the 14 customers from the other 7 geographically dispersed countries was not evident. The customers’ age also did not attribute to a large difference in pronoun selection. Each category used the informal form of address for more than 50% of their pronoun selection (20’s-75%, 30’s-56%, 40’s and older-62.5%). This supports Lastra de Suarez (1972), Ringer Uber (1985), and Brown (1975) who all display a common theme of younger people using the reciprocal tú more than middle to upper age adults, but not by much, meaning that the tuteo is being carried into adulthood and utilized.

The results disprove Sole’s (1978) universally considered appropriate use of the symmetrical formal form of address in salesperson to customer interactions. This questions whether Sole’s (1978) other universally accepted contexts for use of reciprocal formal forms of address are still relevant. The most reasonable explanation for why a shift in pronoun use is occurring is Diego Marin’s notion that tú is now the egalitarian pronoun that represents contemporary society. This is evident in nearly all parts of Latin America by people of different socioeconomic levels being friends, dating and even marrying, open access to the same stores, restaurants, and parts of town, the abolishment of slavery, and of course the widespread symmetrical use of tú.

Conclusion

To conclude, this case study illustrates that ethnicity is not a principle factor that affects a native Spanish Speaker’s pronoun selection when addressing an employee in an American electronic big box retail store. This is congruent with many similar studies that exemplify that an expansion in the domain of tuteo (symmetrical use of tú) is occurring. However, the results display that sex does
informal and formal forms of address

affect a native Spanish speaker’s pronoun selection. It appears that both the sex of the employee, and of the speaker affect this phenomena.

Acknowledgments

I would like to sincerely thank Jazmin Quintero and Darwin Santos for collecting data for this project. Without their participation this project would not have been possible. I would also like to thank Professor Jeffery Reeder for his enthusiasm and guidance throughout this study.

References


Pronunciation and Orthography in Spanish: the case of <b,v>

Amy L. Wilson

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Abstract

This paper is an analysis of the pronunciation and the orthography of the phonemes [b] and [v]. An empirical study was conducted by a Sonoma State University student who is a L2 speaker of Spanish to determine whether L1 and L2 speakers of Spanish produce allophonic variation in the phonemes [b] and [v] and if so, why those variations may occur such as an influence from English, other languages or possibly that it may be due to hypercorrection. The author conducted this research because while listening to a L1 speaker of Spanish use the Spanish <v> as in vaca (cow) or vamos (let’s go) the phoneme [v] sounded strikingly similar to the Spanish phoneme [b]. The question is can this be because phonoetically it is exactly the same? The author studied the pronunciation by articulation and orthography of the phonemes to determine whether this is true for all speakers of Spanish including L2 speakers of Spanish. Does the L1 or L2 speaker of Spanish produce a voiced labio-dental fricative [v] or a voiced bilabial stop [b] when using in Spanish <b> and <v>? It is important to study this for the purpose that beginner learners of Spanish as well as advanced Spanish students are aware of what allophones and phonemes exist in the Spanish language and that these can cause problems within the pronunciation of the language.

Sinopsis

La investigación de la lingüística hispánica fue hecha por una persona de la Universidad de Sonoma para la clase de Español 490 El seminario de la lingüística hispánica. La pronunciación y el ortografía en el caso del <b,v> fue estudiado en la clase de español a ver cual de los hablantes de español, los L1 y L2 utilizan el fonema de español [b] más en vez de[v]. El análisis nos muestra en la que cual de las variaciones del [b] utilizado más. Es importante a ensenar a la gente aprendiendo la lengua para la primera vez que hay variaciones en las pronunciaciones.

Los sonidos del español son similares a los sonidos del inglés. El fonema [b] en español existe in ingles y pero el fonema de inglés [v] no está en la lista de fonemas de español. El estudio de los hablantes de español, L2 participantes, es para encontrar cuál pronunciación es lo mejor y el correcto a decir en el caso del <b,v> en la que cuál se utilizan más. La investigación se centra en el fonema español /b/ y las variaciones que tiene el consonante: [b] y [β].

Introduction

This study was chosen to further research the allophonic variation in the phonemes [b] and [v]. In Spanish, <b,v> are both used but only [b] is a phoneme in Spanish. The phoneme [v] does not exist as a phoneme is Spanish. The author set out to find out how the phoneme [v] is used and pronounced in Spanish. Most difficult for the L2 speaker of Spanish, especially new learners of Spanish, is the differentiation of the <b> and the <v> which according Rodriguez-Castellano & Knapp Jones (1951) are pronounced exactly the same. Spanish teachers, school textbooks, dictionaries and grammar books rarely make little to no reference
(Stevens 2000, 139), when studying the language of Spanish, to the undeniable similarities in the pronunciation of the Spanish voiced bilabial stop <b,v>.

Spanish language is easy to learn from a book however, Spanish pronunciation is especially difficult to learn this way (Rodriguez-Castellano, & Knapp Jones, 1951). That is why when learning a foreign language teachers and instructors guide the students towards learning the language not only in a classroom setting but also in a language lab where one is able to listen to a phonographic recording of the language and then asked to repeat the sounds back. It is extremely helpful and recommended to study abroad as well and learn a language by immersion as did the author.

There is little to no mention of the these similarity or differences in any teaching that the author has had in their formal Spanish language studies and with curiosity conducted a quantitative analysis and empirical study of the variation of the Spanish phonemes /b/ and /v/. The voiced bilabial stop [b], which is said to occur after a pause or a nasal is usually pronounced in place of the Spanish [v]. The English voiced labiodental fricative [v] is not usually considered to be part of the Spanish allophonic inventory (Stevens 2000, 140).

The variation of the Spanish /b/: [b], [v] and [β] among the participants are examined here in this study. The intent of the study is to obtain quantitative data in hopes of reaching a conclusion on the correct pronunciation of the phoneme /v/ in Spanish.

