

2013

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“MI MAMÁ ES CUATRO PIES”: A STUDY OF THE USE OF CALQUES IN HONDURANS AND
SALVADORANS IN SOUTHERN LOUISIANA

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
Requirements for the degree of
Masters of Arts

in

The Department of Foreign Languages and Literature

by
Alexandria Bivin
B.S., Morehead State University, 2011
May 2013

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank my parents for their undivided love and support over the years, without them I wouldn't be where I am today. I'd also like to thank Dr. Dorian Dorado for encouraging and believing in me during my time at Louisiana State University.

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ABSTRACT

In this study, I explored calques among Hondurans and Salvadorans in Southern Louisiana. The study has a total of twenty-four Spanish-English bilinguals separated into three groups based upon their age of arrival to the United States. Similar to but modified from that of Silva-Corvalán (1996), group I, is comprised of participants who arrived to the United States after the age nineteen. The participants in group II immigrated to the United States between the ages of eleven and eighteen, while the participants in group III were born in the United States or immigrated to the United States before the age of ten.

The following research questions motivated this study: 1. Is there a difference in the frequency of calque use among the three arrival groups? 2. Is there a difference in calquing frequency between sequential and simultaneous bilinguals? 3. Does dominant language significantly influence calque frequency? (i.e., English dominant, Spanish dominant or dominant in both) 4. How do the social factors contribute to the frequency of calque use? 5. How do the linguistic variables of the collocation of calque, the word prior to calque and the word after the calque contribute to the use of calques? In this study each participant completed two tasks; t an open-ended sociolinguistic interview and a question-answer activity.

An analysis using Goldvarb X was performed and the social factors that condition the use of calques are age, formal instruction in English, socioeconomic status, and dominant language and the linguistic factors of word class of the word prior to the calque, collocation, and word class of the calque affect calque frequency. It was also discovered that the participants who moved to the U.S between the ages of eleven and eighteen produced the most calques, while those who moved to the U.S after the age of nineteen produced the least.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

“*Aquí está la aplicación.*” or “*Aquí está la solicitud.*” Which of these two sentences is considered correct? What if both of them are? It is important to understand that neither of these is incorrect; while one utilizes a calque the other simply maintains a standard Spanish form. Although many people may consider calques to be the deterioration or debasement of a language, they are more the evolution, expansion, and progress of language. One would not consider words such as “café, maître d’, rodeo, or llama” as means of corrupting or causing the collapse of English, yet calques are often viewed as just that. Likewise, English no longer utilizes many Old English elements such as the use of “-eth,” yet this is not considered the destruction of the English language, but is more so viewed as the evolution of how English is spoken today.

This study focuses on the use of calques in Spanish-English bilinguals however, a basic knowledge of calque as it is explored in this study must be defined. It is important to understand such questions as: what are calques, who uses calques, why are calques used and what influences the use of calques. According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary, the origin of the word ‘calque’ is French and comes from the word ‘calquer’ meaning to trace or copy, literally. It can be assumed that calquing in terms of language does not include the tracing of anything, though it does represent the copying or literal reproduction of a word or phrase into a second language. A more linguistically oriented definition of a calque comes from Hualde, Olarrea, Escobar & Travis (2011), who state that a calque is a type of semantic loan which is a literally translated expression or phrase from one language to another. An example of this would be *escuela alta*, where *alta* has been literally translated from the word “high” in “high school” instead of the standard Spanish phrase *escuela secundaria* or *escuela superior*. Due to the similarity of various types of borrowing, especially calques and loans, there is much confusion that accompanies these phenomena. The difference between these is that while loan words involve the transference of both meanings and forms, calques transfer the meanings without the forms (Otheguy, García, & Fernández, 1989). More definitions, examples, and types of calques will be discussed later, but through the two definitions provided one can see that calques require the use of two languages and involve a “literal translation” of one word to another.

While there are numerous types of calques, this study primarily focuses on the uses of single-word, lexico-syntactic and phrasal calques, as defined by Silva-Corvalán (1994) and Otheguy and García (1989). Single-word, or one-word calques, are similar to other types of borrowing but involves the transference of the meaning of a word into a pre-existing lexical item. An example of this would be the word *parientes* used as a calque to mean “parents” instead of the standard meaning “relatives.” A second example of this could include *grados*, which in standard Spanish means “degrees,” but when calqued *grados* refers to “grades” instead of *notas* or *calificaciones*. A lexico-syntactic calque incorporates an alteration of the semantic or grammatical features of the replica language, such as the phrase *mi padre es seis pies (de altura)* in order to say, “my father is six feet tall.” This calqued form replaces the standard phrase in Spanish, *mi padre mide 6 pies de altura*. A phrasal, or multiple-word calque, is similar to single-word calques in the sense that they too involve the transferring of meaning of a word into a different lexical item. This could include the example provided above, *escuela alta*, or “high school,” where *alta* would typically be *secundaria* or *superior* in standard Spanish.

This study focuses on the use of calques in bilingual Hondurans and Salvadorans who have arrived to the United States at various points in their lives and now live in Southern Louisiana. The three groups of arrival ages are modifications of Silva-Corvalán’s (1994) study as well as the definition of a calque: the transfer of meaning into an already existing lexical item. More so, this study analyzes and focuses on three types of calques also established by Silva-Corvalán (1994), and these are single-word, lexico-syntactic, and phrasal calques. The goal of this study is to see how both linguistic constraints, as well as social factors, affect the frequency of calques in the participants. The linguistic variables include: the type of speech that the calque is, the type of speech that comes before and after the calque. The social factors to be studied are age, nationality, arrival age to the United States, education level, formal education received in English and Spanish, economic status, sequential or simultaneous bilingualism, and dominant language of the participants. All of this information was gathered through the use of a demographic questionnaire, along with an open-ended sociolinguistic interview, and a question and answer task to elicit the use of calques. Before delving into this study it’s important to first explore calques as well as other similar types of borrowings in order to fully understand exactly what a calque is and how it differs from borrowings such as loan words and code-switching.

While calquing is a unique form of borrowing, there is much confusion between calque words, code-switching and loan words due to the similarities that make up each phenomenon. For the purpose of this study and to eliminate any confusion, the definition of a calque is that of Silva-Corvalán's (1994:171): a calque as the transfer of meaning into an already existing lexical item. Based on the aforementioned explanations of calques and loan words it's easy to see that there is much similarity between the two. While calques are the primary focus of this study, code-switching, loan words and forms of borrowing will all be discussed briefly in order to clarify the differences and other misperceptions that occur between the various processes and phenomenon.

In terms of language mixing there are several processes that develop due to prolonged contact between two languages; borrowing, calques and code-switching. As explained by Bhatia and Ritchie (2009:595), "borrowed or loan words...primarily serve the linguistic function of filling a gap in the lexicon of the borrower language, or they are prompted by nonlinguistic factors such as modernization or both." Bullock and Toribio (2010) support this explanation by saying that borrowing has oftentimes been used to describe a wide variety of phenomenon but lexical borrowing specifically incorporates both the "morphological and phonological integration of a single lexeme." More so, Hock and Joseph (2009) mention that borrowed words are not "returned" to the original language and there is also no intention of ever returning these words. Some examples of borrowing include words such as "armadillo," "macho," and "rodeo," as they are words that are borrowed from Spanish and have become part of the English language in order to fill a linguistic gap. It can also be noted that, because of borrowing, these words have become not only accepted in the English language, but also a part of the English language and will never leave English in order to return to the original language, Spanish. Calques are the second process that falls under the category of borrowing, which do require a higher level of proficiency in the second language and "consist of transfer of translated idiomatic expressions as well as tilting word order patterns...to make patterns in both languages more convergent," or when a foreign pattern or meaning is brought into a second language while retaining the morphemes of the first language, also known as lexico-syntactic calques (Bullock & Toribio, 2010; Lipski, 2008; Silva-Corvalán, 1994). More so, Lipski (2008) goes on to say that calques rarely break the grammatical rules of either language which is why they require a

higher level of proficiency in the two languages. Some example of calques include *atender a clase* while the standard Spanish form is *asistir a clase*, or *máquina lavadora* instead of *lavarropas*.

Otheguy et al. (1989:44) states that calques include the transferring of meanings without forms and they “are seen as word forms of the replica language into which meanings from the model language have migrated.” An example would include *A mí me gustan las cartas de béisbol para coleccionarlas*, where *cartas* and *coleccionar* are two calqued words that take the similarity of the English words “cards” and “collect” but replace the standard Spanish forms of *tarjetas* and *coleccionar*. Three different types of calques are also distinguished here, which are: similar-sense versus different-sense calques, merged-form versus independent-form calques, and duplicating-message calques versus innovating-message calques. The first type of calque, similar-sense calques, refers to meanings that are transferred into similar pre-existing words in an alternate language, but where the two words contain separate meanings. For example, *coleccionar* has a similar meaning to its standard version, *colectar*. Since *coleccionar* is being used to describe the action of gathering objects, it is very similar to the Spanish word *colectar*, meaning ‘to gather funds.’ Although there is variation between the calqued word, the standard word, and the similar word in the original language, a similar-sense calque is being utilized. On the other hand, different-sense calque words include two words that are not similar in appearance, such as *jugar* in reference to playing an instrument, instead of *tocar*. A second example of this could include the use of *saber*, instead of *conocer*, when referring to knowing or being acquainted with a person. The second type, merged-form calques, is when a word from one language becomes the host to a migrating meaning that has a similar phonological structure, such as *cartas*, which was mentioned above to mean “cards,” such as cardboard or plastic baseball or basketball cards, in English. While the lexical items *cartas* and “cards” are similar, the standard Spanish form of *cartas* actually has the very different meaning of “letters” as a form of correspondence. Contrary to this are the independent-form calques, which have very different host and originating words, such as the example of *jugar*, which does not convey any resemblance to the English word “play.” The final type of calque discussed is duplicating-message versus innovating-message calque words. Duplicating calque words are those that propose new message types that seem unnecessary due to similarities between the prevailing standard forms that they replace. *Colectar cartas* is the example that will be used again

due to the similarity in meaning to the Spanish *coleccionar tarjetas*, where *colectar* and *coleccionar* maintain similar, though not identical, meanings. A different type of calque is innovating calques, which introduce a word that is motivated by a need to communicate ideas that are not as easily communicated in the original language, such as a *cartón de leche*, or a “carton of milk” in English (Otheguy et al., 1989:44-46).

Due to the various definitions and types of calques that have been developed over the years, it's important to first establish once more what all is considered a calque before analyzing previous studies or continuing with the present study. Myers-Scotton (2006:211-218) explains that calques differ from other types of borrowings in two distinct ways: calques often contain more than one singular word and it is not the actual word that is being borrowed from the “donor language” but the translation or meaning of the word. Since calques are considered to be a relatively rare phenomenon, some authors prefer to expand the definition of it to include a partial translation, thus allowing the study to be combined and compared with those of code-switching and other forms of borrowing (Backus & Dorleijn, 2009).

Silva-Corvalán (1994, 2001) continues her study by classifying calques into four distinct categories. The first type of calque is single-word calques, similar to loan words but with one important difference: single-word calques include the transference of meanings into an already existing lexical item, as mentioned above. Examples of this type of calque are: *carpeta*, which has changed from the standard Spanish form, *alfombra*, to mean “carpet;” as well as *moverse*, which has evolved from *mudarse* to mean, “to move to another house.” The second type of calque mentioned by Silva-Corvalán (1994) is multiple-word calques that do not alter semantic and/or grammatical features, which include phrases such as: *tarjeta de plástico* for “credit card” which, in standard Spanish, is *tarjeta de crédito*; and *patio de juegos* for the English word “playground” instead of *patio* or *patio de escuela*, which is the standard Spanish version of the phrase. The third type of calque mentioned is calques of bound collocations, idioms and proverbs, which Silva-Corvalán defines: “A bound collocation, idiom, or proverb from the source language [that] is reproduced exactly with lexical units from the replica language.” Silva-Corvalán (1994) continues by saying that this type may alter some semantic or collocational features of the language that the calque is being reproduced into. An example of this calque includes phrases such as; *cambiar de mente* instead of the standard form *cambiar de ideas/opiniones*, meaning “to change one's

mind” (Dorado, 2006:8); and *estoy quebrada* for “I’m broke” in place of the standard form *estoy en bancarrota*. The final type of calque is lexico-syntactic calques, which involve an alteration of the semantic or grammatical features of the replica language (Silva-Corvalán, 1994:171-174). An example of this also comes from Dorado (2006:10), who provides the phrase *mi padre es seis pies (de altura)* to say, “my father is six feet tall.” This calqued form takes the place of the standard phrase in Spanish, *mi padre mide 6 pies de altura*. She goes on to explain that this is considered a lexico-syntactic calque because *medir*, the standard form of the word, is thus replaced by *ser*. This occurs because *ser*, or particularly the conjugated form *es*, is the direct translation for the English *is*. Due to this, *mi padre es seis pies (de altura)* becomes a calque when *es*, the direct translation and calque, is used instead of *mide*, the standard Spanish form. While it can be seen that calques utilize aspects from two languages, a second linguistic phenomenon that also incorporates features from two separate languages is that of code-switching.

