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**A PHONETIC RESEARCH IN COROZAL**

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**Para obtener el Grado de**  
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**PRESENTA**  
**Marlene Margarita Chuc Maldonado**

**DIRECTOR:**  
**Dr. Raúl Arístides Pérez Aguilar**

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## LICENCIADO EN LENGUA INGLESA

COMITÉ:

DIRECTOR: \_\_\_\_\_

  
Dr. Raúl Aristides Pérez Aguilar

ASESOR: \_\_\_\_\_

  
Mtra. María Isabel Hernández Romero

ASESOR: \_\_\_\_\_

  
Mtro. Alfredo Marín Marín

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I want to thank:

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## INTRODUCCION

Society is an individuals group relatively independent guided by an inner organization principle, it inhabits certain territory and it has a distinctive culture. Human race has been developing and inventing subjective and objective outcome according to its needs. Therefore, language is a product of culture. That is to say, it is a result of social change and evolution. It is well known that vocabulary is increased due to technology advances and improvement. Humanity thorough the epoch has created numbers, laws and trials, as well as the invention of the gunpowder, the wheel, microchip. Those human inventions and creations have resulted in the use of means of transportation, computers, and its programs that are more complicated each time. For this reason, any language issue can not be studied without studying society and its influence over the language.

In fact, language evolves as society does. Language evolution has a natural tendency; notwithstanding, it is not a natural process as it is in human beings. That means language contact is going to affect language evolution if some contact characteristics match language aspects then the contact is going to modify the language following the language tendency. In other words, the language evolution depends on the language features as much as language contact. Language contact is a phenomenon that can be stimulated or discouraged by a series of linguistic or extra linguistic factors. Extra linguistic factors determine and stimulate

language contact that can be direct or indirect. When the contact is settled in the same zone through a population mixture, or a coexistence in a variable period, it is called direct contact. On the other hand, indirect contact depends on bilinguals' context.

Language and society cannot be separated because of each one has an influence over the other one. They can be studied from a different point of view and focusing different features as it is explained below. Since the social order is an important issue in the development of language different fields have been studied it through the years.

As it is known, Sociology studies societies, Ethnology studies cultures, and Linguistics studies languages, with the purpose of having an extensive researching outcome some areas link such as Linguistics joined Ethnology, physical Anthropology and Archaeology that are Anthropology branches, conversely for other researchers Linguistics is an autonomous science. Relationship is obvious between Anthropology, Sociology, and Linguistics. Anthropology usually studies what is called primitive societies, that is to say small, not too complicated or industrialized; meanwhile Sociology studies societies with opposite features.

Therefore, Sociolinguistics is a result of the mixture of linguistic and social factors and features. That is to say, Sociolinguistics studies not only languages phenomena but also language and society relationship. It is necessary to take into account that language and society are systems. That means that there is more

than facts accumulation. This field proposes to study language and society not as systems but their structured usage as well as phenomena that result from language contact. Upon this point, it is relevant to consider that language is a social fact and has to be studied in its social and cultural context. Therefore, it is important to know what Sociolinguistics is related to as well as the wide field it offers to be studied.

Bright (1966) explains that Sociolinguistics as a realm began in 1960 in the United States where a conference took place at Los Angeles California University. Two years later, contributions were published by the name of Sociolinguistics.

Sociolinguistics is a term that includes aspects of Linguistics applied to the relationship between language and society, and the way language is used in different social situations. It ranges from the study of the extensive diversity of dialects across a given region down to the analysis between the style men and women speak to another one. Sociolinguistics often illustrates the humorous realities of human speech and the manner in which the age, sex, and social class of the speaker can often be described by means of a provided language dialect; that is to say, it codes the social function of a language.

When two people speak with one another, there is always more going on than just conveying a message. The language used by the participants is always influenced by a number of social factors which define the relationship between the



participants. A clear example is the number of ways in which a request can be made: when a professor requests a student to close a classroom door to shut off the noise from the corridor.

- a. Politely, in a moderate tone "Could you please close the door?"
- b. In a confused manner while shaking his/her head "Why aren't you shutting the door?"
- c. Shouting and pointing, "Shut the door!"

The inappropriateness is a social decision tied to the social factors which shape the relationship between speaker (the professor), and the listener (the student). When choosing an appropriate utterance for the situation, there are factors that must be considered in order to effectively convey the message to the other participant.

- A. Participants- Knowledge level.
- B. Formal or informal situation.
- C. Status relationship/social roles ( student vs. professor)
- D. Aim or purpose of conversation
- E. Topic

It is noted that there is a difference in the way a speaker talks to well known people as friends and the mode he/she speaks to people that have social status.

A common example is when a person addresses a friend that he/she likes his/her jacket. The spokesperson usually says: "Hey, cool jacket, I like that!". In



contrast, when he/she is acquainted with a professor, the speaker is predisposed to say: "You look very nice today, I really like that jacket."

This can also be seen in multilingual nations include a variety of accents, language styles, dialects and languages; the tendency to standardize is called diglosia. Each factor is a reflection of the region and socio-economics background from which speaker comes from. In monolingual societies, the region and socio-economic factors are determined by dialect and language style.

Double articulation arises when language characteristics are infinite in spite of that they are based on a group of finite elements. This characteristic makes human language different from the animal communication systems. On the other hand, it is not uncommon in some nations, like the United States, to see that languages apart from English are spoken inside the home with friends and family. Nonetheless, when this bilingual or even trilingual speaker interacts socially outside of home, he will communicate in English. Even church services may use a variation of the language, one that would be only heard in side the church or in school. That means that Sociolinguistics studies attitudes and diversity level even in a dialect or where multilingualism occurs. It is relevant to consider that research results in Sociolinguistics are used in language planning.

There are several ways to focus the analysis of the relationships between language and society. One of them is Fishman (1972) whose main theory is related to the language that is used in a specific situation to address to a specific person, bilingualism, language planning and standardization.