**Method**

The data for the present study consist of recorded various types of speech samples taken from nine fluent speakers of Spanish in northern California in the County of Sonoma. The nine participants are comprised two groups: five L1 native speakers of Spanish originally from Mexico, United States and Japan and four L2 bilingual participants, bilingual in both English and Spanish and are all originally from the United States. Of the nine participants, four are male and five are female. Of the four males, three are L1 Spanish speakers and one is a L2 Spanish speaker. Of the five females, two are L1 Spanish speakers and three are L2 Spanish speakers.

In method one all nine participants were asked to perform a serious of voiced bilabial stops and voiced bilabial fricatives using their Spanish. They were tape recorded performing three different tasks. The tape recorded tasks consisted of questions regarding nationality and duration of time speaking Spanish, readings of a list of isolated words with the phonemes /b/ and /v/ in them and then using those same words in a sentence in Spanish.

Method two had to do with video taping the nine participants’ mouth as to record and analyze the placement of the position of the mouth when using/saying the phonemes /b/ and /v/ in Spanish. This study consisted of each participant

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32 The participant born in Japan immediately moved to a Spanish speaking county and grew up speaking Spanish.
pronouncing each of the phonemes <b,v> three times and saying a Spanish word with that phoneme after each pronunciation.

The tape recorded tasks all together lasted approximately five to ten minutes with a total of 25 tokens per participant. The video recordings lasted a total of two minutes with a total of 12 tokens per participant for creating a total of 37 tokens. The participants range in age from 19 to 49.

**Results**

All the recordings of articulations of the allophonic variants of the Spanish /b/ were analyzed to collect data on the pronunciation between participants regarding the <b,v>. It was found each of the participants had no difficulty in pronouncing the variants of /b/ and each variant of /b/ was prevalent: [b], [v] and [β]. The data collected resolved the primary question of whether native Spanish speakers used a voiced bilabial stop for the Spanish phoneme [b], the voiced labiodental fricative [v] or the bilabial fricative [β]. It was determined that out of all of the three variants of the Spanish [b] were used however the most frequently used phoneme used especially by the L1 Spanish speakers was the voiced bilabial stop [b] even for the phoneme [v]. The research found that there was little variation in the pronunciation regarding the <b,v>. As stated by Rodriguez-Castellano & Knapp Jones (1951) there is no difference in the pronunciation and they are the same.

Out of the total of 12 articulations of the Spanish /b/ and the allophonic variations form each the participants, the video recordings showed the voiced bilabial stop [b] was used in place of the voiced labiodental fricative [v] more than 77% of the time. It was determined that there were influences from English on the phoneme [v] and hypercorrection came to be true for one of the participants. Table 1 shows the results to the main question posed by this study which phonetic sound is used more regarding the <b,v>. Both L1 and L2 speakers of Spanish used a variant of the allophonic /b/ as a pronunciation of <v>, namely the Spanish <b>.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Native Spanish Speaker</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Uses &lt;b&gt; for voiced labiodental fricative[v]</th>
<th>Uses &lt;v&gt; for voiced bilabial stop [b]</th>
<th>Uses fricative[β] as in sombra and veintinueve</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>US</td>
<td>Uses β</td>
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<td>c</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Japan</td>
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<td>Y</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Frequency of /b/ by Speaker for video recording

**Discussion**
It was interesting that both the Spanish L1 speakers and the Spanish L2 speakers during the tape recordings were less focused on pronunciation than they were when they were performing the tasks of method two. In method two the participants used more body language as well as attention to pronunciation of the \(<b,v>\) in Spanish when digitally video recorded. It may have been the cause of the hypercorrection in the L2 Spanish speaker during the last two tasks performed in method two.

**Conclusion**

It was determined that the video recordings from the digital camera were more helpful in analyzing the \(<b,v>\) in Spanish. They showed the placement of the mouth when the two phonemes were being pronounced and one could specifically view where the lips touched when saying each of the phonemes which answered the primary question as to which pronunciation of the phoneme /ν/ was used when speaking Spanish, the English voiced labiodental fricative [v] or the Spanish voiced bilabial stop [b]. The answer is that the Spanish phoneme [b] pronounced \(<b>\) is used more frequently concluding that while speaking Spanish it is more common to use the \(<b>\) when pronouncing the letter v as in *vaca* (cow), *vamos* (let’s go), *verdad* (right?) and *veintinueve* (twenty-nine). The Spanish [β] is used in the language when saying *veintinueve* (twenty-nine) in the last v in the Spanish word and sometimes as a variation of v in the beginning of a Spanish word as in the case of participant b.) shown in table 1. whom is an L1 Spanish speaker born in the United States.

**Acknowledgments**

All of the participants are acknowledged in this study for their time, energy and Spanish speaking skills regarding the \(<b,v>\). Sonoma State University Library is acknowledged for the wide variety of works related to this subject as well as the employees at the Sonoma state University Library reference desk whom helped in locating suggested articles.

**References / Referencias**


Appendix

1. ¿Es la lengua de español su primera lengua?
   (Is Spanish your primary language?)
2. ¿Si sí, dónde nació usted?
   (If yes, where were you born?)
3. ¿Si no, dónde aprendió español y por cuanto tiempo ha hablado español?
   (If no, where did you learn Spanish and for how long have you been speaking Spanish?)
4. ¿Si sí, dónde aprendió ingles y por cuanto tiempo ha hablado ingles?
5. Diga las palabras en español y utilízelas en una oración
   a. *Vago* (lazy)
   b. *Sombra* (shade)
   c. *Hombre* (man)
   d. *Burro* (bull)
   e. *Venir* (to come)
   f. *Vamos* (let's go)
   g. *Vaca* (cow)
   h. *Boca* (mouth)
   i. *Verdad* (right?)
   j. *Veintinueve* (twenty-nine)
6. *Pronuncia* <b,v> y diga la palabra en español
   <b> (pronounce <b,v> and say the word in a sentence)
   *Boca*
   <b>
   *Sombra* ( 
   <b>
   *Burro* 
   <v>
   *Vago* 
   <v>
   *Verdad* 
   <v>
   *Veintinueve*
Analysis of Presidential Discourse in South America: Michelle Bachelet and Cristina Fernández de Kirchner

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Abstract

This study focuses on presidential discourse in South America. More specifically, whether or not a president's history and choice of political party affect his or her way of speaking to the public. Part of this research follows the lead of linguist Mark Liberman and his research on U.S. presidents' use of first and third person pronouns in their inaugural speeches. The presidents chosen for this particular study were Michelle Bachelet of Chile and Cristina Fernández de Kirchner of Argentina, two women from similar countries with different backgrounds and political parties. A close observation was made of their respective histories as well as a detailed analysis of two speeches from each president. This study looks closely at the content of each speech, focusing specifically on first person singular pronouns versus first person plural pronouns as well as speech complexity, which includes a readability analysis using the Fernández-Huerta method. The intended goal is to demonstrate that a president's background and political party have a great effect on the complexity of his or her speeches and how he or she addresses the public.