Another process that develops due to prolonged contact between two languages is code-switching, which is done primarily by those who are considered to be proficient bilingual speakers. Code-switching, done within a singular conversation, and oftentimes a single sentence, is when a speaker spontaneously switches between two languages when there is no evident change of focus or speaker (Lipski, 2008). While many people assume that code-switching is randomly changing between two languages this is not the case, as the grammatical structures of both languages must be upheld in order to make the switch (Montes-Alcalá, 2000).

Code-switching can either be comprised of the use of single words or larger fragments of conversation and can also incorporate either intra-sentential or inter-sentential code-switching. In intra-sentential switching the change will occur within a sentence or clause, as in (a) while in inter-sentential the switch will occur outside of the clause or sentence, as seen in (b) (Bullock & Toribio, 2010):

- (a) *Intra-sentential*: Sometimes I’ll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en español...and I finish in Spanish (Poplack, 1980).
- (b) *Inter-sentential*: She wanted to experiment. Quería ver qué había allá afuera del palacio (Montes-Alcalá, 2000).

Borrowing, calques and code-switching are three linguistic processes that are all due to the extended contact between two languages, but the final one to discuss is loan words, which also falls under the category of borrowing due to the similarities between the two (Dorado, 2006; Pfaff, 1979). While it can be seen, as above, that both calques and code-switching utilize aspects from separate languages, loan words is the final linguistic process to be discussed which also incorporates the features of two distinct languages.

Although some authors such as Hualde, Olarrea, Escobar & Travis (2011) simply define a loan as a word taken from another language, this is a very broad definition that could also include many other types of borrowing such as code-switching and semantic extensions, as each of these phenomena also incorporate a switch of some word or phrase into that of another language (Hualde et al., 2011). This definition is taken further and explained by Silva-Corvalán (1994) as a transferring of form with meaning and by Montrul (2013) as the introduction of words from one language into the discourse of another. Some examples could include words such as *mopear*, coming from “to mop,” as well as *puchar* for “to push,” and *sinque*, meaning “sink.” Otheguy and García (1993) explain that one of the reasons that it is so difficult to distinguish between loan words and calques is due to how the word has been adapted into the borrowed language. An instance of this occurs with the word “application” in English that can either be viewed as a loanword, which would be phonologically adapted into the Spanish word *aplicación*, an evolution from the standard form *solicitud* and taking the meaning of “application” in English, causing the word to be a calque. More so, while a calque is a literal translation, loan words occur when the aforementioned calque is adopted into the society and becomes more politically correct (Myers-Scotton, 2006). Now that both the differences and the similarities of borrowings, calques, code-switching and loan words have been discussed, the two types of bilingualism explored in this study will also be examined.

One factor that is explored in this study is how the type of bilingualism influences the use of calques, thus referring to simultaneous and sequential bilingualism. Simultaneous bilingualism indicates that the two languages, in the case of this study English and Spanish, were learned at the same time while sequential bilingualism refers to the learning of one language before another (Romaine, 1999). There are several researchers, such as De Houwer (1990), who suggest that there are strict timelines that indicate if a learner is a

simultaneous or sequential bilingual. She states that in order to be a simultaneous bilingual the learner is exposed to the second language no longer than a week after contact with the first language. Other researchers, such as McLaughlin (1978) state that anyone exposed to a second language by the age of three is considered a simultaneous bilingual while Padilla and Lindholm (1984) maintain that a person should only be considered a simultaneous bilingual if they have had access to both languages since birth. It is this definition by Padillia and Lindholm (1984) that is utilized in the present study when establishing if the participants are simultaneous or sequential bilinguals. The primary reasons for these exact views, though differing, are due to two arguments: first, what a child learns in a first language could influence what is learned in the second language and also so that ample comparisons can be made with monolingual children as well (Romaine, 1999). For this study each participant self-identified if they learned Spanish and English at the same time or different times, thus identifying themselves as simultaneous or sequential bilinguals. Due to the complexity of the terms, each participant answered on the demographic questionnaire if they had learned Spanish and English at the same or different times, the age that they began learning their second language, and if they learned to speak Spanish or English first. From this information it was then deduced whether each participant was a simultaneous or sequential bilingual. While the two types of bilingualism have been discussed, as well as different types of borrowings, the remainder of this study focuses on past studies, methodology, results, and a conclusion.

This study is divided into several different sections, beginning with the literature review, presented in Chapter two, which explores the previous studies that have focused on the use of calques as well as Spanish in the United States. The second section is the methodology of this study, which discusses not only how participants were found but also the tasks that each participant completed, and the demographic make-up of each participant. The next section is the results section, or what was found in this study, including both the marginal and the binomial results, and answers the research questions that motivated this study. The final section of this study is the conclusion, where the important aspects and results of this study are discussed.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The United States is a country that does not have an official language but is one that utilizes many different languages. While English is thought to be the primary language used, Spanish has also been spoken in the United States since the 16th century and is now the second most spoken language in the United States (Ramírez, 1992; Silva-Corvalán, 2004). Nowadays the United States is the country with the second highest Hispanic population, which has increased since 2000 when the Hispanic population in the United States occupied the fourth place in the world (Escobar, 2010; Escobar & Potowski, 2012). As it can be seen, the Hispanic population in the United States has increased over time and will continue to do so. While the Census of 1980 showed that there were 14.6 million people of Hispanic origin in the United States, or 6.4% of the total population, this increased to 45.5 million, or 15.1%, in 2009 (Escobar, 2010; Ramirez, 1992). By 2010 there were 308.7 million people living in the United States with a total of 50,477,594 million of these being of Hispanic or Latino origin, making this a total of 16% of the U.S population (Ennis, Rios-Vargas & Albert, 2011; Escobar & Potowski, 2012).

Within the United States the majority of the Hispanic population lives in urban areas with certain cities and regions of the United States being more prevalent than others (Ramirez, 1989). These regions are often prone to particular nationalities, for instance, the majority of Cubans can be found in Miami, Florida while a lot of Puerto Ricans can be found in New York, and a large population of Mexicans are located in Texas. More so, approximately 15,376,215, or 40%, of Hispanics live in the southern or western regions of the United States while other common regions include Chicago, Florida, New York, and Texas (Ramirez, 1989; Escobar & Potowski, 2012; “Census.gov,” 2011; Enis, S., Ríos-Varga, M., & Albert, N., 2011). Escobar & Potowski, 2012 and Silva-Corvalán (2004) specify that in terms of the southwest, the majority of the Hispanic population lives in New Mexico, California, Texas, Arizona, or Colorado. Due to the southwest being so close in distance to Mexico, the highest nationality of Hispanics represented in the United States is Mexicans, followed by Puerto Ricans and Cubans. Interesting to note here is that Salvadorans are the fourth most represented nationality and Hondurans follow a little later, being the eight highest represented nationality (Escobar, 2010; Escobar & Potowski, 2012). Silva-Corvalán explains that while there is an obvious increase in the Spanish speakers of the

United States, this is not due to people transmitting the Spanish language to children or family members. Instead, she explains that this increase can be attributed to the immigration of Hispanics to the United States (Silva-Corvalán, 2004). While Louisiana does not have one of the highest Hispanic populations in the United States, it does maintain a very distinct form of Spanish.

According to the 2010 Census there are approximately 4,533,372 people living in the state of Louisiana with 192,560 of these people, or 4.2% of the population, being Hispanics. In agreement with the most common Hispanic nationalities discussed previously, Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, and Cubans are the three highest represented nationalities in Louisiana ("Census.gov," 2011). While Hondurans are not one of the top three most common Hispanic nationalities in Louisiana, Lipski (2008) and Escobar and Potowski (2012) say that Honduran varieties of Spanish can be found in New Orleans. More so, the US Census from 2005-2007 shows that Baton Rouge and New Orleans have similar percentages in regards to Hispanic population, with East Baton Rouge Parish maintaining a 2.6% Hispanic population while New Orleans' sustaining a 4% Hispanic population (Campos Molina, 2009). In the following years the number of Hispanics in Louisiana increased due to the after-effects of hurricanes Katrina and Gustav. During this time many more job opportunities in construction related fields became available, causing many Hispanics to move to Louisiana (Fussell, 2008; Campos Molina, 2009).

Also near New Orleans is a second variety of Spanish that is very interesting as it is spoken solely in the state of Louisiana. This Spanish variety is called *Isleño* and is utilized in the Saint Bernard Parish by descendants of Spanish immigrants that moved from the Canary Islands (Escobar, 2010; Ramírez, 1992). Felice Anne Coles (1993:124) states that the original *Isleño* communities "...were characterized by a close-knit social network structure." The original *Isleños* were lower-class recruits from the Canary Islands sent to Louisiana to populate the newly-acquired territory with Spanish speakers, and to act as a buffer between the French colonists and American military expansion. Later on English was introduced into the *Isleño* communities through public education, industry, and the military and, as a results of this contact, few *Isleños* were proficient in Spanish after 1930. The gradual shift towards English occurred during the twentieth century and, while the community tried to remain isolated, younger members of the community are now using English daily. Due to this, the *Isleño dialect* is unfortunately now a dying language. Although there are ongoing methods that strive to revitalize the

Isleño dialect, it is only spoken by a few hundred people (Coles, 1993). While Louisiana is not one of the highest populated states in terms of Hispanics, it's interesting to see that there is a dialect that is distinct to this area.

As mentioned previously, when *Isleño* came into contact with English, a gradual change occurred that led the *Isleño* dialect to become a dying language (Coles, 1993). While language contact has occurred between individuals and groups of people since the Tower of Babel, when God gave all of the people working on the tower a different language, it's a phenomenon that has and will continue into the future. According to Lehisté, (1988:60), language contact occurs when there is a larger group of people who arrive at a place that was "...a formerly linguistically homogenous territory." The author, as well as Lehisté (1988) and Lipski (1989), continue by saying that there are several different outcomes of language contact:

Option 1: The speaker retains his or her linguistic and cultural identity as relates to his or her nationality.

Option 2: The speaker partially or totally merges with the predominant Hispanic communities.

Option 3: The speaker completely rejects his or her Hispanic identity and instead chooses the cultural, linguistic, and social patterns of Anglo-Americans.

In the case of contact between English and Spanish, one can see that out of the three possible outcomes, Spanish is assimilating and being displaced by English. This process of linguistic assimilation occurs throughout the course of three generations. The first generation maintains their Spanish and acquires some, but not much, English. The second generation then utilizes both Spanish and English proficiently and can easily switch between the two languages. The final group, or generation three, is at the other end of the spectrum and is composed of speakers who are English monolinguals but can use their Spanish in limited situations (Ramírez, 1992). When this assimilation happens one could hypothesize that the Spanish language will disappear all together but this is not the case. While Spanish can die at the familiar and individual levels, the language cannot die at a societal or regional level because Spanish is continually being revitalized by the arrival of new

monolingual Hispanic immigrants (Ramirez, 1992). Due to the fact that neither Spanish nor English are disappearing, it's important to understand how language contact affects the Spanish language.

According to Ramírez (1992), the contact between Spanish and English can occur in all levels of language: phonological, morphological, syntactic, lexical, and semantic. Upon analyzing each of these fields, it is then through the semantic category in which calques as well as other types of borrowings occur (Ramírez, 1992). Through this information one can see that calques are due to contact between two languages and are a natural progression in terms of language contact. However, it's vital to examine the background of the speakers when analyzing the effects of language contact, as languages are not abstract nor separate, but attached to people. Weinreich (1953), based his work "...on the fact that speakers or language communities, rather than languages on an abstract level, are in contact with each other and that any analysis of multilingual behavior is useless without consideration of the linguistic and cultural roots of the given situation" (as cited in Hans Nelde, 2002: 325). In other words, it's important to study both the language and the background of the speakers in order to understand the big picture. Mentioned previously, calques are a phenomenon that is attributed to language contact. In order to best understand how both of these characteristics influence language contact, the following studies show what has been found on the use of calques and what factors influence calques.