Sociolinguistics describes spoken languages in a certain social context which is another focus that is inclined to Linguistics more than Sociology and studies language variations and the relation with social aspects such as age, sex and social status. Among the main exponents, Labov (1972) is one of the most important ones because of his theoretical contributions. On the other hand, some linguists are interested in speech related to social context; they study it according to Psychology of conversational interrelation in the same way as the influence of social network. There are four possible ways to explain cause-result in a social and linguistic structure relationship. Whorf (1956) is one of its main supporters of the first approach that considers language as an influence on society. The second way to explain the cause- result relationship- ponders society as an influence on language. The third one supports that influence goes in both directions. The last way to explain the cause-result relationship supports that both language and society are determined by human condition. Linguistic data achieved is used to indicate social characteristics of the individuals.

As a conclusion Sociolinguistics proposes studying language, society and the speaker's features together to obtain real data. As a result, there are many topics and phenomena which can be studied as a part of Sociolinguistics taken as a whole if there is a language contact situation. To have a clear idea with reference to the sociolinguistic field, it is necessary to imagine different phenomena which can arise from language contact such as bilingualism, pidgin, creole, interference, and borrowing. That is why Sociolinguistics has to be understood before any of its phenomena.

Interference phenomenon is the most important to be studied as a purpose for this work.

This thesis attempts to analyze the different bilingualism features and the linguistic reality in Corozal as well as some useful information necessary to understand this work. It is necessary to consider that linguistic reality is a wide field to be studied. It means it is essential to clarify that bilingualism is analyzed in this work as part of the linguistic reality.

This thesis is supported by sociolinguistic elements as a theoretical background and its proposal is to accept or to reject the following hypothesis English native speakers in Corozal identify at least one phoneme of their second language (Corozal's Spanish) as one of their mother tongue (Belizean English).

## CHAPTER I

**B**<sup>ELIZE</sup>

*"No land is a nation until it has found its soul"*

*Thompson.*

The Bilingual individual is a determinant component of interference. That is why it is of central importance and must be examined first in any linguistic research. As it is known, bilingualism causes different phenomena including interferences, borrowings, among others as a consequence, before analysing any product, it is necessary to analyse the doer.

A chapter about Belize is included because it is necessary to know the principal features concerning the area. Before focusing on its history, this chapter includes Belize information with reference to location as well as population and economy.

It is relevant to know location of Belize because it played a significant and determinant role in its history. Belize lies on the eastern or Caribbean coast of Central America, bounded on the north and part of the west by Mexico, and on the south and the remainder of the west by Guatemala. The inner coastal waters are shallow and are sheltered by a line of coral reefs, dotted with 450 islets and called 'cayes' that extend almost the entire length of the country. (See Appendix A)

The data below is an abstract of information obtained from the Mapzones web site. It is established the Maya Mountains and the Cockscomb Range form the backbone of the southern half of the country, the highest point being Doyle's Delight (1124 meters above sea level) in the Cockscomb Range. The Cayo District in the west includes the Mountain Pine Ridge, ranging from 305 to around 914 metres above sea level. The northern districts contain considerable areas of tableland. Belize contains several rivers and some of them navigable for short distances by shallow-draught vessels. The area of the mainland and cayes is 8,867 square miles; it is significant to consider that forest land occupies most of the mainland area.

According to 2001 Belize census population is estimated over 273,700 people. The country is a melting pot of many races and over the years the multi-racial make-up has risen through the incursion of people from Central America, Asia, Europe and the Caribbean. An interesting fact is that males outnumber the female population only by 1%.

The main ethnic groups are Mestizo, Creole, Ketchi, Yucatec and Mopan Mayas, Garifuna and East Indian maintain a large percent of Belize's population. German and Dutch Mennonites, Chinese, Arabs and Africans among other ethnic groups that are a small percentage of the population. As a consequence, ethnic groups are heavily intermixed.

Agriculture is the basis of the economy. Sugar is the principal export of sugar and other commercial crops also generate external income, lobster and fish are sold on foreign markets as well. Another revenue earner is eco-tourism, based on the natural attractions of the country's still pristine environment.

This chapter regarding Belize is in fact significant because it is indispensable in order to understand the intact work. Therefore, to give some general information about the researching area is relevant. For this reason, this part presents a review about the main periods of the history of Belize. British Honduras was the name until it was changed in 1973. The history of Belize is divided into three parts in order to make it easier to understand. The first part is about the Mayan civilization, the second part refers to the colonialism and slavery and the last part is concerned to Belize as an independent country.

Belizean history begins with the Mayans who lived in the area that is now southern Mexico, Guatemala, northern Honduras, El Salvador, and Belize. The Mayan civilisation was strongest between 250 AD and 900 A.D. Belize was an important trading centre for the entire Mayan area. Some major trading villages were Moho Caye, Santa Rita (Corozal), Ambergris Caye and Wild Cane Caye.

According to Thompson (1937), historically the best source of documentary evidence is an account of a journey made in 1618 by two Franciscan friars. Bartolome de Fuensalida and Juan de Orbita journeyed from Bacalar via New



River, New River to then the upper and independent Itza of Lake Peten, whose capital was Tayasal, present day Flores.

Grant (1990) relates that Mayan was fleeing the "commissions" of northern Yucatan in large number during the last half of the century. Many thousands of these escaped to the southern frontier region and in 1567 - 1568 (midway through Kanfuna Ahau) signs of frontier rebellion were countered by a three pronged launched from Bacalar that swept across vast region of forest, destroying idols, capturing and burning Maya books, and taking into custody rebellious Maya priests and their followers.

The colonisation began with the expansion of European countries after Columbus reached Bahamas. About middle of the 17<sup>th</sup> century, some British pirates settled among the logwood forest on the coast of the Bay of Honduras - that would later be called Belize. Belize began to be exploited by British therefore, Belize was officially a British colony in 1667 with the Treaty of Madrid. after that, there were more treaties in order to clarify the British power over Belize.

Paz Salinas (1979) narrates that British settlers achieved through some treaties the right to cut any kind of wood; nonetheless, there were not enough native workers so they began to use slaves from Africa. In 1518, the first African slaves arrived in South America; slaves arrived in Belize in 1718. Population was 2915 late XVIII century, 2132 were slaves. The slave trade was legally abolished

in 1807, but it continued in fact; the Abolition act was passed in June 1833, nevertheless, slavery lasted from 1834 to 1838 when it was really abolished.