Sinopsis

Este estudio se enfoca en el discurso presidencial de Suramérica. Específicamente, si la historia y la elección de partido político del presidente influye su manera de hablar al público. Una parte de esta investigación sigue el ejemplo del lingüista Mark Liberman y su estudio sobre el uso de pronombres en primera y tercera persona de algunos presidentes de EE.UU. en sus discursos. Las presidentas elegidas para este estudio fueron Michelle Bachelet de Chile y Cristina Fernández de Kirchner de Argentina, dos mujeres de países similares pero de orígenes y partidos políticos diferentes. Se hizo un examen sobre sus historias respectivas así como un análisis detallado de dos discursos de cada presidente. Este estudio examina el contenido de cada discurso, centrado específicamente en el uso de los pronombres de primera persona singular versus los pronombres de primera persona plural, así como la complejidad de los discursos, que incluye un análisis de legibilidad utilizando el método de Fernández-Huerta. El objetivo pretendido es demostrar que las historias y los partidos políticos de las presidentas tienen gran efecto en como ellas se dirigen al público.

Introduction

Political discourse is a hugely important topic, which is used by the mayors of the smallest towns and cities up to the presidents of the largest nations. It is used to "(a) [clarify] citizens' understanding of the issue, (b) [help] citizens reach their best reasoned judgment as to which course of action will solve a problem, (c) [increase] citizen participation in the political process, and (d) [socialize] the next generation into the procedures and attitudes they need to be active citizens" (Johnson & Johnson, 2000). So, one can see the importance of the way in which a politician chooses to speak to his or her audience. In his book on political discourse, Chilton (2004) argues that "embedded in the tradition of western political thought there is in fact a view that language and politics are intimately
linked at a fundamental level” (p. 4). Numerous studies have been conducted on political discourse and also on the contents of politician’s speeches. In fact, with all of our technological advancements and the increasing popularity of “blogging”, anyone can publish their own opinion and analysis on any number of political speeches. However, there do not seem to be any concrete studies done on the effect a politician’s history may have on his or her way of speaking to the public nor the history’s relation to the contents of the politician’s speeches. This is an important topic to analyze as it can provide the public with insight into why a politician may take a particular stance on a certain subject.

The goal of this study is to show that a politician’s background will have a substantial effect on how they address the public, i.e. pronoun usage and speech complexity, through studying the histories and speeches of the two presidents Michelle Bachelet of Chile and Cristina Fernández de Kirchner of Argentina. For example, president Michelle Bachelet is a member of the Socialist party, therefore one might expect her to employ first person plural pronouns (such as “we”, “ours”, etc) more than first person singular pronouns (such as “I”, “mine”, etc). Bachelet also has a very extensive educational career, therefore one might assume that she would have relatively complex speeches. On the other hand, as president Cristina Fernández de Kirchner is a member of a more conservative political party, one could expect her to use first person singular pronouns more frequently than first person plural pronouns. In fact, this study will compare both presidents and provide the results in a comparative manner. Even though presidents do tend to have speechwriters they still hold themselves in a particular way and have a specific character they utilize in their speeches. Francisco Javier Díaz, Michelle Bachelet’s speechwriter, says that she emphasizes “her empathy with and support among common people rather than her ties to political parties.”

**History of Michelle Bachelet**

President Michelle Bachelet was born Verónica Michelle Bachelet Jeria on September 29, 1951. Her father, Alberto Bachelet, was a socialist and served as Brigadier General of the Chilean Air Force during the time of Salvador Allende’s presidency. After the military coup led by Augusto Pinochet, Bachelet’s father was captured, tortured and subsequently died in custody. Bachelet and her mother continued fighting for Socialism by becoming couriers for the underground Socialist Party. However, she and her mother were also captured and tortured, but then released by sympathetic ties in the military. Both were exiled to Australia where her brother had already been living for a number of years. After spending about a year in Australia, the Bachelet family relocated to Europe. Since Bachelet had been captured during her college career, when she was studying to be a medical doctor, she picked up her studies where she left off in Eastern Germany. In 1979 she and her family returned to Chile, where she was forced to redo all of her schooling as the credits from the Humboldt University of Berlin did not transfer. However, in 1983 she was finally awarded her MD and she began work at the Children’s Hospital of Roberto del Río where she specialized in pediatrics and public health. Bachelet worked as a doctor and consultant for the Ministry of Health’s West Santiago Service until 1994 when she became Senior Assistant to the Deputy Health Minister. In 1996 she began studying military strategy at the National Academy for Strategic and Policy Studies in Chile, then in 1998 she...
attended the Inter-American Defense College in Washington D.C. where she completed a course in Continental Defense. In that same year she returned to Chile where she became Senior Assistant to the Defense Minister. She would later graduate from the Chilean Army’s War Academy with a Master’s degree in military science. In 2000 she became the Minister of Health in Chile and then in 2002 she was named the first female Minister of Defense in a South American country. Bachelet began her run for the presidency by becoming the Socialists Party’s candidate. On January 15, 2006, Bachelet won the runoff vote for the presidency with 53% of the vote making her the first female president of Chile. President Bachelet encountered various problems at the beginning of her presidency, but, according to an article in the BBC titled “Dos mujeres, dos caminos [Two women, two paths]”, she has since raised her approval rating from 35% in October of 2007 to 53.1% as of earlier this year (Smink, 2009).