The first study to be discussed is that of Silva-Corvalán (1994), who studied the use of calques in fifty Mexican-American bilinguals in Los Angeles, California through the use of recorded conversations, fill-in-the-gap questionnaires and questionnaires focused on participants' attitudes towards both English and Spanish. The recorded conversations focused on multiple-word modeling and calques of bound collocation and lexico-syntactic calques, where the term "modeling" is used to refer to both calques of bound collocations as well as lexico-syntactic calques. She divided the fifty participants into three different groups, depending on their age of arrival to the United States. The first group consisted of participants who were born in Mexico and immigrated to the United States after the age of eleven. This was chosen as the cut-off age because it is considered to be the "critical age" in which one's native language structures are firmly established and also because this age permitted the participants to have resided in the United States for a minimum of six years. She explains that this length of residence allowed time for the development of both English and Spanish, making the participant

bilingual. The second group includes participants who were either born in the United States or immigrated before the age of six. Finally, the third group consists of participants who were born in the United States and also have at least one parent who could be part of the second group.

| Group I | Group II | Group III |
|--|--|---|
| Born in Mexico but immigrated to the U.S. after the age of eleven. | Born in the U.S. or moved to the U.S. before the age of six. | Born in the U.S. and also has a parent who moved to the U.S. before age six or was born in U.S. |

Figure 1: Groups of arrival age

Silva-Corvalán (1994:184-186) discovered that group III produced the majority of the calques in the recorded conversations, in which all participants used modeling in their speech and had an average of 0.6 to 2.1 cases per ten minutes of recorded conversation. Group II only had one participant that did not produce any calques, and one speaker averaged more than 1.4 occurrences for every ten minutes, but the average for this group was 0.0 to 2.9 calques during ten minutes of conversation. Finally, group I produced the least amount of calques causing the frequency of calque use to be almost non-existent. The researcher states that a reason for the low usage of calques in group I could be contributed to a low degree of proficiency in one of the two languages while the participants in group III are more proficient and can use more creativity in their speech and writing, as do advanced monolingual varieties. While Silva-Corvalán (1994) focuses on the four categories of calques along the three age of arrival groups, other authors such as Otheguy et al. (1989) choose to define them based on different descriptions and characteristics.

Another important study that focuses on the use of calques is that of Dorado (2006) who also utilizes similar age of arrival categories as those developed by Silva-Corvalán (1994). In this study single-word and phrasal calques are explored in twenty Cuban, Puerto Rican, and Mexican Spanish-English bilinguals who resided in Gainseville, Florida. As in similar studies such as that of Silva-Corvalán (1994), Otheguy, García & Fernández (1989), and Otheguy & García (1993), Dorado (2006) investigates the social factors that affect the use of calques since they are socially motivated grammatical aspects, and linguistic factors do not have any correlation with the frequency of calques (Pfaff, 1979; Otheguy & García, 1993). The extralinguistic factors studied by Dorado (2006) include education, economic status, gender, bilingual proficiency, as well as

nationality. In order to study the use of calques the researcher had each participant complete four separate tasks. The first task was a demographic questionnaire that included questions about the participants' backgrounds such as their gender, age, place of birth, educational background, and several other topics. The second task was a written translation exercise specifically designed to elicit the use of calques where the participant had to rewrite English sentences such as "I get excellent grades" into Spanish. The two expected answers for each translation would then either be the standard Spanish version *Yo tengo buenas notas* or the calqued answer *Yo tengo buenos grados*. The oral question and answer exercise was done orally. For example, the researcher would ask a question in English such as "Do you love your car?" where the participant would respond in Spanish with either the standard form, "*Sí, me encanta mi carro*" or the calqued reply, "*Sí, amo mi carro.*" The final method of gathering data included an open interview with each participant, where they would answer questions and discuss topics such as their high school experiences.

This study also uses the three groups of arrival age to the United States, but was adapted to include the Puerto Rican and Cuban participants. In the results, Dorado (2006) does not include the fourth activity, the open ended interview, because no calques were used in any of the participants' conversations. Due to this, the only data discussed is that which comes from the written and oral exercises. In the writing exercise performed by group I, calques were produced in 32% of the translation activity, while this group produced calques in 21% of the question and answer activity. Group II had a higher percentage of calques in both written and oral discourse where calques were present in 54% of the written activity and 28% of the oral exercise. Finally, group III generated calques in 38% of the translation exercise and 28% in the question and answer activity. While Dorado (2006) found that group II produced the most calques, these results differed from those of Silva-Corvalán (1994) who found that group III maintained the highest frequency of calque use. In regards to what social factors contributed to the use of calques, Dorado (2006) discovered that out of all of the social variables explored, only one was shown to correlate with the frequency of calques: gender.

Otheguy and García (1993) do not specifically focus on the use of calques, but rather utilize "contact neologism" as a term that encompasses loan words, one-word switches, and calques. These two authors focuses on twenty-five participants from Puerto Rico (eleven participants), the Dominican Republic (seven

participants), South America (four participants), Central America (two participants), and Spain (one participant). The results of this study showed that during the first interview, focused on experiences in Latin America, the participants only utilized 121 contact neologisms; while in the second interview, focused on the experiences in the United States, the amount of contact neologisms dramatically increased with 502 different productions. No social factors significantly predicted the frequency of calques. The only thing that truly affected the use of calques in this study were the interview topics discussed.

Another study done by Otheguy and García (1989) explored the use of calques and loans in the speech of bilingual and monolingual Cuban-Americans of Dade County, Florida. In order to gather data, Otheguy and García utilized a questionnaire, which was given to one hundred participants, along with a face-to-face interview. While the investigators expected that the bilinguals would be more aware of as well as use more of the linguistic innovations (calques and loans), it was discovered that the monolingual speakers that used them the most. In other words, the monolingual participants employed more calques and loan words than the bilingual participants, though the bilingual Cuban-American participants were more aware of these innovations. The investigators also discovered that although loan words were most commonly used, the participants viewed calques to be the more acceptable of the two innovations (Otheguy & García, 1989). Through this study it can be seen that calquing, as well as other forms of borrowing, is a linguistic phenomenon that is utilized by monolinguals and bilinguals alike.

Through the various studies mentioned, one can see that language mixing is caused by various social motivations and that these social factors cannot be ignored, as these social factors are what lead to the use of borrowings such as calques and loan words. While several features of Spanish have been mentioned, e.g. standard Spanish and the use of calques and how similar or different are these in the grand scheme of the entire language, Pfaff (1979) provides a continuum that shows the various levels of Spanish, including: standard Spanish; Anglicized Spanish, which employs the use of calques, loans and code-switching; Pachuco; Standard English; as well as several other categories or variations of the language. The following continuum (Figure 2), is a modified version of that of Pfaff (1979).

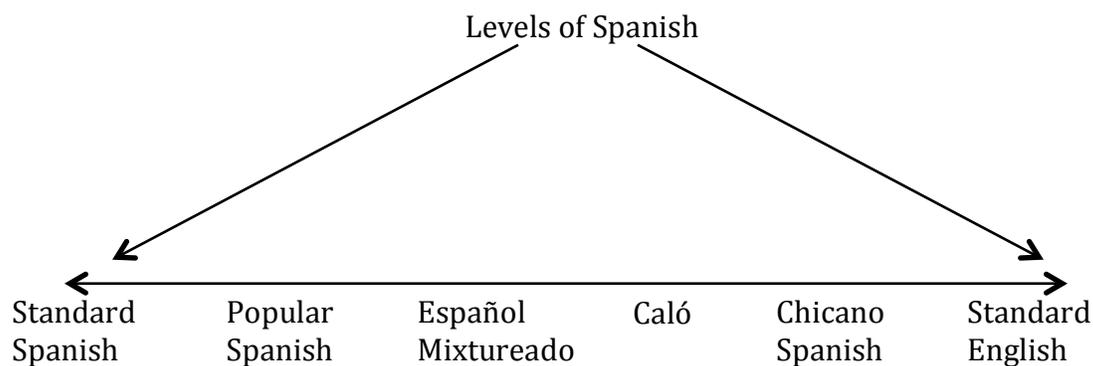


Figure 2: Levels of Spanish

To the far left of this continuum we see standard Spanish, while Standard English is located on the opposite end. Within this chart there are also four other categories, each with their own specific characteristics. By following the continuum left to right one can see that popular Spanish is next to standard Spanish. Popular Spanish is characterized by some phonological changes and is known as the non-standard local varieties of Spanish. Popular Spanish oftentimes receives stigmatized nicknames such as “Tex-Mex.” The next category is mixed Spanish, or Español mixtureado; this is where the Anglicized dialects reside, implementing code-switching, loan words and calques. This is the category that often causes confusion as all three of these phenomena are found in this Anglicized dialect. Through this figure it can be seen that calques are almost in the middle of this continuum, meaning that they cannot be recognized as neither standard Spanish nor standard English. More so, Pfaff (1979) discovered that Español mixtureado and code-switching are primarily used by younger speakers who are competent in both English and Spanish, as well as kids who have not received significant exposure to the languages and cannot recognize the distinct rules differentiating the two. Older speakers generally look down on the use of Anglicisms and do not participate in Español mixtureado or code-switching because they feel it does not keep up “good Spanish,” referring to the standard Spanish of Mexico, thus maintaining a prescriptive grammatical approach. Sawyer (1970) continues by saying that Mexican-Americans go so far as to avoid using Spanish words such as patio and bronco in English speech (Pfaff, 1979: 293.) Next on the continuum is Caló, also known as Pachuco, which also utilizes Anglicisms but is primarily used by adolescents. Finally, Chicano English is the closest to the Standard English form as the two categories have a tendency to blend together. It is important to note that while standard Spanish is considered “the

standard,” none of these varieties are incorrect; they are simply a variation of traditional Spanish. While studies such as that of Silva-Corvalán (1994), Otheguy and García (1988) and Dorado (2006) focus on the Spanish of three most populous Hispanic groups (Mexicans, Cubans and Puerto Ricans), the Spanish of Central America is a variety that is not commonly studied.

“The Spanish spoken in Central American countries (Belize, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica and Panama) has been very scarcely studied, and viewed in a very fragmented way” (Pacheco, 2008:146). According to Lopez Morales (1999), there have not been any sociolinguistic studies done with Salvadorans and only five sociolinguistic studies with Hondurans, none of which explore the use of calques (as cited in Pacheco, 2008). While studies on Honduran and Salvadoran Spanish are limited, there has been an increase in these two nationalities moving to the United States, with a high concentration of Hondurans moving to New Orleans and a high percentage of Salvadorans moving to Los Angeles (Lipski, 1989). In regards to traditional Salvadoran Spanish, the pronunciation does not differ phonetically from most Mexican varieties. One linguistic aspect of both Salvadoran and other varieties of Central American Spanish is the use of *vos* instead of *tú*, the traditional form used in the aforementioned Mexican dialects (Lipski, 1989). Another aspect of Salvadoran Spanish is the aspiration of syllables and the word final /s/. An example of this word final aspiration is the words *mis amigos*, which in Salvadoran Spanish would sound like *mih amigoh* (Lipski, 1989). A third type of aspiration is word initial /s/, which is employed by both Salvadorans and Hondurans. By utilizing word initial aspiration the words *una semana* are pronounced *una hemana* by both Salvadorans and Hondurans (Lipski 1989). As discussed previously, Honduran and Salvadoran speech has not been studied extensively in the past and there are no studies that have been done on the use of calques in these two dialects. While it can be seen that Salvadoran and Honduran Spanish share some phonetic characteristics, these two varieties both need to be explored in other dimensions in order to see the similarities and differences between the two.

The studies discussed in this section have all created an interest in calquing and the extralinguistic variables that are explored in the current study, which will be discussed in detail in the following section. While other factors are explored to understand if they are influential in the use of calques, they did not come directly out of the previously mentioned studies. Due to the fact that it has been several years since any calque related

study has been done and because no study on calques has focused on Hondurans and Salvadorans, it was deemed important to study various linguistic factors in order to see if these factors play an influential role in either of these communities. This was done in order to prove what previous studies had found, which was that linguistic factors did not play a roll in the frequency of calque use.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this investigation is to study the use of calques in bilingual Hondurans and Salvadorans who live in Louisiana that were born in or arrived to the United States at different ages. More so, this study focuses on the social and linguistic factors that contribute to the frequency of calques in these Spanish-English bilinguals. The age of arrival to the United States showed to be significant in Silva-Corvalán's (1994) study and so it was explored here in order to see if this factor conditioned the use of calques, which could then possibly contribute to the critical period hypothesis (Nelson, 2012). While Dorado (2006) and Silva-Corvalán (1994) investigated the social factors that influenced calque use in Mexicans, Cubans, and Puerto Ricans, this study also chose to investigate which social variables condition the use of calques in Honduran and Salvadoran participants. This was done in order to see if the same variables that favored calque production in Dorado's (2006) and Silva-Corvalán's (1994) studies also influenced calque use by the Honduran and Salvadoran participants. More so, since there were no past studies done on how linguistic variables condition the use of calques, it was decided to explore several linguistic factors in order to see whether or not they favor the use of calques.

While several different grammatical phenomena were previously discussed, this study focuses solely on the use of calques, with the definition of calque being that of Silva-Corvalán (1994), as mentioned earlier: a calque as the transfer of meaning into an already existing lexical item. Based on the aforementioned explanations of calques and loan words it is easy to see that there is much similarity between the two. Due to this likeness, the present study will not differentiate between these two linguistic phenomena.