Since slavery was abolished Belizean rebel against the difficulties they lived; in 1950's there was a lot of hard mental and physical work involved in organising the movement of decolonization, in 1952 there was a national strike. In 1962, a Security of Tenure law was passed to give people rights over the land they lived on. In 1975 after ten years of self-government, the government of People United Party (PUP) began a process in order to get the independence. In 1980, The United Nations approved a resolution that asked a whole independence to Belize, and finally the independence was declared on September 21<sup>st</sup>, 1981.

Even though there are many important events, the most important were related above. So as to provide more tools to understand the cultural and social situation, some important data which are not an official part of the history but are really interesting for this research.

Paz Salinas (1979) establishes that population with Mayan origins is found mainly in Corozal, Orange Walk Cayo y Toledo. According to her, in 1860 a group of Chinese people was brought as "indentured labourers" ("enganchados ") almost at the same time some Indian workers who were settled principally in Toledo and Corozal.

Garifuna was the name for the new people that resulted from slaves that escaped from slavery and intermarried with the Caribs who lived in the Windward Islands in the Eastern Caribbean.

Besides information about history, it is really meaningful for this researching work to include current information about Belize. English is the official language of Belize. Nevertheless, English Creole is extensively spoken and remains a distinctive part of everyday conversations for most Belizeans. Spanish is also common and is taught in elementary and secondary schools in order to further develop Belizeans' bilingual skills.

Spanish is spoken as a mother tongue by the majority of the people in the Orange Walk and Corozal Districts, north of Belize and the Cayo District in the west. In the southern Districts of Stann Creek and Toledo, there are people whose first language is Garifuna or Mayan.

The linguistic reality knowledge is useful to determine some interference factors so the last part of this part is concerning the linguistic reality in Corozal. English is the national or official language, nevertheless, it is essential to provide information in relation to spoken living languages and dialects. Data, according to ethnologue web site, is included in a chart below. (See Appendix B)

Table 1.1

Language	Classification	Alternate names	Speakers number
<b>ENGLISH [ENG]</b> (Second language)	Indo-European, Germanic, West, English		55,998 in Belize
<b>GARÍFUNA [CAB].</b>	Arawakan, Maipuran, Northern Maipuran, Caribbean	Caribe, Central American Carib, Black Carib.	12,274 in Stann Creek and Toledo along the coast
<b>KEKCHÍ [KEK]</b>		Ketchí, Quecchí, Cacché. Classification: Mayan, Quichean- Mamean, Greater Quichean, Kekchi.	9,000 in Belize
<b>MAYA, YUCATÁN [YUA]</b>	Mayan, Yucatecan, Yucatec-Lacandon	Yucateco	5,000 in the ethnic group in Belize San Antonio, Succoths, Orange Walk and Corozal
<b>MOPÁN MAYA [MOP]</b>	Mayan, Yucatecan, Mopan-Itza.	MAYA MOPÁN, MOPANE	7,000 to 7,750 in Belize
<b>NORTHERN CENTRAL AMERICA CREOLE ENGLISH</b>	Creole, English based, Atlantic, Western	BELIZE CREOLE ENGLISH (KRIOL, CREOLA).	137,000 speakers (55,000 speak it as a first language)
<b>SPANISH [SPN]</b>	Indo-European, Italic, Romance, Italo- Western, Western, Gallo-Iberian, Ibero- Romance, West Iberian, Castilian	ESPAÑOL, CASTELLANO.	80,477 Northern, western districts, and scattered throughout the country
<b>PLAUTDIETSCH [GRN]</b>	Indo-European, Germanic, West, Low Saxon-Low Franconia, Low Saxon.	GERMAN, MENNONITE GERMAN.	5,763 in Belize

Source: Belize census 2000.

Belmopan is the capital of the country. It is the seat of Government and has been classified as the Garden City of the country. It was built in 1970, was created following extensive damage to the former capital Belize City, caused by Hurricane

Hattie in 1961. Belmopan is geographically located at the centre of the country, some 80 kilometers to the south-west of Belize City. Its population is estimated at 11,100 and is increasing as more people relocate to the Capital. Nevertheless, Belize City still remains the hub of commercial activity and one of the most urbanized centers of Belize with a population of 58,000 people.

The following tables list the towns and District population estimates by mid 2003:

<b>Belize</b>	
Belize City	64,100
San Pedro Town	6,800
Belize Rural	16,600
Total	87,500

<b>Cayo</b>	
San Ignacio Santa Elena	15,400
Benque Viejo	6,300
Belmopan	11,100
Cayo Rural	28,200
Total	61,000

<b>Orange Walk</b>	
Orange Walk Town	14,700
Orange Walk Rural	28,100
Total	42,800

<b>Stann Creek</b>	
Dangriga Town	10,000
Stann Creek Rural	17,900
Total	27,900

<b>Corozal</b>	
Corozal Town	8,500
Corozal Rural	26,100
Total	34,600

<b>Toledo</b>	
Punta Gorda Town	4,800
Toledo Rural	21,200
Total	26,000

Source: Belize census 2000.

Concerning to educational level, it is important to know that the literacy rate is 70%.

The average years of schooling is esteemed in 7.53. (Belize census 2000)

Even though Belize is a young country it has an absolutely compelling sociolinguistic reality. As a consequence, it offers a truly extensive researching field for many different subjects. In the same way, due to its youth, its changes are not only more frequent but they are also more relevant.

After analyzing useful and meaningful information about the researching area it is essential to have a well-defined idea about the phenomena being studied.



## CHAPTER II

**B**

ilingualism

Languages will not remain stable, but the change and variation are inevitable. Languages change due to social, economic, linguistic, and historical factors. Definitely, change generates different phenomena according to the characteristics in which that change takes place. Consequently, there are many interesting topics to study; even if one of them is taken as a matter of study it will be different according to the point of view in which it will be taken as the place of study.

Although, linguistic change is not the intention of this work, it is necessary to consider this point in order to understand what this chapter is in relation to.