History of Cristina Fernández de Kirchner

President Fernández de Kirchner was born Cristina Elisabet Fernández on February 19, 1953. She was born in La Plata, a suburb of Buenos Aires, Argentina, to an upper middle class family. She graduated from high school in 1970 and began studying law in 1971 at the University of La Plata in Buenos Aires. During her time in school she met her husband, and former president of Argentina, Néstor Kirchner and the two became involved in the Peronist Youth Movement of the Justicialist party of Argentina. During the National Reorganization Process of Argentina, which included a military coup in 1976, both Fernández de Kirchner and her husband dropped out of politics due to their political affiliation and support of, then recently deceased, President Juan Perón. They began their own law firm and worked there until the late 1980’s when Fernández de Kirchner restarted her career in politics. She was elected Representative and then later Senator for various provinces in Argentina and served her positions from the 1980’s to 2005 when she began her campaign for the presidency. Fernández de Kirchner was elected president in 2007. Throughout her political career she has been a member of the Argentine Justicialist party, which is known as for being center-left with some conservative tendencies. The main focus of her presidency has been human rights and equality for women. President Fernández de Kircher started her presidency off with a relatively high approval rating of 56%, however, as of earlier this year, her approval rating was below 30%. The lowest approval rating of her presidency was 20% (Smink, 2009). Journalist Verónica Smink of BBC Mundo (2009), in accordance with political specialists, attributes these low approval ratings with the fact that 52% of Argentines believe that President Fernández de Kirchner and former President Kirchner govern together and 31% believe that it is in fact Néstor Kirchner who is governing through his wife.

Speeches

The four speeches analyzed were ones that each president gave on the same topics, which means that there are four speeches focusing on two specific topics. The first speech is on the Treaty of Maipú, which was used to establish a friendship relation between the neighboring countries of Argentina and Chile. Both President Bachelet and President Fernández de Kirchner met on October 30, 2009 in Santiago, Chile to discuss and sign an update to the Peace and Friendship Treaty of
1984 (Bachelet, 2009; Fernández de Kirchner, 2009). The second speech used was given by both presidents in a meeting of the Union of South American Nations in San Carlos de Bariloche, Argentina on August 28, 2008 (Bachelet, 2009; Fernández de Kirchner, 2009). The Union of South American Nations is modeled after the European Union and includes all of the countries of South America, with the exception of French Guiana.

Method

For this study the speech patterns of two presidents, Michelle Bachelet of Chile and Cristina Fernández de Kirchner of Argentina, were analyzed. The first step was to find speeches where both presidents were speaking about similar topics so that an accurate comparative analysis could be performed. Four speeches were found where both presidents were in the same place at the same time, speaking about the same topic. The first speech that was used was one that both presidents gave at their signing of the Treaty of Maipú. The second speech was from the meeting of the leaders of the countries of the Union of South American Nations (USAN in English or UNASUR in Spanish). Both Bachelet’s and Fernández de Kirchner’s speeches had already been transcribed by their respective governments and the transcriptions were readily available on the governments’ websites.

The analysis began with reading the speeches thoroughly and then counting the total words per speech. The word count was done by hand as well as by using the “Word Count” tool in the program Microsoft Word, so as to ensure accuracy. Once the total word count was taken, the speeches were initially examined for the use of first person singular pronouns (“I”, “me”, “mine”, etc). The total amount of first person singular pronouns in each individual speech was tallied. Then the speeches were examined for the use of first person plural pronouns (“we”, “us”, “ours”, etc). This amount was also tallied for each speech. To begin the comparison the researcher needed to find the rate at which each president used the singular and plural first person pronouns. To do so, a simple method, used by linguist Mark Liberman (2009), was employed, which is as follows:

\[
\text{Total amount of singular first person pronoun/Total word count} = \text{Rate}
\]

**Example:**

Michelle Bachelet’s total word count for her speech at the signing of the Treaty of Maipú was 2,018. Her total use of the singular first person pronouns was 12.

\[
12/2018 = .59\
\]

So, the rate at which President Bachelet used singular first person pronouns was .59%.

The same method was used to find the rate at which each president used first person plural pronouns. As well as calculating each speech individually, the tallied
results for total first person singular pronouns of each president were added up. The same was done for the total amount of first person plural pronouns so that an accurate comparison could be made between President Bachelet and President Fernández de Kirchner.

Along with performing an analysis of pronoun use, a readability analysis was also used to measure the complexity of each speech. The method used for this particular task was what is known as the Huerta Reading Ease calculator. The Huerta method is a “modified Flesch Reading Ease for Spanish texts” (How is the). The formula used to calculate the reading ease of a body of text in Spanish is:

\[ 206.84 - (0.60 \times P) - (1.02 \times F) = \text{Huerta Reading Ease} \]

\( P \) = Number of syllables per 100 words

\( F \) = Number of sentences per 100 words

The University of Texas describes the results of the equation as the closer the score is to 100, the easier the text is to read; the closer the score is to 0, the more difficult it is to read. The University also sites that “research has indicated that a score of 70 is likely appropriate for adult readers” (How is the).

**Results**

The total amount of words was calculated and the results are indicated in the graph below:

**Chart 1**

From here the first person singular and plural pronouns were tallied. To reach the results that are reflected in the graphs below, the total amount of words in both of Michelle Bachelet’s speeches were added together as well as her use of the first person singular and plural pronouns. The same was done for Cristina Fernández de Kirchner.
Michelle Bachelet

- Singular first person pronoun rate: 4.40%
- Plural first person pronoun rate: 1.40%

Cristina Fernández de Kirchner

- Singular first person pronoun rate: 2.60%
- Plural first person pronoun rate: 2.30%
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Huerta Reading Ease Score</th>
<th>Description of Difficulty</th>
<th>Estimated Reading Grade Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-30</td>
<td>Very Difficult</td>
<td>College Graduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-50</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>13th-16th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-60</td>
<td>Fairly Difficult</td>
<td>10th-12th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-70</td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>8th-9th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-80</td>
<td>Fairly Easy</td>
<td>7th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-90</td>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>6th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-100</td>
<td>Very Easy</td>
<td>5th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>Readability Score could not be calculated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The data presented shows that (a) President Bachelet generally gives longer speeches than President Fernández de Kirchner (b) President Bachelet has a far higher rate of use of first person plural pronouns than President Fernández de Kirchner (c) President Fernández de Kirchner has a much higher rate of use of first person singular pronouns than President Bachelet and, (c) President Bachelet’s speeches are somewhat more complex than those of President Fernández de Kirchner.