Research questions

The following research questions have guided this study:

1. Is there a difference in the frequency of calque use among the three arrival groups?
2. Is there a difference in calquing frequency between sequential and simultaneous bilinguals?
3. Does dominant language significantly influence calque frequency? (i.e., English dominant, Spanish dominant or dominant in both)

4. How do the social factors of education level, nationality, gender, age, arrival age to the U.S, formal instruction in English, formal instruction in Spanish and economic status contribute to the frequency of calque use?
5. Do the linguistic variables of the collocation of the word after the calque, the word class of the word prior to calque and the word class of the word after the calque contribute to the use of calques?

As previously discussed by Dorado (2006), Otheguy & García (1993), Otheguy, García, & Fernández (1989), Pfaff (1979), Silva-Corvalán (1994), the use of calques is considered to be a relatively rare phenomenon in vernacular speech that is most utilized by younger participants. More so, the implementation of calques is attributed to social factors such as age, arrival age (to the United States), and gender, rather than linguistic variables. This study utilizes several aspects of both Silva-Corvalán's study (1994), as well as Dorado's (2006), but also expands upon both. While this study on Hondurans and Salvadorans uses modifications of the three generations developed by Silva-Corvalán (1994) and employed by Dorado (2006), there is an equal number of eight participants in each age of arrival category. By dividing participants evenly into three separate age of arrival groups, it provides the opportunity to compare various social factors such as nationality, time spent in the United States as well as the influence of arrival age.

Based on these previous studies it is hypothesized that calques will be most common in group III, or those participants who were born in the United States or immigrated to the United States before the age of ten, and will be least common in group I, those who were born in either Honduras or El Salvador but immigrated to the United States at the age of nineteen or later. This is suggested because since the participants in group I arrived to the United States after the age of nineteen, their English is not as advanced as those who arrived either as children or were born in the United States, as defined by groups II and III. Also in accord with past studies (Dorado, 2006; Otheguy & García, 1993; Otheguy, García & Fernández, 1989; Silva-Corvalán, 2006), a large difference in the frequency of calques in Hondurans and Salvadorans was not anticipated though, social factors will contribute more strongly to the use of calques than linguistic factors.

Participants

According to the 2010 U.S Census it was found that there are approximately 192,560 people of Hispanic or Latino origin residing in Louisiana, amounting to 4.2% of the state's population. As in most states the three of the most populous Hispanic nationalities in Louisiana include Mexicans (78,643 people), Puerto Ricans (11,603 people), and Cubans (10,330 people), which in all make up a total of 2.2% of the population. Since Dorado's study (2006) as well as many others focus on these three nationalities, this study explores two different nationalities, Hondurans and Salvadorans. These nationalities are two of the next most populous with 30, 617 Honduras, or .7% of the state's population, and 5,120 Salvadorans, or .1% ("Census.gov," 2011). While these numbers only represent the people that are documented in the 2010 Census, Louisiana, New Orleans in particular, is a popular destination for many people from Central America. More so, after Hurricane Katrina devastated the state many people moved to New Orleans in order to look for work, causing a large influx of Hispanics, mainly Hondurans who are one of the highest represented populations in Louisiana.

This study incorporates twenty-four bilingual participants that live in Louisiana, all between the ages of eighteen and sixty-five years old. These two nationalities are some of the highest represented in Louisiana and the results from this study will be able to be compared with the results of past studies that focused on the use of calques in Mexican, Cuban and Puerto Rican communities. The number of participants for this study provides an equal number of Hondurans and Salvadorans in each of the three arrival groups. Also, the twenty-four participants will be divided evenly with twelve Hondurans and twelve Salvadorans in order to establish equal comparison groups.

The participants in this study were divided into three groups based on the criteria developed by Silva-Corvalán (1994). The first group, Group I, contains eight adults that moved to the United States from Honduras or El Salvador at or after the age of nineteen. Also following Silva-Corvalán (1994), these participants must have resided in the United States for a minimum of six years, as she states that it takes approximately five years to reach a level of bilingualism. Group II also has eight participants that have immigrated to the United States between the ages of eleven and eighteen. Finally, Group III also includes eight participants who were born in or moved to the United States at age ten or earlier.

In order to find participants for this study, several methods were used. Some participants were found through various social networks on campus that have Hispanic members, including the Hispanic Student Cultural Society, the Society of Hispanic Engineers, the Latin American Student Association, Spanish Club and Phi Iota Alpha. Since the majority of the members found in these organizations were college-aged students, participants were also found utilizing the friend of a friend method, as defined by Tagliamonte (2006: 21-22).

In order to discuss the participants of this study and the individual social factors as relates to each participant, Tables 3 through 5 divide the participants into the three age of arrival groups that have been discussed previously. In order to clarify and provide the maximum amount of information about each of the participants as well as the three arrival age groups, each table shows the eight participants that are part of that group or generation.

As discussed above, Group I includes eight participants, four Hondurans and four Salvadorans, who arrived to the United States at age nineteen or later. Table 1 provides a summary of the characteristics of this group. This table shows the following ten social factors that were analyzed in this study nationality, gender, age, educational background (educ.), formal education in Spanish (Spanish edu.), formal education in English (English edu.), arrival age to the United States, income of the participants, type of bilingualism, and dominant language. It can be seen from this table that Group I, those who came to the United States at or after the age of nineteen, is comprised of five males and three females, all who are between the ages of twenty-six and sixty-four years old. All of these participants have received a minimum of a high school education and at least one year of formal instruction in English, but not all have received formal instruction in Spanish. One should note that in columns six and seven, formal education in English and Spanish, that Participant I-1 has two answers that are different in respect to the other participants. In column six, Participant I-1 answered that he had received formal education in Spanish, but he did not state how many years. Due to this, the number of years of formal education could not be listed, which is why a question mark appears in this column. Next, in column seven, this same participant has 10+ years when it comes to formal education in English. This was done because the participant answered on the demographic questionnaire that he had studied English formally “all his life.”

Since it cannot be inferred the exact age that he began to study English in school, 10+ years was decided since he attended school for more than ten years.

It is important to note that one participant, Participant I-1, has only spent five years in the United States instead of the six years that Silva-Corvalán (1994) states is needed to achieve a level of bilingualism. This participant grew up attending Spanish-English bilingual schools and the majority of his/her classes were taught in English. Due to his advanced knowledge and time spent studying and speaking English, this participant is included in the present study due to the amount of time that was spent immersed in the English language.

Finally, the range of time that the participants have lived in the United States varies between five and thirty-two years. This is due to the fact that some participants were born in the United States, thus automatically spending a minimum of eighteen years in the U.S, while others came early in their lives and have chosen to stay in the U.S. In regards to their dominant language, all answered on the demographic questionnaire that their Spanish was either at a good or an excellent level, and all but one responded that their English was also at a good or an excellent level. Only one participant rated her English proficiency as low. While Group I is made of bilingual Hondurans and Salvadorans who came to the United States at or after the age of nineteen, Group II is comprised of participants of a different arrival age that have some similar characteristics as the first group.

Table 1: Demographic background for Group I

| | Nationality | Sex | Age | Educ. | Spanish edu. | English edu. | Arrival age to U.S | Income | Type of Bilingualism | Dom. language |
|-----------------|-------------|-----|-----|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|-------------|----------------------|---------------|
| Participant I-1 | Honduran | M | 26 | B.A | Yes-? | 10+ yrs | 21 | \$40-55,000 | Simultaneous | Both |
| Participant I-2 | Honduran | F | 26 | M.A | 11 yrs | 6 yrs | 21 | \$60,000+ | Sequential | Both |
| Participant I-3 | Honduran | M | 31 | M.A | 12 yrs | 6 mo. | 21 | \$60,000+ | Sequential | Spanish |
| Participant I-4 | Honduran | F | 61 | High School | 0 | 1 yr | 29 | \$40-55,000 | Sequential | Spanish |
| Participant I-5 | Salvadoran | M | 46 | M.A | 15 yrs | 5 yrs | 21 | \$60,000+ | Sequential | Both |
| Participant I-6 | Salvadoran | M | 41 | High School | 0 | 5 mo | 19 | \$40-55,000 | Sequential | Both |
| Participant I-7 | Salvadoran | M | 37 | B.A | 0 | 12 yrs | 28 | \$21-39,000 | Sequential | Spanish |
| Participant I-8 | Salvadoran | F | 64 | High School | 0 | 3 yrs | 46 | \$10-20,000 | Sequential | Spanish |

The second group, Group II, is also comprised of eight participants, four Hondurans and four Salvadorans who moved to the United States between the ages of eleven and eighteen. The following table, Table 2, shows all of the relevant social factors of each participant that make up Group II. As in the Group I, all of the information was gathered through the use of the demographic questionnaire.

Through this table one can see that there were, once again, five male participants and three female participants. The age range of Group II is similar to that of Group I, with participants varying from twenty-five years old to fifty-six years old. In regards to educational background, nearly all of the participants had either graduated from high school or obtained their Bachelor’s degree. Participant II-1 did not identify the highest level of education that she had achieved so this information is unknown. As for formal education in Spanish and English, all participants except for two have had a minimum of one year of formal education in Spanish and at least two years of formal education in English. Participant II-8 is listed as having 10+ years of formal education in Spanish because he too wrote “all of his life” when asked how long he had studied Spanish in school. Since the participant has received his Bachelor’s degree he has spent at least ten years in school, so 10+ years was decided for this column.

Table 2: Demographic background for Group II

| | Nationality | Sex | Age | Educ. | Spanish edu. | English edu. | Arrival age to U.S | Income | Type of Bilingualism | Dom. language |
|------------------|-------------|-----|-----|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|-------------|----------------------|---------------|
| Participant II-1 | Honduran | F | 40 | ? | 1 yr | 10 yrs | 14 | \$10-20,000 | Sequential | Spanish |
| Participant II-2 | Honduran | M | 23 | High School | 3 yrs | 2 yrs | 12 | \$10-20,000 | Sequential | Both |
| Participant II-3 | Honduran | M | 29 | High School | 2 yrs | 4 yrs | 11 | \$60,000+ | Sequential | Spanish |
| Participant II-4 | Honduran | M | 56 | High School | 0 | 0 | 17 | \$40-55,00 | Simultaneous | Both |
| Participant II-5 | Salvadoran | F | 30 | B.A | 2 yrs | 4 yrs | 12 | \$10-20,000 | Sequential | Both |
| Participant II-6 | Salvadoran | M | 45 | B.A | 0 | 0 | 11 | \$60,000+ | Sequential | Both |
| Participant II-7 | Salvadoran | F | 25 | B.A | 13 yrs | 13 yrs | 18 | \$60,000+ | Sequential | Both |
| Participant II-8 | Salvadoran | M | 26 | B.A | 10+ yrs | 11 yrs | 15 | \$40-55,000 | Sequential | Both |

Also interesting is that every one of the participants except for one in Group II stated that they learned English and Spanish at different times, making them sequential bilinguals. Furthermore, each of the participants listed themselves at having either a good or an excellent proficiency level in both English and Spanish. One

aspect that is similar to the participants in Group I is that three of the participants stated that they earned more than \$60,000 a year while the income of the other participants varied a bit more.

Group III is the final group and these are the participants who were either born in the United States or moved to the United States at or before the age of ten. Table 3 presents the social information for the eight participants in this group. The participants in Group III contain five females and three males and range between the ages of eighteen and thirty-six years old. Half of the participants in this group are college students and all except for two of these participants are were pursuing or had recently received their Bachelor’s degree. It is also these participants whose economic status is between \$0-5,000. The majority of the college-aged participants in Group III either were in or had recently graduated college and, due to this, did hold a full time job but instead relied on scholarships, family, or other means for economic assistance. This lead to these participants being part of the lower economic class since they were not earning money, but this does not take into account the income of the entire household, such as the participants’ parents.

Table 3: Demographic background for Group III

| | Nationality | Sex | Age | Educ. | Spanish edu. | English edu. | Arrival age to U.S | Income | Type of Bilingualism | Dom. language |
|-------------------|-------------|-----|-----|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------------|-------------|----------------------|---------------|
| Participant III-1 | Honduran | F | 21 | High School | 0 | 13 yrs | Born in U.S | \$0-5,000 | Sequential | English |
| Participant III-2 | Honduran | M | 21 | B.A | 4 yrs | 10+ yrs | Born in U.S | \$0-5,000 | Simultaneous | English |
| Participant III-3 | Honduran | F | 18 | High School | 5 yrs | 18 yrs | Born in U.S | \$0-5,000 | Simultaneous | English |
| Participant III-4 | Honduran | M | 22 | B.A | 8 yrs | 22 yrs | Born in U.S | \$0-5,000 | Simultaneous | English |
| Participant III-5 | Salvadoran | F | 19 | High School | 0 | 18 yrs | Born in U.S | \$10-20,000 | Simultaneous | Both |
| Participant III-6 | Salvadoran | F | 35 | High School | 0 | 3 yrs | 6 | \$40-55,000 | Sequential | Both |
| Participant III-7 | Salvadoran | M | 36 | High School | 2 sems | 0 | Born in U.S | \$10-20,000 | Simultaneous | Both |
| Participant III-8 | Salvadoran | F | 23 | A.A | 2 yrs | 12 yrs | Born in U.S | \$10-20,000 | Sequential | Both |

All except for one of the eight participants in Group III were born in the United States and on the demographic questionnaire all stated that they primarily speak Spanish with their families or elders while they

predominantly utilize English with their friends. More so, each of these participants also listed both their Spanish and their English at being at a good or excellent proficiency level.