Definitely, the sociological aspect is one of the main factors that occur in the language change process. Lopez Morales (1978) points out that it is important to consider that there is a relationship between the complexity of society and linguistic repertoire through the mediation of social roles, with the nature of roles existing as a measure of social complexity. Furthermore, linguistic diversity, either in terms of varieties of a language, or number of languages, depends upon it is product of social complexity. Language is drawn into the evolutionary nature of society. In this



respect, there is an implicit claim that the elimination of minority languages is a natural, evolutionary process that makes struggle irrelevant.

The contact between two communities is a determinant so that linguistic change arises. Therefore, any linguistic research has to begin by studying changes in a system due to another system influence; that means to study the changes in a language due to the contact with another language. Linguistics provides a wide field to be studied because of the reasons given above. Bilingualism is a result of a contact which, definitely, does not stop there although it determines or/and arranges the characteristics which specific linguistic phenomena need to behalf. That is to say, bilingualism cannot be guessed if it is not considered as an effect of linguistic contact even it is clear that it is not the unique product.

Based on the explanation above, it is relevant to consider that certain factors have to be in the same place at the same time to make the phenomena possible. Interference is not the exception. In fact, specific characteristics are necessary in order for that phenomenon to arise. Interference is considered because of linguistic contact even though it follows bilingualism. This thesis includes a chapter concerning to bilingualism because of this phenomenon comes up before interference. That means that the main factor required is a bilingual community.

The aim of this section is to present a review in relation to bilingualism As well as the exposition of basic concepts and the theories which will be helpful to understand this work.

Through reading different authors, it was decided to base this work on Weinreich work mainly because he is one of the main specialists concerning bilingualism; even though he wrote Languages in Contact, in 1953, his book is still used as a reference to many authors. Certainly, it is necessary to consider new researching works, which have been done because the new advances in this field can lead the way a bilingual individual can be seen, understood and analyzed according to the new tendencies of research focused on psychological and sociological aspects. Language in Contact is taken as a basis to many research works in this field; the contributions made by different researchers do not displace the ones made by Weinreich at all. For this reason, this work has a pertinent basis on his book.

Even though, bilingualism was referred above, intending to know the concept clearly it has to be settled at this point. Bilingual concept is related to the idea of an individual who speaks two languages perfectly, that is to say, that a person is able to speak, understand, read, and write in two languages at the highest levels.

It is important to have another point of view and set the passive bilingualism concept, which is useful in this work.

Haugen (1978) proposes that in passive bilingualism maybe a speaker has to be able to produce complete sentences into the second language to be considered a bilingual person. It is necessary to consider that a bilingual person

can be someone who uses two different communication systems. Those systems can be dialects. Explaining it in a simple way, a speaker has to be able to understand two different communication systems and has to be able to produce at least simple sentences.

Coordinated bilingualism occurs when the bilingual individual can keep both signs apart. On the other hand, when a speaker puts both signs at the same level it is compound bilingualism. Subordinated bilingualism is referred when regards are equivalent signs.

There are many different reasons for being a bilingual person and most of the time they depend on economic and historical factors. To consider the motive why a speaker is bilingual is important because according to the reasons of learning a language, a person limits his/her second language knowledge and it affects his/her proficiency. Lastra (1992) suggests that is important to know this because a bilingual can be classified according to the way he/she uses the languages.

Language is a system of communication; humans use not only a vocal system but also the written system. That means that it can be expressed in letters. Because of the constant usage, language can change due to time and place. As humans, languages are different from each other so languages behave in different ways not only because each one has its own system, but also because it is both

arbitrary and systematically. Haugen (1978) underlines that a language is an abstraction based on a linguistic behaviour of its users.

In this sense, it is clear that there is no speaker capable of using the language perfectly. A speaker does not have the total mastery of the whole system. It is necessary to consider tiredness, illness, or inattention to check the proficiency. So the spokesperson's proficiency depends upon the emotional, psychological and even physical characteristics. It makes that a bilingual person can be studied from many points of view besides the fact that languages are not something stable. This work includes some of many ways in which a bilingual person can be classified. Related to it, Lastra (1992) mentions bilingual can be classified by the way, in which he/she acquired more than one language. This classification can also include some determinant aspects that are related to the social environment. One of them is the social status, as well as belonging to an elite. It is known that a speaker could also learn the second language at school is a differential factor. Another way to learn a language is through studying in a bilingual school. For example, some times a high social status child is sent to bilingual schools where is taught not only the language but also takes different classes in the second language, like math, science, geography.

Belonging to a bilingual family is a different way to learn a language.

There are also some of the bilingualism situations where different languages groups contact. Weinreich (1953) proposes a group division, which is

presented below because it is indispensable to understand bilingual as well as the stress on factors that stimulate or inhibit interference.

A. Geographical area. Mountains, rivers, and other kinds of physical environments are important to determine the language contact evolution. That means geographical area can limit or stimulate language contact. Most of the time language contact takes place for trading purposes. Conversely, language used is frequently improvised. For instance, a merchant uses Spanish in the Corozal Free Zone only for trading. It is known that he/she is not interested in learning the language so he/she only uses vocabulary needed to trade consequently, the speaker does not worry in relation to producing sentences grammatically correct. Moreover, the spokesperson does not make the distinction among tenses. It is due to that person does not have the purpose to learn the language. That is to say, the merchant only wants to make a sale.

B. Indigenusness. When a group of two mother-tongue migrates typical linguistic effects of its own are often a result

C. Cultural or ethnic groups. In this case, participation in two cultures is unavoidable as well as linguistic elements. Due to historical facts there are some towns in Belize where people use, in this specific case Garifona and Mayan.

D. Religion. In some world areas language is used according to the people's beliefs and religion. Sometimes, religion can be a barrier to the integration of the communes and linguistic elements. A linguistic self-sufficiency and unilingualism can appear in a denominationally divided village. These events limit interference in a considerable way. Many times education and religion are so related, as a result, children tend to standardize influences on their language that come from the school as well as from the church. In Belize, children are educated by their religion.

E. Race. In some countries, some marriages between certain racial groups are prohibited. This situation makes few families become bilingual. Hence, racial division is reinforced by restriction of intermarriage.