As one can see, the total word count for President Bachelet’s speech on the Treaty of Maipú was almost double that of President Fernández de Kirchner’s speech on the same topic. The Huerta Reading Ease calculation also tells us that President Bachelet’s speech was slightly more complex than President Fernández de Kirchner’s speech. In fact, it also tells us that both of President Bachelet’s speeches were more complex than those of President Fernández de Kirchner. One could attribute this to the fact that President Bachelet has spent far more time in school than President Fernández de Kirchner.
The data presented for the use of first person singular pronouns versus first person plural pronouns is quite significant. As expressed before, it shows that President Bachelet has a high rate of use of first person plural pronouns, where as President Fernández de Kirchner has a high rate of use of first person singular pronouns (as compared to President Bachelet.) President Bachelet’s rate of use of first person plural pronouns is 59% higher than President Fernández de Kirchner’s use of the same pronouns. Similarly, President Fernández de Kirchner’s use of first person singular pronouns is 61% higher than President Bachelet’s rate of use.

What all this data suggests is that a politician’s background can have a profound affect on the way they address the public. Given the fact that President Bachelet is a Socialist and socialism is defined as “various theories of economic organization advocating public or direct worker ownership [...] and a society characterized by equal access to resources for all individuals” (Wiki, n.d.). it would make sense that her natural inclination would be to use first person plural pronouns, such as “we” and “ours”, in speaking with the public. By using the plural version of first person pronouns, she is speaking to the public as though they are her constituents instead of removing herself from them. James A. Pennebaker (2008), professor of psychology at the University of Texas, claims that:

“If [people] are thinking and talking about the group or relationship they are in, they might use words like we and us. And if their attention is drawn to themselves, they use I, me, and my. People pay attention to themselves if they are in pain, self-conscious, or self-aware. However, if they are completely immersed in what they are doing or are psychologically distancing themselves from the topic of discussion, they are not paying attention to themselves and will not use 1st person singular.”

Pennebaker (2008) also notes that those who are leaders and those that are more self-confident tend to use first person plural pronouns rather then first person singular pronouns.

On the other hand, President Fernández de Kirchner’s high rate of use of first person singular pronouns, as compared to President Bachelet, can be attributed to a number of things. Pennebaker (2008) cites self-consciousness and a lack of self-confidence as potential reasons for an increased use of first person singular pronouns. However, he also states that, “if individuals feel extremely close to an object, event, or other person, they tend to link their sense of self to it” (Pennebaker, 2008). Therefore, one could assume that the more closely connected a politician feels to the topic they are speaking about, the more they will use first person singular pronouns. Also, through Liberman’s study of U.S. presidential speeches by Barack Obama, George W. Bush, Bill Clinton, Ronald Reagan and others, the usage of first person singular pronouns is much higher among the more conservative presidents (George W. Bush and Ronald Reagan) than it is among the more liberal presidents (Barack Obama and Bill Clinton). However, Liberman does not provide a concrete answer as to why this is so. It is possible to conclude that since the politicians that are considered conservative on the political spectrum have a tendency to “believe in personal responsibility [and] individual liberty” as
well as “emphasiz[ing] empowerment of the individual to solve problems” (Conservative vs. liberal, 2005) they would be more inclined to use first person singular pronouns than first person plural pronouns. This is because, unlike Socialism, their emphasis is on the individual, not on the group.

Though the study was done as accurately as possible and provided the researcher with a clear conclusion, it was by no means exhaustive. Time constraints limited the amount of data that could be gathered and analyzed for comparison. In order to come to a more definite conclusion more speeches would need to be analyzed as well as possibly including speeches from other presidents and their backgrounds.

**Conclusion**

The research conducted led to the conclusion that was originally hypothesized, which was that a president’s background and political affiliation has a strong affect on how he or she addresses the public. President Michelle Bachelet, being a well-educated member of the Socialist party had a higher rate of use of first person plural pronouns and gave longer, more complex speeches. President Cristina Fernández de Kirchner, on the other hand, being from a more conservative background with a less extensive education, employed the use of first person singular pronouns much more than Bachelet, as well as giving shorter, less complex speeches. On a broader spectrum, this could potentially show that politicians with a more conservative background and political affiliation will consistently use first person singular pronouns at a higher rate than politicians with a more liberal background and political affiliation. Likewise, more liberal politicians will have a higher rate of use of first person plural pronouns than their more conservative constituents. Also, it could show that those politicians with a higher education will give longer, more complex speeches than politicians with a lower education.

**Acknowledgments**

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**References**


**Sinopsis**

Este estudio o investigación lingüística tiene como objetivo observar algunas de las intromisiones que se presentan en el habla de personas bilingües o políglotas como consecuencia de la influencia que ejerce, o podría ejercer, el dominio adquirido de una segunda lengua y la manera en que eso atrofía a la primera lengua o el proceso que se conoce en inglés como *first language attrition*. El estudio se enfocará más específicamente en la manera en la cual la segunda lengua (L2) afecta la competencia y el dominio comunicativo de la primera lengua (L1) y cómo se manifiesta esta influencia, ya sea a través de cambio de registro, calcos sintácticos, inglán o cualquier otra deformación lingüística. También se incluirán un par de extractos escritos que demuestran la influencia de L2 en L1, pero no se observarán las características fonéticas que pudiesen presentarse. Con este estudio, no se pretende explicar a fondo las causas que desembocan en la influencia de L2 en L1 sino observar y enlistar cómo ésta se presenta en el habla de las personas bilingües o políglotas. En particular, se observarán dos casos distintos: se observará el habla de participantes quienes hablan inglés como L1 y español como L2 y el habla de participantes quienes hablan español como L1 e inglés como L2.