The participants in this study, while diverse in many ways, share several common characteristics such as all being bilingual in Spanish and English, living in the United States, and being connected to others through the three arrival age groups. While all of the informants had both similarities and differences, each partook in the same tasks in order to obtain information for this study.

Tasks

Each participant engaged in two tasks along with a written consent form (Appendix A) and a demographic questionnaire (Appendix B). The questionnaire has twenty-four questions intended to obtain their age, gender, nationality, education level, formal education received in English and/or Spanish, and economic status.

The first task that the participants completed was an open-ended sociolinguistic conversation that lasted a minimum of thirty minutes in which they were asked a series of questions in English that they responded to in Spanish. Questions were provided to encourage a lengthy conversation, though participants were welcome to change the topic of the conversation and discuss whatever pleased them since particular aspects of speech, calquing, were not being specifically elicited for in this task. The sociolinguistic conversation questions are provided in Appendix C and include topics such as activities that the participants enjoy, family and friends, pets, holidays, their childhood, past vacations, events, activities, important events that they remember dreams, racism, etcetera.

In order to gather data for the analysis, the participants completed a second task, which was a controlled task. The purpose of this controlled task was to see if the calques that were common in Silva-Corvalán's (1994) study were also common in the speech of the Honduran and Salvadoran bilinguals. Similar to the sociolinguistic interview, the participants responded in a complete sentence in Spanish to questions that they were asked in English (Appendix D). All of the questions were asked in English to avoid the "perseveration" effect, which occurs when a participant utilizes the same form as the interviewer. (Blas Arroyo, 2008:8). An example of the

preservation effect would be if the interviewer asked a question utilizing a calque, then the participant would probably respond to the question incorporating a calque since that was the form presented.

Most of these questions are derived from Dorado's (2006) oral question and answer section but questions have also been both added and adapted for the present study. Some examples of this task are shown in Example 1:

Example 1

Question: "What are some things that you collect?"

Answer: "(Yo) colecto..." or "(Yo) colecciono..."

Question: "Does your house have carpet?"

Answer: "Sí, mi casa tiene carpeta..." or "Sí, mi casa tiene alfombra..."

This type of question and answer activity allowed the participant to implement either the calque or the standard Spanish form in their answer. The questions in this activity were asked to the participants in English so that they were not provided with the calqued form or the standard form of the word, requiring them to produce their own version. Through the use of the demographic questionnaire as well as the sociolinguistic interview and the question and answer activity, there were several social and linguistic factors that were investigated in this study.

Social and linguistic variables

The social factors investigated in this study include age, gender, nationality, level of education obtained, formal education in English and Spanish, language dominance and economic status, in which all of this information is obtained through the demographic questionnaire that the participants filled out prior to the conversation. Several linguistic constraints are also analyzed including the collocation of the calque as well as the collocation of the word that occurs both before and after the calqued word, such as whether they are adjectives, adverbs, nouns, etcetera. Some examples of these of these collocations are seen below:

(a) Collocation of word prior to calque-adjective: "Es *pequeña*, es como de cinco pies."

(b) Collocation of calque-verb: "No, no me gusta *batear*."

(c) Collocation of word after calque-possessive adjective: "Sí, yo amo *mi* carro."

The final linguistic factor that was analyzed was whether the calque is a one word calque, a lexico-syntactic calque, or a phrasal calque. Below are examples of the three types of calques:

(a) One word calques: *asistir* (calque) → *atender* (standard form)

(b) Lexico-syntactic calque: *Mi madres es seis pies (de altura)* (calque) → *Mi madre mide seis pies*

(c) Phrasal calque: *Patio de juegos* (calque) → *área de recreo/patio de escuela* (standard form)

While previous studies, such as those of Dorado (2006), Silva-Corvalán (1994), Otheguy and García (1993), and Otheguy, García and Fernández (1989), suggest that linguistic factors do not contribute to the use of calques, this study explores the previous variables to see if this continues to hold true, as there have not been any calque studies done within the Honduran or Salvadoran communities. After identifying the social and linguistic variables of this study the data was analyzed in order to obtain both the marginal and the binomial results.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

After running Goldvarb X and performing the regression analysis with the linguistic and social models, the marginal and binomial results were produced, allowing the results of this study to be observed and analyzed. In order to best explain these results, this section will begin by examining and analyzing the marginal results and will then focus on the binomial results in the discussion section. This is done so that no data or detail is lost while presenting the results of the study.

Marginals

While the marginal results do not show any influence or strength on the production of calques it is important to look at these numbers in order to make hypotheses as well as to see which groups had the highest or lowest frequency of calque production. These results are the raw numbers of the data, in other words they show both the exact number and percentage of calques utilized by the participants. In the marginal results there were several factors that stood out due to the participants' more frequent use of calques; these groups include certain participants, gender, age, as well as type of bilingualism.

Within the participants there were several outliers that produced more calques than the other participants, including Participants II-3 and II-4, who both produced eighteen calques each. Both of these participants were Honduran males whose highest level of education obtained was high school and are part of the second group, those who arrived to the United States between the ages of eleven and eighteen. A possible explanation for these two outliers is that participants II-3 and II-4 were both part of several factor groups that produced the majority of the calques. For instance, these two participants are both part of Group II, which is the age of arrival group that produced the most calques. More so, as mentioned, both Participant II-3 and II-4 are Honduran males, which is important because Hondurans utilized more calques than their Salvadoran counterparts. Finally, a third social factor that relates to both of these participants is education level. Both obtained a high school degree as the highest level of education achieved, which is also the group that produced the most calques. Through this information, one can see that when a participant is part of several factor groups

that have the highest rates of calque use, this correspondence also leads to a higher number of calques produced by that participant.

From the marginal results one can see the number of calques produced by men and women is very similar with a mere 2% difference, as seen in Table 4. While men produced a total of 204 calques, women produced 196, which shows that while there is not a 50/50 division, the percentages are very close with 51/49. Through both the percentages and the number of calques produced it can be seen that both men and women produced nearly the same amount of calques in this study. Through these marginal results one could strongly hypothesize that gender does not have any influence on calquing. This information opposes what Dorado (2006) found in her study on the frequency of calque use in Mexicans, Cubans and Puerto Ricans as she found that gender was the only social factor that did influence the production of calques. One thing to note about her study and the present study is that in both, the women produced the majority of the calques. The discrepancy between the two studies could be contributed to the fact that while Dorado (2006) had an equal number of male and female participants, the current study on bilingual Hondurans and Salvadorans had an unequal division of participants, with a total of 13 males and 11 females. While gender showed to have very similar results, other factors were more widespread in the number of calques produced.

Table 4: Preliminary results for gender

| Category | N. | % of data |
|-----------------|-----------|------------------|
| Females | 204 | 51% |
| Males | 196 | 49% |

Age is another factor that showed to have widespread marginal results because while the participants who were between the ages of 18-25 produced 209 calques, or 52% of the data, there wasn't another age group that produced over 100 calques. There is also a considerable difference between those participants between the ages of 18-25 who generated 52% of the calqued data and those between the ages of 36-45 who only produced 12% of the calqued data. Through this data one can hypothesize that age would have an influence on the frequency of calque production though this has not been found in past studies, such as that of Otheguy and García (1993), who found that age was not a factor that predicted what the frequency of calques would be.

Something to highlight here is that out of all of the previously discussed studies, the only one that studied age as a social factor was that of Otheguy and García (1993).

Formal education in English and Spanish had some unexpected marginal results as they differed from both what Dorado (2006) and Silva-Corvalán (1994) found. Table 5 shows the number and percentage of calques produced by the participants in each of the categories for formal education in Spanish. The participants who had one to four years of formal education in Spanish produced the most calques while those who had over fifteen years of formal education in Spanish generated the least. These results contradict what Silva-Corvalán (1994) found in regards to education and proficiency level. As discussed above, she states that participants who maintain a low degree of proficiency in one of the two languages will produce a lower number of calques and that those who are proficient in both languages will produce the majority of calques. This suggests that participants who self-assessed their proficiency level to be excellent in both Spanish and English produced the most calques while those who showed some differentiation between their proficiency levels calqued the least. An example of this can be seen in Participants II-3 and II-2. Participant II-3 formally studied Spanish for two years and self-assessed his Spanish at an excellent proficiency level and his English at a good proficiency level. In accord with Silva-Corvalán (1994), one would then expect that he would have a lower rate of calque use due to his higher proficiency in one language when in fact he produced the most calques with eighteen instances. On the other hand, Participant II-2 formally studied Spanish for three years but labeled his proficiency level in Spanish and English as excellent. One would then think that this participant would produce a higher calque production when in fact, he only produced two calques.

Table 5: Preliminary results for formal education in Spanish

| Category | # of calques produced | % of calques produced |
|-----------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1-4 years | 140 | 50% |
| 5-10 years | 47 | 17% |
| 10-15 years | 59 | 21% |
| 15+ years | 32 | 12% |

Due to these results one could not assume that an equal proficiency in both languages will automatically cause a higher calque production as Participants II-2 and II-3 challenge Silva-Corvalán's (1994) view on the frequency of calquing in regards to proficiency levels.

While formal education in Spanish yielded a high frequency of calques by those with the least formal education, formal education in English produced a calque frequency that was much closer together in terms of number of calques produced within each category. The majority of calques utilized were from the participants who had studied English formally for ten to fifteen years while the least amount of calques are produced by participants who had studied English for five to nine years. While the participants who had a more formal education in English produced the majority of the calques, these results still do not confirm what has been discussed by Silva-Corvalán (1994), as it would be expected that those with no formal education in English would calque less than those who had studied for five to nine years. Due to the fact that the percentages of calques produced are all similar one can assume that there isn't much of a difference if you study English formally or not.

Education level, as seen in Table 6, is the final factor to be discussed as it relates to the marginal results, for it too showed to contradict what past studies have found. Those participants who only had a high school degree produced 46% of the calques, which is then followed by Bachelors degrees with 36%, Masters degree with 12% and finally those with a Doctoral degree with only 6% of the data. Those participants who have a PhD obtained it in various fields such as anthropology and not in Spanish or English. One thing that is important to highlight here is that those participants who have received their Doctoral degrees are the same participants who, in regards to economic status, earn \$60,000+ a year. Due to this information one could strongly hypothesize that education level and socioeconomic status has some effect on the use of calques, but in contrast to these results, Dorado (2006) found that education did not influence the production of calques among her participants. In other words, through the data presented here one hypothesize that the more education that one receives, the less that he or she will utilize calques.

Table 6: Preliminary results for education level

| Category | N. | % of data |
|------------------|-----------|------------------|
| High School | 183 | 46% |
| Bachelors | 144 | 36% |
| Masters | 49 | 12% |
| Doctoral Degrees | 24 | 6% |

As mentioned previously, the strengths of the social and linguistic factors cannot be inferred from the marginal results, as these are merely the raw numbers produced by Goldvarb. After obtaining the marginal results and recoding for knockouts and singletons a binomial step-up and step-down was run in order to see which factors significantly condition calquing in this study.

Results for research questions

The following section reviews the findings of this investigation as a whole in order to answer the research questions that motivated this study. In order to answer these questions there are both marginal and binomial results presented and discussed so that each question is answered in its entirety. Remember that marginal results are merely the raw numbers or the frequencies and percentages of the variant forms in the data while the binomial results include the social and linguistic models that were part of the regression analysis and show which factors strengthen the frequency of calque use (Tagliamonte, 2006:135-140). While analyzing the results it was discovered that some constraints had small percentages but instead of collapsing these percentages into one group, it was decided to keep them as is in order to maintain the detail of the study. By doing this one can see the exact weight in which a constraint favored or disfavored the frequency of calques. In order to best show and explain each of the weights, a constraint ranking analysis was done which lists the constraints from the strongest to the weakest.

In this study a comparative method, or a constraint ranking, was utilized to best show and analyze the data. According to Tagliamonte (2006:237), a constraint ranking “provides a detailed model of the structure of the relationship between variant and linguistic context or the grammar underlying the variable surface

manifestations.” In the binomial results a category titled ‘Probabilitiy’ (Prob.) can be seen which shows the weight of each constraint. Anything .5 and over favors the use of calques while anything under .5 disfavors it. In the following discussion the first three research questions will be answered utilizing the marginal results while the final two questions, those that discuss the social and linguistic factors that influence the use of calques, will be answered by using the binomial results.