F. Sex. In some places, women use a different language than men. In spite of the fact that division between sex and language is not frequent, there are a few cases. Although, Yule in his book The Study of Language (1996) does not present examples with reference to bilingualism, he gives some examples concerning the different manners in which women and men use language. For example, he explains that sometimes women use more prestigious forms of the language as well as they tend to express or discuss their feelings.



G. Age. Sometimes, a discrete generational difference can appear in a single family. Nevertheless, it means a projection of a gradual age-and-language transition in the community. To determine the correlation between obsolescence of a language and the extent of interference in it would be a problem from a sociolinguistic viewpoint.

H. Social status. Language as a social difference is not as common as many years ago. At this point, it is useful to consider that the cultural conservation is determinant when a speaker has to use a language.

I. Occupation. It is not common, but special occupational groups have language of their own. This is an occasional situation, however, there is a resistance to interference. Particularly in Belize, people who go to college use English more than people who do not do.

J. Rural and urban environment. In this feature, occupation and geographic conditions are mixed. (Weinreich 86-96)

Several theoretical positions about bilingualism and the bilingual individual have been brought to light through different exponents. Those theories that are useful for this work are included to clarify this work. One meaningful and helpful



theory that is exposed by Haugen (1950) states that a speaker cannot use a separated language effectively without interfering one to another.

The Epstein theory considers bilingualism as a word and an association of ideas. According to this theory, the association between an idea and a foreign word, this theory sets that there is a relation among the first language that a person learns and there is also an association ( ab ) nevertheless when a person learns a third language ( c ) that association is inhibited ( ac )

It is useless to avoid relating those theories to the individual's skill for language acquirement and its performance when he uses a second language. Weinreich (1953) writes that language proficiency is determined by the individual's aptitude for learning a foreign language. That means that the individual's performance in the second language depends on the speaker's skills.

Haugen (1978) poses that in order to analyze the bilingualism phenomenon, the model form (the original form in the donor language) and the replica form (the resultant form in the receiving language) have to be identified and the analysis has to be in both linguistic systems terms. That is to say, the linguistic analysis has to be done considering characteristics in both language systems.

Studying the nature of the contact and factors, which come about in the Corozal bilingualism, is not enough, besides that the speakers' linguistics reality has to be studied to avoid false conjectures.

Haugen (1950) establishes that bilingualism could become a problem because of interference. Due to psychological and social factors adduce bilingual success, which depends on keeping the languages separated. Most bilinguals are not successful and this is one of the reasons. Interference can be unconscious or deliberate, individual or characteristic of an area. This is an important reflection for the purpose of this research that has to be considered.

In this respect, Weinreich (1953) suggests that there are some inherent aspects to a bilingual person that have to be indicated because of their relationship to languages in contact and their result. Here are some examples:

- a. Bilingual language performance that concerns the speaker's facility of verbal expression in general and his ability to keep two languages apart.
- b. Relative proficiency in each language. Language used at different levels. That is to say how well the speaker uses each language in writing, speaking, and moreover if he is able to use the language in every single stage of his psychomotor performance such as mathematical operations.
- c. Attitudes towards each language, whether idiosyncrasy or stereotype.

Considering that extra-linguistic factors restrict to bilinguals is meaningful. That is why the impact of the interference phenomena on the norms of a language may be greater if the contact occurs through groups of bilinguals. It is useful to determinate which, if any, of the above factors characterized the group as a whole.

In addition, there are certain other features of bilingual groups that are relevant when interference is studied. Some of those characteristics are explained below.

- f. Size of bilingual group and socio-cultural homogeneity or differentiation; subgroups division using one language as their mother tongue; as well as demographic facts; social and political relations between these subgroups are also relevant.
- g. Bilingual individuals who have stable characteristics of speech behaviour ( in terms of points a-e above) in the several subgroups;
- h. Established attitudes toward each language.
- i. Related to the fact above there are also attitudes toward the culture of each language community,
- j. Based on the bilingualism prestige there are also some attitudes toward this phenomenon.
- k. Tolerance.
- l. Relation between the bilingual group and each of the two language communities. (Lastra 173)

To conclude, it is significant to consider information above in order to have a general idea about the bilingual person and conclude in an accurate manner.

# **I** *nterference*

This chapter will provide the interference definition as well as a synthesis of the different interference types that arise in a bilingual community. The purpose in this part of the chapter is to clarify the context in which interference problem can appear as well as the main features for some interferences types.

Weinreich(1953) defines interference as "the rearrangement of the patterns that result from the introduction of foreign elements into the more highly structured domains of languages, such as the amplitude of the phonemic system, a large part of the morphology and syntax, and some areas of the vocabulary (kinship, colour, weather)."

Interference occurs when a bilingual person introduces elements (phonetic, grammar or words) and rules of his primary language into the secondary language. It is relevant to consider that most of the time those foreign elements do not belong to the second language. It is important to consider that interference is related to the way in which speaker learns the secondary language as well as his/her own features as a single individual.

Language contact has different results at different levels, that is to say, according to the part of the language the foreign elements are introduced a

different kind of interference occurs. For instance, morphology is hard modified.

On the other hand, vocabulary is easily borrowed.

Different interference types are explained below, as expected phonemic interference is defined first. According to Weinreich (1953), the problem in phonemic systems concerns the way in which the sounds are perceived and/or reproduced by a speaker. This problem causes PHONIC INTERFERENCE that is defined as the identification of a phoneme on a secondary system with one in the primary system and bilingual individual reproduces it based on the phonetic rules of the primary language. As a result, it is necessary to consider the characteristics of each phoneme in each language, in this case Spanish and English spoken in Corozal.

Up to this point, setting clearly the phoneme definition is really relevant to understand not only this type of interference but also this research work. Trask (1996) defines a phoneme as the minimal sound part that makes a word different from another. For instance, the words cat and fat that have different meaning only because of the first phoneme is different [K and f]. In Spanish the words casa and masa are different due to the phonemes [m and k]

It is necessary to regard, as two languages in contact do not have the same phonemes or variations. Consequently, sounds or phonemes that only exist in one language are adapted in the receiver language. Sometimes those sounds are

disjointed. When those sounds are not disjointed, speaker usually identifies them as some of his/her own language.