**Abstract**

*The objective of this research project is to identify some of the interference or attrition in the speech of bilingual or polyglot speakers that may occur as a consequence of the acquired command of a second language. This study will concentrate on the analysis of how the second language (L2) affects competence in the first language (L1). This interference may present itself as a form of code-switching, semantic calques, Spanglish, or any other form; nonetheless, the phonetic aspects from L2 influence on L1 won’t be observed. This study does not intend to explain in depth the reason for why this phenomenon occurs but rather will describe or enlist some of the forms in which it appears in L1 speech. Lastly, two different scenarios will be observed: the influence of L2 Spanish on the discourse L1 English and the influence L1 English on the discourse L2 Spanish.*

**Planteamiento**

Sin tener que hacer un estudio exhaustivo o profundo, aquellos que hablamos dos lenguas o más, sabemos que nuestra L1 tiene influencia directa en la manera en la que intentamos visualizar, estructurar y concebir ideas que pretendemos comunicar en nuestra L2. De la misma manera, sabemos que si no usamos nuestra L2 comenzamos a perder el dominio que se había adquirido en L2. Altenberg, por ejemplo, señala que la influencia de una segunda lengua puede modificar las reglas sintácticas en producción discursiva de un hablante bilingüe (192). En el campo de la lingüística se ha explorado abundantemente la forma en que L1 se manifiesta en la producción de L2. Sin embargo, no se ha hecho un trabajo igualmente extenso en el estudio de la influencia de L2 en L1 que determine el grado de variación o interferencia surgida por la influencia de L2 en L1 (Cook, 2003; Echeverría, C. y Madrid, D., 1999; Mayor, R., 1992). Cook indica que tal vez la única colección de estudios que explora la influencia de L2 en L1 hasta el año 2003 en encuentran el libro “Effects of the Second Language on the First” editado por él mismo. Köpke, en su esfuerzo por explorar los aspectos neurolingüísticos de la pérdida de la lengua, nos enumera una serie de estudios realizados en función de los elementos morfológicos, sintácticos, léxicos, semánticos y pragmáticos así como el efecto ocasionado por el contacto de lenguas como los casos de
inglés y ruso, alemán y francés, coreano y francés, inglés y brasileño, español y francés sólo por mencionar algunos (2003).

Es pertinente mencionar que la perdida de una lengua comienza cuando ésta se deja de utilizar o no existen las condiciones para el su uso a causa de un entorno adverso (Echeverría, C. y Madrid, D., 1999). Con esta idea en mente, resultaría interesante preguntarse bajo qué condiciones se deja de usar una lengua. La respuesta más viable sería el entorno en el cual se encuentra una lengua. En el estudio de la influencia de L2 sobre L1 se puede ver que en muchos casos, sobre todo en el caso de inmigrantes que poseen una lengua alterna a la lengua dominante del entorno, L2 se convierte en la lengua que adquiere más prestigio y atención y la cual restringe el uso de L1 en la interacción social, y en algunos casos los individuos mismos ven su lengua materna en estatus social más bajo y deciden adoptar la lengua dominante. (Andersen, 1982; Gardner, 1982).

Para poder ver con certeza si el entorno juega un papel importante en la influencia de L2 sobre L1, es importante virar hacia los antecedentes investigativos pertinentes. Siendo así fue que se encontró el estudio realizado por Graeme Porte de la universidad de Granada quien en un esfuerzo por entender la influencia de L2 en L1 realizó un estudio similar con la variante de que la lengua dominante era el español y los participantes eran tres profesores angloparlantes de inglés como lengua extranjera quienes habían pasado entre 15 a 20 años en España. En su estudio, Porte invitó a los profesores de inglés a participar en una serie de conversaciones de entre 20 a 30 minutos. Los participantes no sabían que su discurso estaba siendo evaluado para determinar si había influencia o interferencia de L2. Porte descubrió que sí había interferencia de L2 y tomó nota de algunos ejemplos en su investigación. Un par de ejemplos se muestran a continuación:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participante 1:</th>
<th>Participante 2:</th>
<th>Participante 3:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Most students wouldn’t dream of coming to tutorías</td>
<td>-Years ago, of course, you’d find most lecturers doing clases magistrales</td>
<td>-I do my three prácticas in the language lab sometimes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-I was really shocked when I first saw how molested (de molestar; correcto: bothered) some teachers got at my criticizing the system.</td>
<td>-I was speakando (gerundio de español –ando remplaza a su contraparte en inglés – ing) with Steve the other day.</td>
<td>-The difficult thing is acostumbrarse; correcto: get used to) to that kind of tradition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Nothing better than going down the coast to sunbathar, (el verbo en inglés to sunbathe se convirtió en un verbo –ar) eh?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Su resultados mostraron que los participantes cometían un promedio de dos errores por cada 100 palabras y uno de los participantes cometía un promedio de 6 errores por cada 100 palabras (Porte 2003; 101). Lo cual prueba que sí existe un nivel de influencia constante en su competencia lingüística de L1.

**Método**
Para lograr este estudio, se entrevistó a 25 personas de las cuales 10 hablaban inglés como L1 y español como L2 y 15 hablaban español como L1 e inglés como L2. 11 de las entrevistas se llevaron acabo en persona, 14 fueron hechas por teléfono y las conversaciones fueron grabadas con el uso de una grabadora digital Olympus la cual tiene la capacidad de convertir la grabación en un archivo de audio transferible al ordenador. Una vez terminadas las entrevistas, se colocaron todos los archivos de audio en el programa iTunes para el posterior análisis discursivo. Para encontrar participantes para el estudio, envíe un total de 75 correos electrónicos a varias universidades de California y del estado de California33, la universidad de Texas en Austin, la universidad de Illinois en Urbana-Champaign, y la universidad de Nueva York. Para hacer las entrevistas telefónicas, se uso un mini micrófono de la marca Olympus el cual se coloca en el oído, se conecta a la grabadora digital y captura la conversación desde el auricular del teléfono. Se les hizo a los participantes entre 7-10 preguntas que les permitían usar variedad gramatical, sintáctica y semántica. A quienes hablaban inglés como L1, se les hizo las preguntas en español y se les pidió que contestaran en inglés y a quienes hablaban español como L1 se les hizo las preguntas en inglés y se les pidió que respondieran en español. Tres ejemplos de las preguntas se describen a continuación.