The first research question of this study was in regard to arrival age to the United States and asked which of the three participant groups, those who arrived at or after the age of nineteen, those who arrived between the ages of eleven and eighteen, or those who arrived before the age of ten or were born in the United States, utilized calques the most. As mentioned in the previous section, this factor had to be recoded in order to eliminate knockouts making the three age of arrival groups as follows:

Group I: Participants born in the United States

Group II: Participants arrived to the United States between the ages of one and eighteen

Group III: Participants arrived to the United States at or after the age of nineteen

According to the results, it was Group II, those who arrived between the ages of one and eighteen, that calqued the most while Group I used calques the least. Due to the amount of time that the participants have spent in the United States and with contact to English, an explanation of these results may be that many Anglicisms have become part of the participants’ lexicon. More so, because these participants have spent time in both the United States as well as their home country it is possible that they have not fully acquired the structures of the English language. These results are similar to that of Dorado (2006), who also found that the majority of the calques were derived from Group II and the least amount of calques were produced by Group I. In contrast to what was found both in this study and that of Dorado (2006), Silva-Corvalán (1994) found that the group that calqued the most was group III, or those who were born in the United States and also have a parent who either moved to the United States before age six or was born in the United States. She also found that the group who calqued the least was group I, or those participants who immigrated to the United States after the age of eleven. It is important to remember here that the three groups in the present study are modifications of those of Silva-

Corvalán (1994) so there are some differences between the two studies such as the age of arrival of each of the participants, which may explain the difference in the results.

As mentioned, Group I, those who arrived to the United States after age of eighteen, utilized calques the least in this study. A possible explanation of these results is best described by Silva-Corvalán (1994). She reveals that the reason for the low usage of calques in Group I could be contributed to a low degree of proficiency in one of the two languages while the participants in Group III are more proficient and can use more creativity in their speech. Although arrival groups are different between the study done by Sila-Corvalán (1994) and the present study, this hypothesis regarding a low degree of proficiency in one language can be applied to our Group I because since these participants arrived at or after the age of nineteen, they spent a good majority of their lives being surrounded by Spanish instead of English. One can then assume that this Spanish influence would then lead to a greater degree of proficiency in Spanish instead of English. In order to find proficiency level in Spanish and English each participant self-assessed himself/herself on the demographic questionnaire by answering two questions that asked him/her to rate his/her own proficiency in the two languages. For both languages each participant circled whether they thought their Spanish and English were at an excellent, good, fair or poor level.

Table 7: Preliminary results for generations and calque usage

| Category | # of calques produced | % of calques produced |
|-----------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Group I | 111 | 28% |
| Group II | 168 | 42% |
| Group III | 121 | 30% |

Another aspect to consider is that which Otheguy and García (1993) discovered, that the participants who focused on their experiences in the United States utilized more contact neologisms than in the conversation where participants shared their experiences about Latin America. In the present study, the participants in groups II and III, those who immigrated before the age of eighteen or were born in the United States, have spent more time in the United States than those in group I who came after the age of nineteen. Due to this, the participants

who came after the age of nineteen spent a good portion of their lives in either Honduras or El Salvador and therefore incorporated many stories about their home, families and growing up in Honduras or El Salvador, while the participants who were born in or spent more of their lives in the United States naturally talked more about growing up and living in the United States. Through this data one could hypothesize that a combination of arrival age and conversation topic influence the frequency of calquing.

Due to the results of this study as well as those of Silva-Corvalán (1994) and Otheguy and García (1993), one could infer that the age of arrival does influence calque usage, though in this study this factor does not significantly favor the use of calques. In other words, the binomial results did not show age of arrival of the participants to influence the frequency of calquing. The number and percentage of calques produced by each of these three age of arrival groups can be seen in Table 7.

The second research question focused on the frequency of calque usage between sequential and simultaneous bilinguals. To recall, sequential bilinguals are those who learned their second language after acquiring their first language while in simultaneous bilingualism two languages are acquired at the same time. Through the marginal results, displayed in Table 8, it can be seen that sequential bilinguals produced a total of 291 calques, or 73% of the data, while the participants who are simultaneous bilinguals only produced a total of 109 calques, or 27% of the data. In other words, the sequential bilinguals produced more than half of the calques in the data. These results contrast with what Silva-Corvalán (1994) found when she stated that participants with equal proficiency levels in two languages calque more than those participants who are more proficient in one language than the other. In terms of simultaneous and sequential bilinguals, one would assume that those who learned two languages at the same time and since birth would be equally or near equally proficient in the two while sequential learners would be more proficient in one language over the other. This information cannot be determined to be completely true though as there are other factors that also come into play. Some of these factors include if the participant studied abroad or attended a bilingual school, if there was a period of time that the participant only utilized one language instead of two as well as the frequency that the participant utilized both languages. Nonetheless, it can be strongly hypothesized that when someone learns

Spanish and English at the same time that they will produce less occurrences of calquing than sequential bilinguals, or those who learn the two languages at different times.

Table 8: Preliminary results for type of bilingual

| Category | N. | % of data |
|-----------------|-----------|------------------|
| Sequential | 291 | 73% |
| Simultaneous | 109 | 27% |

The third question that guided this study was how dominant language influences calque frequency with the dominant language options being either dominant in English, Spanish or dominant in both languages. Those participants that identified themselves as Spanish dominant calqued 40% of the data, producing 158 calques, while those who claimed to be English dominant only calqued 28%, or utilizing 111 calques. Due to these percentages as well as the number of calques produced by the participants who stated that they were English dominant, Spanish dominant, or dominant in both languages, slight differences can be seen between those who labeled themselves as dominant in Spanish and those who stated that they were dominant in English, as seen in Table 9. Based on what has been analyzed thus far in the present study one could hypothesize that those who are more dominant in Spanish or Spanish and English would calque more frequently than those who are dominant in English. While no previous studies have analyzed how language dominance affects calque production, there have been several previous studies, such as that of Dorado (2006), Silva-Corvalán (1994), and Otheguy and García (1989), that investigate language proficiency and how it influences the frequency of calquing.

Language dominance and language proficiency are related because one can assume that the dominant language used is not the language with the lower proficiency level. Instead, whichever language the participant deems as his/her dominant language would also be the more proficient language. Dorado (2006) found that language proficiency had no influence on calque use, which is similar to the results of this study in which dominant language did not show to significantly influence calque frequency. More so, it was mentioned previously that the sequential bilinguals produced more calques than the simultaneous bilinguals. This can be

attributed to dominant language because since all of the sequential bilinguals began learning Spanish from birth one could assume that they would be more proficient in Spanish than in English. In contrast to what Silva-Corvalán (1994) found, but in accordance with what has been found in this study, those participants who had a higher proficiency in one language utilized calques more than those who had equal proficiencies or two dominant languages. Through this information one can see how dominant language and type of bilingualism are related, two of the eight social factors which were analyzed in this study.

Table 9: Preliminary results for dominant language

| Category | N. | % of data |
|-----------------|-----------|------------------|
| Spanish | 158 | 40% |
| Both | 131 | 33% |
| English | 111 | 28% |

The fourth research question investigated if the following social factors were significant to the probability of calque use. As previous studies, such as Dorado’s (2006) and Silva-Corvalán’s (1994), have indicated, social factors strongly influence the use of calques and the results from this study follow the same pattern. The following four variables out of the original eight significantly condition the probability of calquing: age, formal education in English, economic status, and dominant language. In other words, the following information regarding social as well as linguistic factors is taken from the binomial results.

Table 10 shows each of the social factor groups that significantly constrain calquing and made it into the regression analysis as well as the ranges of each variable. As Tagliamonte (2006) describes, the range is the magnitude of effect and ables one to situate factor groups with respect to each other. Through this chart one can see that the age of the participant had the strongest influence to the probability of calquing with a 69 range, immediately followed by formal education in English of the participants with a 68 range. Economic status was the third most influential with a range of 65 and then dominant language, which was not as strong as the three previous groups with a 43 range. The following section describes the multivariate results in more detail.

Table 10: Ranges of social variables

| Category | Range |
|-----------------------------|-------|
| Age of participant | 69 |
| Formal education in English | 68 |
| Economic status | 65 |
| Dominant language | 43 |

The first factor to discuss that was part of the regression analysis was the age of the participant, meaning that this variable showed to be significant to the probability of calquing, as seen in Table 11. The probability weights here are important as it is the youngest group of participants, those between the ages of 18-25, that show the strongest weight with a .80 meaning that they strongly favor the probability of calquing. Those who then follow this group all disfavor the use of calques. The first group that disfavors calques are those 46 and over with a .30 and the group with the weakest weight are the participants between the ages of 36-35 with .08. This low probability means that there is almost zero chance that they favor calquing. It can also be seen in the table that those participants 18-25 years old also utilized calques 209 times, making this a total of 52% of the data, a much higher frequency than any of the other age ranges. This can be explained through Pfaff's (1979) study, in which she found that both Español mixtureado and is primarily utilized by younger speakers and that older speakers typically look down on the use of such Anglicisms and prefer to use standard Spanish. To recall, calques and other Anglicized dialects, such as code-switching and loan words, are all considered Español mixtureado.

Table 11: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of age of participant

| Category | Prob. | N. | % of Data |
|----------|-------|-----|-----------|
| 18-25 | .80 | 209 | 52% |
| 46+ | .30 | 59 | 15% |
| 26-35 | .27 | 86 | 22% |
| 36-45 | .08 | 46 | 12% |
| Range: | 69 | | |

To summarize, it's important to note through the constraint ranking that the only group that favors calquing is the youngest group of participants, or those from 18-25 years old.

Formal education in English is the second factor group that showed to be significant to the probability of calquing. Within this group it's important to note that no formal education in English had a very strong weight of .90 as well as those participants who had 5-9 years of formal education in English. This means that these two categories, those with no formal education in English and those with 5-9 years of formal education in English, strongly favor the use of calquing. While Silva-Corvalán (1994) and Lipski (2008) stated that participants with a lower proficiency in one language calque less, it can be seen from various results in this study that it appears to be the exact opposite. In regards to type of bilingualism as well as dominant language it was hypothesized that a lesser degree in proficiency causes an increased calque production.

This hypothesis is furthered here by saying that those participants who grew up never formally studying English may have never acquired the standard forms of English, leading to different proficiency levels, which then in turn would contribute to a higher calquing frequency. It can be assumed that these participants never acquired the standard forms of English, which contributes to the difference in proficiency levels. The following three groups, 1-4 years, 15 or more years, and 10-15 years of formal instruction in English all had very weak weights in comparison, thus not favoring the use of calquing, as seen in Table 12.

Table 12: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of formal education in English

| Category | Prob. | N. | % Data |
|---------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------|
| No formal education | .90 | 83 | 21% |
| 5-9 years | .90 | 67 | 17% |
| 1-4 years | .30 | 71 | 18% |
| 15+ years | .30 | 82 | 21% |
| 10-15 years | .21 | 97 | 24% |
| Range: 68 | | | |

Formal education in English contributes to the proficiency level of the participants, thus causing them to have similar levels of proficiency. In accordance with the previous hypothesis, though disagreeing with both Silva-

Corvalán (1994) and Lipski (2008), similar proficiency levels lead to a low percentage of calque use. While formal education in English is a social factor that conditions the use of calques, the socioeconomic status of the participants also showed to strengthen calque frequency.

Socioeconomic status is the third variable that showed to favor the use of calques. The strongest weight with a .77 is those who made between \$21,000-\$39,000 followed by those who made between \$0-\$29,000 with a .60 and then \$40,000-\$55,000 which had identical weights. Through these three categories it can be seen that socioeconomic status does have a significance influence on the production of calques. It is important to point out here that those who made \$60,000 or more had all obtained a high level of education and this group only had a probability of .12, strongly disfavoring the use of calques, as seen in Table 13. Due to the high level of education obtained by this group one can see a correlation between socioeconomic status and the education level discussed in the marginal results in Table 15. Those with Doctoral degrees only produced calques in 6% of the data, thus relating to the economic status of the participants as seen through the regression analysis. While socioeconomic status has not been studied extensively in regards to calquing, the results found here oppose what Dorado (2006) found in her study, in which socioeconomic status did not condition the frequency of calques. Out of the social factors, the fourth and final that showed to favor the use of calques is the dominant language of the participants.

Table 13: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of socioeconomic status

| Category | Prob. | N. | % Data |
|-------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------|
| \$21,000-\$39,000 | .77 | 32 | 8% |
| \$0-\$29,000 | .60 | 221 | 55% |
| \$40,000-\$55,000 | .60 | 85 | 21% |
| \$60,000+ | .12 | 62 | 16% |
| Range: 65 | | | |

The final social factor which showed to have an influence on the use of calquing is the dominant language of the participant, as seen in Table 14. Each participant self-identified as being either dominant in Spanish, English, or both. Through this table one can see the extreme separation between the factors that favor calque use and those that disfavor calque production. Those participants who stated that they were Spanish dominant most strongly favor calques with a .80, this group being the only one that favors the use of calques. The other two variables, those participants who were dominant in Spanish and English and those dominant in English both had a weak weight of .33, thus not a predictor of calque production. As discussed earlier, although dominance in Spanish and Spanish and English were the two groups with the highest production of calques, it can be seen here that dominance in Spanish had the strongest weight and indeed is the only constraint that favored calque production. While no previous studies have investigated how dominant language relates to calque frequency, it appears that being dominant in Spanish causes a higher rate of calquing. This could also be tied in with what has been mentioned earlier, that different proficiency levels in the two languages contribute to a higher frequency of calquing. Besides analyzing the social factors that influence calque production it's also necessary to explore which factors influence the use of calques the most as well as which have the least influence on calquing. While age, formal education in English, economic status and dominant languages showed to be the social factors that had the most influence on the frequency of calques there were also several linguistic factors that favored the use of calques.