It is known that language phonology is characterized by a phonetic structure and some phonetic habits as a result language contact can modify one or both characteristics.

Weinreich (1953) comments that from a phonemic point of view, four basic types will be discerned:

- (1) Under-differentiation of phonemes occurs when the bilingual does not distinguish two sounds of the secondary system in the primary system as an effect they are confused. Spanish speaker usually tends to ignore the [æ] sound because of he does not have that vowel sound in his/her primary language. Therefore, he/she pronounces it as an [ae] sound or sometimes as [a] or [e] ignoring the difference among those sounds.
- (2) Over-differentiation of phonemes is the opposite phenomenon. That means that bilingual distinguishes the primary system sounds on of the secondary system, where it is not required.
- (3) Reinterpretation of distinctions occurs when the Bilingual distinguishes phonemes of the secondary system by features which in that system are merely concomitant or redundant, but which are relevant in his primary system.



(4) Actual phone substitution, occurs when a bilingual pronouns phonemes that are identically defined in two languages, but in fact they have a different pronunciation.

The first three types of interference are grouped apart from the fourth, because of from type one to three the former concern relevant features in one or both languages. The last one, from a synchronic function viewpoint, the phone substitution type refers to features which are redundant but apt to become relevant if the phonemic system changes.

Besides there are some cases of phonic interference that are complicated consequently it is really hard to identify with a single one of the four basic types, In particular, the hypercorrectness, that can occurs not only in listening but also in speech. (Weinreich 26-28)

Moreover, some authors formulate a different and complicated problem -the double interference- that occurs when a bilingual hears his/her primary language spoken with a different accent, he/she perceives and interprets according to the accent he/she usually pronounces it. That means that the native phonic system interferes. The problem is double because of when a bilingual learns a second language the primary languages interferes when speaker tries to pronounce that secondary language as the primary language phonemes. In the same way, the monolingual speaker-listener interprets the speech taking as reference his/her unique language.



It is important to realise the role of the structural factors in the phonic interference. That is to say, it is really relevant to consider that certain additional factors emerge in favour or against faulty sound reproduction. It occurs when the sounds are viewed as part of a phonic system.

According to the phoneme definition up to this point, phonemes have been considered as members of sound systems. However, phonemes are not apart and sequences of phonemes occur in the vocabulary of a language. As a result, those sequences become an additional field of interference. When there are similar sequences in the primary language, interference can be eliminated in the secondary language. The opposite happens when there are no similar sequences that instigate interference.

The functional yield of phonemic oppositions is another way in which the distribution of phonemes in the vocabulary regulates interference. Therefore, phone substitution is not only a recognizable signal of the presence of a foreign pattern, but it can also be practised with relative impunity from the point of the view of the secondary sound system. It is important to consider that most of the modifications are brought to light in the lexicon.

A second type of interference is the problem of **GRAMMATICAL INTERFERENCE**. This interference can be in morphology, and/or syntax.

The main requirement to this phenomenon is that both languages are described in the same terms. This type of interference is certainly interesting and it

occurs when morphemes are distinguished from grammatical relations. That means that the functions or morpheme's place sometimes is determined by rules on the primary language without considering most of the times each language has different rules. Therefore, interference can occur as it is explained below. It is necessary to divide the two aspects in which grammatical interference can happen. It can be in a morphological aspect or in syntax.

Up to this point, it is important to define what a morpheme is. Trask (1996) defines it as the minimal grammatical unit which has meaning; the smallest unit which cannot be further decomposed except in phonological terms. Morphological interference can be studied taking into account different aspects as follows:

1. Order .It is the widest aspect because in a sentences verb- subject, verb- Subject-object have different order according to the languages rules. In the same way, in a noun-adjective relation the order is different. For instance, a Spanish speaker who learns English is a clear example of this interference. In Spanish, the adjective is placed before the noun and when the speaker produces sentences in English he/she tries to use the same order without considering that in English the adjective has to be placed before the noun. It happens overall with a beginner student. For example, instead of saying, *she is wearing a blue blouse*, he/she says, *she is wearing a blouse blue*.

2. Agreement, dependence and similar relations between grammatical units. No all the languages have these grammatical aspects. Agreement depends on a

specific factor and depends on the grammatical rules. For example, in Spanish gender and number agreement in nouns has to be done as well as in French. Nevertheless, in Spanish nouns can be male or female but in French nouns can be male or female and there is one more. Meanwhile an English speaker has only to do the agreement in number. In Spanish, speaker has to do the agreement in both gender and number. As a consequence, he/she tries to do it at the beginning of the learning process. For instance, a speaker says *the blues cars* instead of saying *the blue cars*. The English speaker agreement at least at the beginning, has the opposite problem in learning Spanish because he/she does not do the gender and number.

3. Modulations of stress and pitch. This distinction is significant here because grammatical functions that are performed in one language by morphemes, may be identified by bilinguals with relations of another language. (Weinreich 44)

A morpheme is an abstract unit that may or may not be realized by a fairly consistent stretch of phonological material. Morphemes may be classified as free or bound.

In a language, the expression of some categories is obviously more obligatory than that of others. In the obligatory distinctions, a zero morpheme can signify one member of the opposition. For example, Spanish speakers do not use auxiliary verbs to produce negative sentences as in English. For example, a beginner student tends to say *I not have brothers* when the auxiliary verb is really

important such as the -s for the third person singular which is forgotten most of the time. It is significant to consider that greater or lesser syntagmatic boundness of morphemes expresses categories.

Morphemes and grammatical relations, as well as morphemes classes, are subject to interlingual identifications. As a result, some relations belonging to one language occur in the speech of another language. They are named borrowings. In these terms, given the contact of two languages, A and B, It is expected that one of the following types of grammatical interference of A with B (or vice versa) come up.

(1) The first type of A-B interference expected refers to the usage of A-morphemes in speaking (or writing) language B. In this specific case some morphemes are transferred easier than other morphemes.

(2) This type is in relation to the application of a grammatical relation of language A to B morphemes in B-speech, or to neglect of a relation of B that has no prototype.