1. Describe cómo es tu rutina por la mañana. ¿Qué haces? ¿Cómo comienzas tu día por la mañana?
   Describe a typical morning in your life. How do you start your morning? What do you do?
2. ¿Tienes algún recuerdo de tu infancia que recuerdes más?
   Do you have a particular memory from your childhood that you remember the most?
3. ¿Qué harías si tuvieras 100 millones de dólares? ¿En qué los gastarías?
   What would you do if you had 100 million dollars?

Posteriormente, tomé una muestra del discurso de los participantes para poder obtener un promedio de palabras por minutos y una forma de medir el nivel de interferencia de L2. Se transcribió el discurso de 5 participantes por un lapso de 30 segundos, se sumó el número de palabras obtenidas, se dividió entre 5 y se dobló el resultado el cual nos arrojó un promedio de 98 palabras por minuto.

**Resultados**

Después de haber evaluado la información obtenida de las conversaciones de los participantes, pude medir el nivel de interferencia que ejerció L2 sobre L1. En el primer caso, el de inglés como L1, se encontró un porcentaje muy pequeño de intromisión de L2 en L1. El porcentaje que se encontró fue de .03% lo cual quiere decir que, en un periodo de 68 minutos, un promedio de 6732 palabras, de conversación obtenida de los participantes, aparecieron solamente dos casos de interferencia de la segunda lengua lo cual era de esperarse debido a que el estudio fue realizado en Estados Unidos en donde inglés es la lengua dominante. Los dos ejemplos encontrados se muestran a continuación:

1. It would be more better if...

33 En el sistema universitario californiano existen dos tipos de instituciones de educación superior: la universidad de California (UC system) y la universidad del estado de California (CSU system)
2. I would advice to him that...

Como se puede ver en el ejemplo 1, uno de los entrevistados empleó la frase *more better* la cual no representa un uso apropiado de la gramática inglesa. Tal vez, puede ser una derivación de la frase en español mucho mejor. En el segundo ejemplo se muestra la intromisión de la preposición *to* la cual no pertenece a esta construcción gramatical. Podría tal vez decirse que es un calco de la preposición *a* que se antepone en español cuando se encuentra un objeto indirecto: a él → to him.

En el caso de los participantes cuya L1 era español, se pudieron observar resultados más claros y contundentes. Hubo un grado más alto de influencia de L2 y se pudieron observar diferentes categorías lingüísticas como inglañol (Spanglish), alternancia de código (code-switching), préstamos léxicos (borrowing) y calco semánticos (calques) sólo por mencionar algunos. Se pudo identificar un nivel de 72% de interferencia. Eso quiere decir que en un periodo de 81 minutos, 8.019 palabras, hubo 58 casos de interferencia. Eso demuestra también que por cada minuto y medio de conversación había una instancia de interferencia de L2.

El mayor número de casos de interferencia ocurrió dentro de la categoría de calcos léxico-semánticos donde los participantes tomaban en una idea de L2 y la calcaban a L1. Esto nos hace suponer que la manera de pensar en L2 se transfiere en la manera de pensar de L1 y el hablante pierde la habilidad de distinguir lo que pertenece o es correcto en su L1 tal y como lo describe Altenberg en su investigación. Aparecieron 19 casos y un par de ejemplos se muestran a continuación:

1. Estoy tarde (de l’m late).
2. Hacer la decisión (de make a decision).
3. Tuve un sándwich (de I had a sándwich).
4. Esta es mi amiga (de this is my friend).
5. A ese tiempo.. (de at that time)

En el ejemplo número 4 podemos también observar que el participante no sólo calculó la frase *this is my friend* sino que también perdió cierta competencia pragmática ya que ésta es mi amiga resultaría ofensivo para muchos hispanohablantes debido a que el adjetivo demostrativo “este/esta” generalmente se usa para referirse a un objeto y no a una persona.

Otra categoría que apareció dentro de las conversaciones fue el inglañol o Spanglish como se conoce comúnmente. Ésta se caracteriza por deformar una palabra de L2 para adaptarla o hacerla pasar por una palabra de L1. Hubo diez casos que se presentaron dentro de esta categoría y se muestran un par de ejemplos a continuación:

1. Una aplicación (de application; correcto: solicitud).
2. Una carpeta (de carpet; correcto: alfombra).
3. Una población (de population; correcto: población).
4. Los biles (de bills; correcto: las cuentas).
5. La librería (de library; correcto: biblioteca)

A pesar de que en los ejemplos número 2 y 3 la palabra carpeta existe y la cual se define por el Diccionario Practico del Estudiante por la Real Academia Española como el utensilio rectangular de cartón o plástico que, doblado por la mitad de su lado más largo, forma dos
Influencia de L2 en L1

Tapas que se unen mediante gomas o cintas y sirve para guardar papeles (116), y la palabra librería que no necesita definición, no fueron utilizadas en su definición estricta sino como un cognado falso, como una deformación derivada de la palabra inglesa. El contexto en el cual están dos palabras fueron empleadas daba a entender que el hablante quería comunicar lo que el cognado falso en inglés tiene por definición. Es decir, el hablante uso la palabra carpeta en vez de decir alfombra debido a que en inglés la palabra carpet significa alfombra y por tal razón se puede señalar como un caso de Spanglish.

Además de estos dos casos de incursión de L2 en L1, se encontraron 10 préstamos léxico-semánticos, 6 casos de alternancia de código y 13 ejemplos de otros tipos como pérdida del subjuntivo, pérdida en la competencia de género y número, pérdida de lógica o coherencia en la frase y el uso incorrecto de ser y estar. Algunos ejemplos se enumeran a continuación con su respectiva explicación.