Table 14: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of dominant language

| Category | Prob. | N. | % Data |
|--------------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------|
| Spanish | .80 | 158 | 40% |
| Both Spanish and English | .33 | 131 | 33% |
| English | .33 | 111 | 28% |
| Range: 43 | | | |

Linguistic constraints

The final research question that motivated this study was how the linguistic variables of the collocation of calque, the word prior to calque and the word after the calque contribute to the use of calques. Previous research such as that of Dorado (2006) and Silva-Corvalán (1994) shows that social factors that have the greater effect on the use of calques, however the results of the present study suggest that linguistic factors do influence the use of calques as well. The linguistic model that was part of the regression analysis shows that the linguistic variables do have an influence on the frequency of calquing. While observing the results in the following tables and explanations it can be seen that many of the percentages from the marginal results are quite small, many showing percentages less than 10%. In order to maintain the detail of the study the percentages were not collapsed because while collapsing would create larger percentages, it's important to see the exact probability, number, and percentage of each item.

Table 15 shows each of the linguistic factor groups that were part of the regression analysis as well as the ranges of each category. Through this chart one can see that the collocations had the strongest influence to the probability of calquing with a 95 range, immediately followed by the word class of the word prior to the calque with a range of 93. Lastly, the word class of the calque showed to have the weakest influence with a range of 52.

Table 15: Ranges of linguistic variables

| Category | Range |
|----------------------------------|--------------|
| Collocations | 95 |
| Word class of word before calque | 93 |
| Word class of calque | 52 |

The first linguistic factor that showed to strengthen the use of calques is the collocation. This includes relative pronouns, adjectives, direct object pronouns, and other parts of speech. Below are several examples of collocations that appeared after the calque:

- i. Relative pronoun: “Es una ganga *que* se fueron de California...”
- ii. Conjunction: “...siempre pasan moviéndonos *porque* teníamos...”
- iii. Possessive adjective: “...por eso es que yo apliqué, *mi* mama no tiene...”

Through Table 16 it can be seen that relative pronouns were the strongest predictor of calques with a weight of .97 with conjunctions closely following with a weight of .93, both collocations strongly favoring the use of calques. These weights along with those of prepositions, direct object pronouns and nothing/blank, such as the end of a sentence, all favor the use of calquing through the regression analysis. Continuing with these weight probabilities, it can be seen that adjectives and nouns had identical weights of .34, both disfavoring the use of calques. More so, nouns, verbs, and pronouns all showed not to favor calquing while pronouns had the least influence with a very low weight of .02, thus strongly disfavoring calque use.

Through this study one can see that the majority of calques are one of two parts of speech: nouns or verbs. Keeping this in mind one can assume that nouns and verbs are not typically followed by a word of the same word class, as seen in the following examples, and that in regards to pronouns, this word class frequently precedes verbs.

- i. La chica *escribe* letras a su madre:
 escribe-verb letras (calque)-noun
- i. Sí, mi casa *tiene* carpeta.
 tiene-verb carpeta (calque)-noun

Hengeveld (1992) and Hengeveld *et al.* (2004) explain what is known as “the theory of Parts of Speech,” which focuses on the “major parts of speech;” nouns, verbs, adjectives, and manner adverbs. In this theory the authors explain that there is a parts-of-speech hierarchy that that “not only implies a *sequence* but also specifies a *direction*” that sentences follow, as seen in Figure 3 (Gomez Rendon, 2008:55).

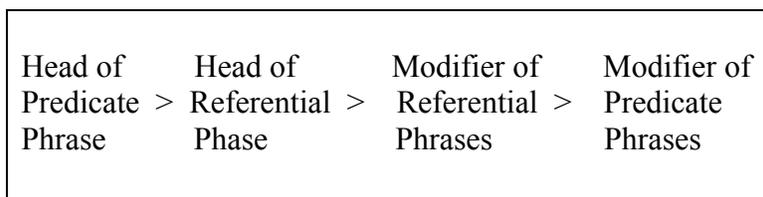


Figure 3: The parts-of-speech hierarchy (Gomez Rendon, 2008: 57)

In Figure 3 there are two parts of this continuum, head of predicate phrase and head of referential phrase, that are important to note because the authors point out that the head of predicate clause is a verb while the head of referential clause is typically constituted by a noun. Through this table and the prior examples of the word class of calques, one can see that verbs are generally followed by nouns, leading to calque's primary parts of speech being either verbs or nouns (Gomez Rendon, 2008). Due to this information one could hypothesize that these three constraints, nouns, verbs and pronouns, had such a weak weight in order to avoid repetition of parts of speech and to maintain grammaticality within the sentences in terms of structure and word order. By doing this and avoiding collocation repetition the speaker is essentially demonstrating his/her own proficiency level in the two languages.

Table 16: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of collocation of word after calque

| Category | Prob. | N. | % Data |
|-----------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------|
| Relative Pronoun | .97 | 19 | 5% |
| Conjunction | .93 | 13 | 3% |
| Preposition | .80 | 91 | 22% |
| Direct Object Pronoun | .65 | 3 | 1% |
| Nothing/Blank | .56 | 63 | 16% |
| Possessive Adjective | .45 | 28 | 7% |
| Negation | .44 | 7 | 2% |
| Adverb | .42 | 32 | 8% |
| Adjective | .34 | 34 | 9% |
| Noun | .34 | 47 | 12% |
| Verb | .32 | 23 | 6% |
| Pronoun | .02 | 40 | 10% |
| Range: 95 | | | |

As discussed previously in the introduction of the linguistic results, the small percentages, numbers and weights in Table 17 are shown in order to preserve the detail of the linguistic model. In other words, instead of having one group of many different constraints, it was decided to maintain the smaller numbers in order to see the exact influence independently of each category. This also applies to the second linguistic factor, the word class of the word following the calque.

The word class of the word prior to the calque is the second linguistic factor group that showed to influence the use of calquing. Table 17 shows word class such as conjunctions, negations, pronouns, and etcetera. Some examples of the word class of words prior to calques follow:

- i. Blank/nothing: “ \emptyset Moverme aquí tenía que aprender un idioma...”
- ii. Verb: “...las muchachas que *estaban* aplicando, entonces era lo que...”
- iii. Possessive adjective: “Para que *mi* aplicación sea más, más bueno que...”

Conjunctions showed to be the most favorable predictor with a weight of .94, strongly favoring the use of calques, followed by constraints of adjectives, with a weight of .81, verbs with a .76 weight, amongst others. Both relative pronouns as well as when there was no word prior to the calque showed equal weights of .69, both favoring the use of calques. The group that showed to have the weakest weight was affirmations with a weight of .01, strongly disfavoring the production of calques. Due to the fact that this weight is almost 0, there is no chance of affirmations influencing calque use. One aspect to note in this table is the similarity between indirect object pronouns, which have a weight of .36 and direct object pronouns with a weight of .35. The similarity in these weights can be due to the fact that both of these are object pronouns. The difference between the two is that one is an indirect object pronoun while the other is direct.

As seen in the table, nouns and affirmations are the two groups with the weakest probability with nouns only having a .09 weight while affirmations maintain a .01 weight, a weight of almost 0. It was mentioned previously that nouns disfavored the use of calques because two identical parts of speech, such as two nouns, generally do not immediately follow each other. The same rule applies to the word prior to the calque, meaning that a noun cannot immediately precede a second noun, which in this case would be a calqued noun. These results suggest that nouns prior to calques do not influence calquing due to the grammatical rules governing

sentence structure. Affirmations, on the other hand, are the constraint with the least influence on the use of calques. An example of a sentence with an affirmation immediately preceding a calque would be one such as: *Sí, amo mi carro*, in which the calqued word *amo* replaces the standard form *me encanta*. Due to the fact that the participant is simply affirming something, the sentence structure is not affected. One can then assume that affirmations do not influence calquing frequency. While the many different collocations of both the word preceding and following the calque can be seen through Tables 16 and 17, the collocation of the calque itself is the next linguistic factor to be studied.

Table 17: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of word prior to calque factor group

| Category | Prob. | N. | % Data |
|-------------------------|-------|-----|--------|
| Conjunction | .94 | 3 | 1% |
| Adjective | .82 | 15 | 4% |
| Verb | .76 | 139 | 35% |
| Relative Pronoun | .69 | 7 | 2% |
| Nothing/Blank | .69 | 35 | 9% |
| Possessive adjective | .59 | 9 | 2% |
| Adverb | .53 | 31 | 8% |
| Negation | .46 | 12 | 3% |
| Indirect Object Pronoun | .36 | 6 | 2% |
| Direct Object Pronoun | .35 | 18 | 4.5 |
| Pronoun | .29 | 26 | 7% |
| Preposition | .27 | 34 | 9% |
| Noun | .09 | 56 | 14% |
| Affirmation | .01 | 6 | 2% |
| Range: | 93 | | |

The word class of the calque is the final linguistic factor that showed to significantly condition the use of calques, as seen in Table 18. Due to the large amount of knockouts and singletons many constraints were combined in order to run the regression analysis. Due to this only two groups came out and those are verbs and everything except for verbs. Through this it can be seen that verbs favored the use of calques with a weight of .78 while everything except for verbs disfavored the production of calques with a weight of .26, showing significant difference between the two constraints. In other words, calques can be nouns, verbs, or other parts of speech, but the most common in this study, and that which had the strongest weight, were verbs. Some examples of calque word class can be seen below:

- i. Verb: “Voy a tomar el año libre y voy a *aplicar* para entrar a facultad...”
- ii. Everything except verbs-noun: “Recibí buenas *notas*...”

Although the sociolinguistic interview was not part of the analysis, it was noticed that calques were utilized more frequently in the question and answer activity than in the sociolinguistic interview. One thing to note, however, is that during the controlled task the primary calques utilized were verbs, with the most common being *moverse* instead of the standard Spanish *mudarse* and *aplicar* in place of *solicitud*, the standard form. More so, in the question and answer activity, the majority of the questions asked by the interviewer sought an answer that incorporated either a calque or the standard Spanish verb or a noun. Due to this, one could strongly hypothesize that the majority of calques used by bilinguals are verbs.

As mentioned earlier, while some social factors showed to have significant influence on the use of calquing, as seen in previous studies such as those of Dorado (2006) and Silva-Corvalán (1994), it can also be seen that linguistic factors also strongly influenced this linguistic phenomenon. More so, through the ranges presented for both the social and linguistic variables it can be seen that the linguistic factors had a higher range than the social factors. It is important to note here that while the highest range of the social factors was 69, which corresponds with the age of the participant, the highest range of the linguistic factors is much higher with a 95, correlating with collocations. By comparing the ranges of both the social and linguistic variables it could be said that the linguistic factors actually have a stronger influence on the production of calques. Not only are

calques being used with a higher frequency than in previous studies, such as those of Dorado (2006), Otheguy and García (1993), and Silva-Corvalán (1994), but they are also being conditioned through the use of different social variables such as age, dominant language, formal education in English and socioeconomic status and the linguistic factors of collocation, word class of the word prior to the calque, and the calque’s word class. While this is the first study that has shown linguistic factors to be influential to the use of calques, this is due to the fact that no previous studies have explored these variables in relation to calque production.

Table 18: Multivariate analysis of the contribution of word class of calque

| Category | Prob. | N. | % Data |
|-------------------------|--------------|-----------|---------------|
| Verb | .78 | 179 | 45% |
| Everything except verbs | .26 | 221 | 55% |
| Range: 52 | | | |

Through these results, which differ from what has been found in both Dorado’s (2006) and Silva-Corvalán’s (1994) studies, it can be hypothesized that the Spanish language is changing over the course of time. The reason for this change is that while older generations, or those who favor a more prescriptive approach, don’t use calques frequently, it is the younger generations, those who are implementing calques in the present, that will continue to calque into the future. In other words, this study has shown that calque production has increased over time and that social factors continue to influence the use of calques. More so, this is the first study on calques that has also explored how linguistic factors condition calque use and, as discussed, these variables do influence calque production. While bilinguals do not produce calques as frequently as other types of borrowings, it can be seen through this study that calques are conditioned by both social and linguistic variables and are still produced by bilingual speakers today.

CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSION

Throughout the course of this study the frequency of calque use was explored in bilingual speakers from Honduras and El Salvador who arrived to the United States at various ages and that now live in Louisiana. Past studies were first discussed in order to explain the various types of calques that were investigated in this study as well as what factors have conditioned calques in the past. In order to further past studies and explore the use of calques in the Honduran and Salvadoran participants eight social factors were studied. Out of these variables there are four that conditioned the production of calques; age, formal education in English, socioeconomic status, and the dominant language of the participant. Three linguistic factors were also explored, all which showed to condition the use of calques. These variables are collocation, the word class of the word before the calque, as well as the word class of the calque. Each of the social and linguistic factors were then analyzed using both the marginal and the binomial results in order to answer each of the research questions posed in this study.

This study on the use of calques has been able to provide answers to each of the research questions posed at the beginning of this study. In accord with Dorado (2006), this study found that while age of arrival did not effect calque production, the participants who moved to the United States between the ages of eleven and eighteen, calqued the most while those in Group I, the participants immigrated to the United States after the age of nineteen, calqued the least. This study also explored the two types of bilingualism, sequential and simultaneous, and how they affected calque production. Results revealed that although they did not have a significant influence on the use of calques, or in other words, type of bilingualism was not part of the factors that favored calquing, the sequential bilinguals utilized calques with a greater frequency than the simultaneous bilinguals. This could possibly indicate that the age at which a second language is learned influences the use of calques. Another research question that guided the present study was how the dominant language of the participants affected the frequency of calquing. It was found here that participants who's dominant language was Spanish calqued the most while those dominant in English calqued the least. More so, this factor showed to be significant in the regression analysis. The final two research questions explored and discussed here are how the social and linguistic factors influenced calquing frequency.

The multivariate analysis found that the social factors that favored the production of calques are the age of the participant, formal education in English, socioeconomic status, and the dominant language of the participant while the social factors that showed to not be significantly influential are education level, nationality, gender, arrival age to the U.S, and formal instruction in Spanish. While past studies, such as those of Dorado (2006), Silva-Corvalán (1994), Otheguy and García (1988), and Otheguy, García, and Fernández (1989), have not investigated the influence of linguistic factors on the production of calques, this study focused on three linguistic variables in order to see whether they favor or disfavor the use of calques. Each of the linguistic factors, the part of speech of the calque along with the part of speech of the word prior to the calque and the collocation, showed to strengthen the frequency of calquing.

The results of this study are very interesting and advantageous to the linguistic community as well as the Honduran and Salvadoran communities due to the scarcity of previous studies on the use of calques and these nationalities. As mentioned previously, few studies have focused on the Honduran and Salvadoran varieties of Spanish, and none of these studies have explored the use of calques in either of these dialects ” (Pacheco, 2008; Lopez Morales 1999). While this study adds to the sociolinguistic studies done on Hondurans and Salvadorans, it also enhances past studies that have been done on Spanish in Louisiana, a region that has not been studied extensively. According to Lipski (2008), and Escobar and Potowski (2012), there are many Hondurans that live in New Orleans, contributing to the Spanish of Louisiana. While there are more Salvadorans in other areas, such as Los Angeles, Salvadorans and Hondurans make up the fourth and fifth most highly represented Hispanic nationalities in the state of Louisiana (Lipski, 1989; "Census.gov," 2011). It is then through this study that several aspects of the field can be further explored, including the Spanish of Hondurans and Salvadorans, two varieties not commonly studied, the Spanish of Louisiana and two nationalities that have not been frequently explored within the state, as well as language contact between Spanish and English and how it is influenced by arrival age of speakers. While past studies, such as those of Dorado (2006), Otheguy and García (1988), Otheguy, García and Fernández (1989), and Silva-Corvalán (1994), only investigated the social factors that influence the use of calques and contact neologisms, this study on the use of calques in bilingual Hondurans and

Salvadorans also explored how linguistic factors conditioned the use of calques in order to see that both social and linguistic factors affected calque production.

This study aimed to investigate how social and linguistic factors influence the use of calques. Although there were some minor drawbacks, these did not affect the overall success of the present investigation. The results from this study are important to the linguistic field because while they maintained that social factors influenced the use of calquing, it was also found that the linguistic factors strengthened the frequency of calque production. While only a limited amount of studies on calques have been done, this study suggests that linguistic factors in fact have some influence on the frequency of calques. This means that while past studies have not investigated the influence of linguistic factors on the production of calques, this study adds a different perspective in regards to what variables condition the use of calques. Another aspect of this study that was not touched on is the attitudes towards calquing. Future research would benefit at looking at how attitudes are related to calquing and whether there is a significant correlation of the two.

The notion that the younger generations tend to calque more than older generations may be primarily because of their opinions that surround this phenomenon. Anglicisms such as calques generally hold a negative connotation, as many people believe that calques are used when the speaker is not proficient in one of the two languages or when the speaker is uneducated. This is a common misconception of calques as the speakers who utilize them must be proficient in both languages. Pfaff (1979) explained that older generations prefer standard Spanish, thus maintaining a prescriptive approach because they feel that Anglicisms do not keep up “good Spanish.” Due to this, calques are generally used more frequently in younger speakers who are competent in the two languages and who are not as concerned about maintaining a prescriptive grammatical approach. This can be contributed to the fact that younger generations are more receptive to Anglicisms and lexical borrowings than older generations.

Through this study it can be seen that although calques are considered to be a relatively rare phenomenon in comparison to other types of lexical borrowings, they are a lexical aspect that is used by bilingual speakers. While studies such as Dorado (2006), Otheguy and García (1988), Otheguy, García, and Fernández (1989), and Silva-Corvalán (1994) only focused on the social factors that condition the use of

calques, this study also explored the linguistic factors as well in order to observe how they affect calque production. By analyzing both social and linguistic variables, this study has proven that both social as well as linguistic factors influence the use of calques. More so, this study contributes to past studies done on the use of calques by exploring factors that had not previously been studied. This study also contributed to previous studies done on Hondurans and Salvadorans, as not many sociolinguistic studies have been done on these two varieties of Spanish, and no studies have been done regarding these two dialects within Louisiana.

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APPENDIX A

INFORMATIONAL LETTER AND INFORMED CONSENT FORM

DATE

Dear Madam/Sir,

I am a student at the University of Louisiana and I am conducting a study over certain aspects of the Spanish language. My goal is to study the speech of various Spanish speakers. Because I won't be able to remember everything everyone says exactly, I ask your permission to tape-record our conversation. However, everything that is said is kept entirely confidential and you will remain entirely anonymous. No one will have access to the data except myself and no other academic personnel will have access to the tapes unless they follow the same procedures as I do for keeping it confidential and anonymous.

Participation in the project is entirely voluntary. You may withdraw at any time if you choose.

Although the findings of this study will not benefit you directly, by participating in this study you will be contributing to a study on the Spanish language. I would be happy to send you a summary of my findings at the end of the project if you like to know how my research turns out.

Would you be willing to help me with this research by providing your point of view?

Interview and Participation Form PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I, _____, agree to take part in a study of the Spanish language.

I understand that to take part in the study I will participate in an audio-taped conversation, involving discussion such topics such as the following:

My daily life: work/school/activities, etc.

Activities that I enjoy doing

My family and friends

Pets I have had

My favorite holiday and why

Things I liked to do as a child

Past vacations, events or activities

Important events I remember that happened to me in my lifetime

Future dreams or goals

The lottery

Events/accomplishments I'm proud of

I understand that the interview will take about a half an hour or however long I wish. I understand that the interview can occur at a time and place that is convenient for me.

I understand that I am under no obligation to participate and that I may refuse to answer any questions, to stop the interview at any time, or withdraw from the study at any time.

I understand that my specific answers and comments will be kept entirely confidential. I understand that neither my name nor my address will be identified in any report or presentation that may arise from the study. I understand that only academic researchers will have access to the information collected during the study and they too will be required to keep all the personal information confidential.

I understand that I will not benefit directly from the study.

I understand that I may obtain information of the results of this study by contacting the principal investigator.

I understand what this study involves and agree to participate. Should I have any questions about the rights of

the participants or other concerns I can contact Dr. Robert Mathews, Institutional Review Board, (225) 578-8692, irb@lsu.edu, www.lsu.edu/irb at any time. I have also been given a copy of this consent form to reference should I have any questions.

Signature

Date

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact:

Alexandria Bivin

Graduate Student

Louisiana State University

606 776 6262

16. Who do you usually speak English with?

17. Did you learn to speak Spanish and English at the same or different times? (circle one)

Same time

Different times

18. Age you learned your second language? (if learned at different times): _____

19. Did you learn to speak Spanish or English first? (circle one)

Spanish

English

20. Do you prefer to speak in Spanish or English? (circle one)

Spanish

English

21. How often do you speak in Spanish? (circle one)

Never

Sometimes

Almost always

Always

22. How often do you speak in English? (circle one)

Never

Sometimes

Almost always

Always

23. What is your proficiency level in Spanish?

Excellent

Good

Poor

24. What is your proficiency level in English?

Excellent

Good

Poor

APPENDIX C

SOCIOLINGUISTIC INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Tell me a little about yourself.
2. Tell me about your family and friends. Describe them.
3. Tell me about your high school or college.
4. What are some activities that you typically do during the week? On weekends?
5. What kinds of hobbies and activities do you enjoy in your free time?
6. What is your favorite holiday? Why?
7. What were some activities you liked to do as a child?
8. What is a favorite vacation or event that you can remember? Where did you go/What did you do?
9. What is your earliest memory?
10. What was your first pet? Favorite pet? Can you tell me about him/her?
11. Where is one place you want to go visit? Why?
12. You just won \$1 million; what do you do with the money?
13. Who was the most important person in your life? Can you tell me about him/her?
14. What is an accomplishment that you are proud of?
15. What was the happiest moment of your life?
16. What is your biggest fear?
17. What's your dream job? What all do you need to do to get this job?
18. What are some of your goals for the future?
19. Where do you see yourself in 10 years?
20. If you had one week to live, what all would you do?

APPENDIX D

QUESTION AND ANSWER EXERCISE

Note: Spanish translations and possible calques are given here, although neither was provided to the participants.

1. Do you love your car?

Spanish: Me encanta mi carro.

Calque: Amo mi carro.

2. What do you do for fun?

Spanish: pasar un buen momento

Calque: tener un buen tiempo

3. How tall is your mother?

Spanish: mide

Calque: es

4. Do you like to bat at baseball games?

Spanish: golpear/darle

Calque: batear

5. Do you like to catch the ball at baseball games?

Spanish: agarrar/coger

Calque: cachar

6. What disturbs your serenity?

Spanish: molestar

Calque: disturbar

7. Do you write letters to your mother?

Spanish: cartas

Calque: letras

8. Do you often assume that everything will be okay in the future?

Spanish: suponer

Calque: asumir

9. Do you change your mind a lot?

Spanish: cambiar de opinión

Calque: cambiar de mente

10. Did you & your friends like to work? (Nosotros)

Spanish: sí/ nos gustaba

Calque: sí/no nos gustábamos

11. Who is the most important person in your life?

Spanish: la persona mas importante

Calque: la más importante persona

12. In order to pray, do you get on your knees?

Spanish: estar de rodillas

Calque: estar en rodillas

13. Do you prefer to mop or sweep?

Spanish: trapear

Calque: mopear

14. Do you get to work on time?

Spanish: tiempo

Calque: en tiempo

15. Did you like high school?

Spanish: secundaria

Calque: escuela alta

16. Do you like to attend school events?

Spanish: asistir

Calque: atender

17. Did you turn in an application for your job?

Spanish: solicitud

Calque: aplicación

18. Did you get good grades in school?

Spanish: notas

Calque: grados

19. Do you prefer to pay with cash or credit card?

Spanish: tarjeta de crédito

Calque: tarjeta de plástico

20. Have you ever moved to a different house?

Spanish: mudarse

Calque: moverse

21. Did you play on the playground as a kid?

Spanish: patio de escuela/área de recreo

Calque: patio de juegos

22. Does your phone have an answering machine?

Spanish: contestador automático

Calque: máquina de contestar

23. Do you read the newspaper in the morning?

Spanish: periódico/diario

Calque: papel

24. Does your house have carpet?

Spanish: alfombra

Calque: carpeta

25. Does Baton Rouge have a large or small population?

Spanish: población

Calque: población

26. Where do you buy groceries?

Spanish: comestibles/abarrotes/víveres

Calque: groceries

Spanish: tienda de comestibles/abarratoes

Calque: tienda de groceries

27. Do you know anyone that drives a truck?

Spanish: camion

Calque: truco

28. Do you recognize me from anywhere?

Spanish: reconocer

Calque: reconocer

VITA

Alexandria Bivin was born in Louisville, Kentucky and began studying Spanish in school at an early age. Through her time spent studying abroad she developed an interest in both bilingualism as well as second language acquisition. Due to her interest in Hispanic linguistics, in May 2013 she will be completing her Master of Arts degree in Spanish linguistics.