(3) A second type occurs when a speaker identifies a specific B-morpheme with a specific A morpheme. As an effect, there is a change (extension, reduction) in the functions of the B-morpheme on the model of the grammar of language A. It is convenient to speak of the source language. The difference in these three types is that in type (1) transferability of morphemes is involved. In types (2) and (3), morphemes are not transferred, at this point the concepts of model language and replica language emerges. The model language is the language, which has the

grammatical relations, which do not exist in the other language; as a consequence, there is a copy in the language, which does not have a similar relation. (Weinreich 30)

When there is a transferability of morphemes, it is considered as a correlate of their grammatical function in the source language and the resistance of the recipient language. Indeed, it stands a reason that the transference of morphemes is facilitated among highly congruent structures a highly bound morpheme that depends on its grammatical function (as opposed to its designative value) is useless in an alien system unless there is a ready function for it.

It is really difficult to identify the transferability all the same, it is not impossible. In any case it has to be done in a careful manner. That is to say, speech has to be analyzed by listening to the speech punctiliously, particularly in circumstances where interference is little inhibited it would reveal many interesting transfer of even the most strongly bound morphemes. As a result, one reason why bound-morpheme transfers have so rarely been detected is that observers have sought them predominantly in fixed languages, rather than in the following speech of bilinguals.

There are cultural reasons as well as structural factors that determine transfers as ephemeral and rarely established in the recipient language so that they deserve to be studied apart.

The bilingual speaker apparently feels a need to express some categories



of one system as strongly as in the other, and transfer morphemes accordingly to reinforce the weakest system. On the other hand, the monolingual speaker of the recipient language who is not contaminated by a foreign system, most of the times may not have the same reinforcement necessity. That means that the monolingual speaker is not conspicuous with reference to the transferred bound morphemes occurring in the foreigner's speech. The transferability is not easily perceived. As an effect, speaker does not adopt them unaware of their presence or ignorant as to their function.

The transfer of morphemes naturally increases where affective categories are concerned, resulted as a mechanism for the reinforcement of expression.

Bilingual transfers morphemes with complex grammatical functions less than those with simple functions do. For instance, a preposition which determines one of the several cases seems to be transferred less than a freely occurring noun; an auxiliary verb, governed by conjunctions or governing moods of the main verb, which is perhaps not as transferable as a full-fledged verb. In contrast, a bilingual relocates disconnected morphemes as sentence-words and interjections almost at will. Certainly, the structure of the recipient language is also involved. The transfer of a preposition may be facilitated if it contains situations that the bilingual can identify with the system events of the other language in contact.

In a grammatical analysis, morpheme classes of a language can be ordered in a continuous series from the most structurally and syntagmatically integrated



inflectional ending, through such "grammatical words" as prepositions, articles, or auxiliary verbs, to full-fledge words like nouns, verbs, and adjectives, and on to independent adverbs and completely unintegrated interjections.

Bilingual speech may have different kind of interference. For instance, there may be interference in grammatical relations where the relations of word order from one-language morphemes to another. This interference is highly common in the speech of bilinguals and it can be of several types, as explained below.

1. When there is no an identical form on the native language the speaker tends to copy the form on the other language, this originates that the other language conveys an unintended meaning. That copied form can be named replica.

2. Moreover, when a speaker uses the replica of the relation of another language in his/her own language, there is a violation on an existing relation pattern. For this reason, the sentences, which speaker produces using this pattern, do not have sense. Many times, he/she produces statements that are understandable by implication.

3. There is a third type, which constitutes interference only theoretically, this type of interference consists in the unnecessary imposition of a relation to a language where no obligatory relations exist in the equivalent domain. That is to say, the bilingual tries to use a pattern when it is not necessary because of there is no a relation. (Weinreich 37-38)

As Weinreich (1953) explained and it was noted at the beginning of the grammar interference, all types of interference can affect every type of relation: order, modulation, agreement and dependence as it is explained as follows:

- A) Order. Examples of interference in word order are plentiful.
- B) Modulations. The systematic description of modulation patterns available in a language is still in its infancy; it is too early, therefore, to expect exact statements of the impact of one language on another domain.
- C) Agreement and dependence. This type of interference is more common because a native speaker does not notice the importance of this kind of grammar relation. Moreover, the interference has an influence over functions that are performed by morphemes in one language, but it is rendered in another by grammatical relations.

As expected, when a bilingual identifies a morpheme or grammatical category of language A with one in language B, he may apply the B form in grammatical functions that he derives from the system of A.

Languages formal similarity or a similarity in pre-existing functions leads the bilingual to establish the interlingual equivalence of the morphemes or categories.

As an effect, not only the bilingual speech is affected but also the whole community. This process can be taking its example from the bilingual speech a language community can not only change the use of individual forms, but also it

can develop a full new paradigm of obligatory categories on the model of another language, by systematically extending the functions of morphemes in its language. It is relevant to consider that there is always a pattern that is more flexible than another. That means there is a language that uses relatively free and invariant morphemes, which serves as the model for imitation. As an effect, the pattern usage in the other language may create new categories, but also language contact produces changes that develop a new set of formants to fulfil a grammar function that already exists. In contrast, there can be a reverse type of influence on the change of a grammatical system toward a less explicit form. This kind of interference is quite exceptional, but some instances have nevertheless been attested. In other words, language contact can result in such far-reaching changes that the affected language system assumes as different structural type.

Finally, there is a type of grammatical interference resulting in the disappearance of grammatical categories. A foreign language classroom where English is spoken is a clear example because cases, genders, or aspects in a foreign language are distinguished. The same process occurs in situations of natural language contact.

When there is a similarity in patterns or the relatively unbound and invariant form of the morpheme, the transference of individual morphemes of all the types is definitely possible under those favourable structural conditions. Furthermore, obligatory categories have become optional or discarded and replica patterns

established on the model of another language. The process is favoured by such factors as relative explicitness of the model categories.

It is essential to consider that each single connexion of favourable structural conditions does not always result in permanent grammatical interference of the type one might predict. Clearly, fewer phenomena of interference are incorporated into the language as a code than occur in the speech of bilinguals. There is a selection of phenomena, and a complex resistance to interference.