1. Tengo un ticket para ...(préstamo léxico. Se inserta la palabra ticket en medio de la frase).
2. Voy a ir sobre unos datos de ...(pérdida de lógica en la frase).
3. I know, I mean si tienes una...(alternancia de código en donde el hablante cambia de idioma sin violar la estructura gramatical).
4. Hasta el último, películas románticas, so, tiene que ser muy buena para...(alternancia de código en donde le hablante utiliza so como una conjunción coordinante del tipo explicativo).
5. Es rodeada de árboles (uso incorrecto de ser influenciada por su contraparte en inglés it's surrounded by trees).
6. Fui nacida en Michoacán pero me vine cuando era 10 años de edad (traducción errónea y pérdida del uso de tener en lugar de to be como la expresión lo dicta en español).
7. No me gusta la calor (pérdida de la concordancia en el género de la palabra).
8. Creo que dijo que lo hicieramos cuando tenemos (pérdida en el uso del subjuntivo presente) tiempo.

En las gráficas siguientes se hace una comparación del nivel de influencia encontrado en inglés como L1 y español como L1 (figura 1), y las categorías que se encontraron de la influencia de inglés como L2 en español como L1 (figura 2).

**Figura 1**

**Figura 2**
También se pudo encontrar, durante el proceso de investigación, trabajos escritos elaborados por hispanoparlantes que muestran una influencia palpable de inglés como L2 sobre español como L1. Se pensaría que un trabajo escrito carecería de la influencia que ejerce L2 debido a que el proceso de elaboración de un trabajo escrito requiere de un vocabulario y organización de ideas más pensado y rebuscado. Los casos de inferencia encontrados en los trabajos escritos se muestran a continuación:

1. *Este papel reporta* (tal vez un calco semántico de *this paper reports*) sobre una investigación... *(Ochoa, M. y Olvera, J., 2007)*
2. Es uno de los géneros musicales que a crecido *extremamente* (Spanglish de *extremely*) en los Estados Unidos *(Ochoa, M. y Olvera, J., 2007)*.
3. En los estados unidos por la *populación* (Spanglish de *population*) que ha estado incrementado por hispanos bilingües *(Rodríguez, 2007)*.
4. El estudio del análisis esta enfocado en el fenómeno que *se da en los discurso por protagonistas* (construcción gramatical extraña en donde se pierde la concordancia de número los discurso y coherencia con por protagonistas) en la película *(Rodríguez, 2007)*.

**Discusión**

Me atrevo a señalar que mi estudio no pudo demostrar la totalidad de la influencia de L2 en L1 ya que me di cuenta que el escenario de la entrevista hizo que los participantes fueran más cuidadosos con su manera de hablar y eso, sin lugar a dudas, tuvo cierto grado de influencia en los resultados finales de este estudio. Una parte que me pareció pudo haber afectado los resultados obtenidos en esta investigación fue que los participantes sabían que el estudio tenía que ver con un ámbito lingüístico y evaluación discursiva lo cual los llevo a expresarse de manera menos natural y más pensada y rebuscada al momento de elaborarse la entrevista. El uso de la grabadora digital provocó que la mayoría de los participantes se pusieran un poco nerviosos y observé que, como consecuencia de eso, los participantes articulaban mejor su habla y reflexionaban más sobre lo que decían.

**Conclusión**

A pesar de que los resultados demuestran que existe influencia de L2 en L1 mayormente en el entorno de L2, sería prudente llevar a cabo más estudios que puedan la totalidad de la influencia de L2 en L1. Basado en el método usado para esta investigación, sería pertinente modificar la estrategia de recopilación discursiva de los participantes ya que las entrevistas realizadas con grabadora en mano afecto la naturalidad del habla de los participantes. Para un estudio futuro, recomendaría agrupar a los participantes que tengan L1 en común, ofrecerles actividades que los estimulen a enfrascarse en una conversación de carácter coloquial y grabarlos sin que ellos sepan el motivo real del estudio. Otra alternativa sería entrevistar al participante sin que éste sepa que esta siendo entrevistado; es decir, se podría conversar con el participante en un modo casual, tomar nota de lo que dice y observar si hay casos de interferencia de L2 en L1.

**Agradecimientos**

Les agradezco a todos los estudiantes de la universidad Sonoma y de las varias universidades que participaron en la realización de este estudio, especialmente a los...
Referencias


Apéndice

Lista completa de las interferencias identificadas en este estudio lingüístico.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Calques</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>estoy tarde</td>
<td>hacer la decision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hacer drogas</td>
<td>este papel reporta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las escuela elementaria</td>
<td>¿no piensan?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estaban envidiosos</td>
<td>más temprano en mi vida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me tomo un baño x 2</td>
<td>tomo desayuno X 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a ese tiempo</td>
<td>tuve un sándwich en la mañana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>las botas fueron 29 dólares por las dos</td>
<td>aquí está una foto de mi famia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ésta es mi amiga</td>
<td>este papel reporta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agarramos un plato de entrada</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Spanglish</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>una aplicación</td>
<td>carpetas (for carpets)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>una población (3) pequeña</td>
<td>mi familia extendida</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yo pagaríía todos los biles (de bills) primero</td>
<td>cosas que son materialísticas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no me alcanza con el dinero de los taxes</td>
<td>la libreria (for library)</td>
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<tr>
<th><strong>Borrowing</strong></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>los obstaculos que he tenido que overcome para poder..</td>
<td>a la high school y después..</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a la high school y después..</td>
<td>al Junior High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cuando tengo un break tomo desayuno.</td>
<td>hice mi research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tengo un ticket para..</td>
<td>nomás iría de window shopping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nomás iría de window shopping</td>
<td>me gusta cycling</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Code-switching
- hasta el último películas románticas, so, tiene que ser muy buena para.
- I know, I mean, si tienes una…
- so x 5 como conjunción coordinante del tipo explicativo.

### Other
- advice to him
- no tengo una memoria específica
- tengo muchas memorias
- una memoria (2)
- cuando era 10 años de edad
- fui nacida
- no me gusta la calor
- a veces van muchas artistas famosas (en general, el contexto era inclusivo de ambos sexos)
- voy a hacer la tarea cuando llego a la casa
- es rodeada de árboles
- voy a ir sobre unos datos…
- creo que dijo que lo hiciéramos cuando tenemos tiempo