A word that has been transferred from one language into another is itself subject to the interference of the grammatical, as well as the phonetic system of the recipient language, especially at the hands of its monolingual speakers. A scale of effects ranging from complete non-adaptation to full grammatical integration of a word can be formulated.

An important consideration is that under certain circumstances, a bilingual speaker displays indifference as to grammatical treatment of transferred material. It is clearly noted because the speaker has to choose if he/she incorporates or not the transferred words. The choice itself would appear to depend not on the structures of the language in contact, but rather on individual psychological and socio-cultural factors prevailing in the contact situation.

Weinreich (1953) establishes the last type of interference, even though it is at the end that does not mean that it is less important or has less probability of

arising. Interference occurs at many linguistic aspects and lexicon is not the exception. One vocabulary can interfere with another in several manners.

It is important to keep on mind the two kinds of words, simple and compound. In relation to simple words, there is a common type of interferences that takes place when the phonemic sequence transfers from one language to another. In the case of simple lexical elements (non-compound) transferred seldom have a form that resembles phonemically a potential or actual word in the recipient language.

The other type of interference consists of the identification and adjustment of the semantemes to fuller congruence that occurs if two languages have partly similar semantemes or units of content. This type of interference that is the major type, comprehends the widening of the use of a native word of the influenced language in conformity with a foreign model.

When in a language two existing semantemes, X and Y that converged on the model of another language, where the combined content of X and Y is represented by a single sign, Z. The expression of either X or Y is utilized for the merged pair and other is discarded.

Many cases of lexical interference can be discovered because of they are studied apart from the other types of interference. The expressions in the two languages in contact were already similar before the units of content were brought

into alignment. It is relevant to consider that kind of study has to be regarded as genitival or cultural relation among languages.

It is necessary to consider that theoretically an adjustment in the content of signs with a considerable degree of homophony is a borderline case between the alternatives (1) word transfer and (2) extension due to contact. For that reason, function of the word in the recipient language broadens. Sometimes, involving homophony according to the nature of the semantic broadening is a feasible manner to distinguish two types of interference. A homonym is established in the recipient language if a leap in meaning exists.

Finally, a mild type of lexical interference occurs when the expression of a sign is changed on the model of a cognate in a language in contact. This type of interference does not have an effect on the content.

The same types of lexical interference occur in compound words and phrases as explained below:

According to Weinreich (1953) three types of interference are possible for multiple lexical units that consist of more than one morpheme; these kinds of words are called compound words. The interference occurs when all the elements are transferred in analyzed form or when all elements are reproduced by semantic extensions, or when some elements are being transferred, while others are reproduced. These types of interference are explained below.



(1) The first type of lexical interference in compound words is related to transferability of analyzed compounds that occurs when the elements of a compound or phrase are adapted to word-formative or syntactic patterns of the recipient language (the word is considered simple if the elements are transferred unanalyzed).

(2) The second type of lexical interference in compound words refers to the reproduction in terms of equivalent indigenous words, which can be carried out with compounds, phrases and even large units such as proverbs.

It is really relevant to consider that this form of interference called loan translation, has been subdivided as it is explained below:

(a) There is a first type of loan translation which is called loan translations proper. In this case, the model is reproduced exactly, element by element. The French word *pardon* that is used in English is a clear example.

(b) There is another type of loan translation that is called loan renditions, in which the model compound only furnishes a general hint for the reproduction. Some Spanish words are used in English belong to this type of loan, for instance, *tamale*, *mosquito*, *guacamole*.

(c) The third type of loan translation is called loan creations. This term applied to new coinages, which are stimulated by the need to match designations by cultural innovations. *Salary man* is a Japanese creation that is used in English. It is important to consider that among loan translations, there is an important

distinction between those in which the components appear with their familiar semantemes (only the particular combination of them being due to another language) and those when one or more of the components are involved in a semantic extension.

(3) There is also another type of interference which occurs when a compound lexical units involves the transfer of some elements and the reproduction of others. When the speaker uses one part of the compound word and the other one as in the second language, the new word used is named Hybrid. For instance, the word home plato that is used in baseball as a hybrid which comes from 'home plate'. As a result, the reproduced element of a hybrid compound can be affected by homophony, like a simple word or the elements of a loan translation semantically extended. (Weinreich 47-52)

In this special type of interference, it is really important to make a distinction along with the hybrid compounds which the stem is transferred and a derivative affix reproduced and those in which the stem is native and an affix transferred. The last type is called interlingual portmanteaus. It occurs when a word is formed by popular etymology.

Finally, a special type of hybrid compound is represented by two forms. This type of hybrid takes place when one element of a compound is both transferred and reproduced. That is to say, both processes occur and the compound word is transferred and reproduced in the second language.

Albeit, these lexical interferences have been explained as applied to common words and they can also be applied to proper names as well. In Chetumal speaker tends to name a child using English names however, most of the time it is written and pronounced as speaker listens. For instance, Christean, Catheryne, Geovanny. It is really relevant to consider that opposite logical though proper name interference is particularly common; as a consequence, the same place or person should be called by unrelated names in a language-contact situation is, in fact, a rare case.

Transferability from one language to another is the most common case. By contrast, some place names are translated and their components are reproduced from native vocabulary. On the subject of compound names, as in the words most of the time only one element is transferred so hybrids are the result.

About lexical integration of loanwords, it is essential to make the following considerations:

A part of the interference as the transfer or reproduction themselves are consequences of a word transfer or a word reproduction on the miniature semantic system (or "field") of which the new word becomes a member.

Only the most concrete loanwords, such as designations for newly invented or imported objects are considered as mere additions to the vocabulary.

Nowadays, There are many examples overall in computers' components

vocabulary. For example, *formatear*, *mouse*, *click* are English words that are utilized in Spanish.

The same phenomenon occurs with loanwords that have abstract meaning. It is relevant to take into account that when there is no full correspondence between a new word and any pre-existing one, a partial overlapping of content occurs due to the interference.

Transferred or reproduced foreign words can affect the existing vocabulary in three ways as it is explained below:

(1) Confusion in usage. Sometimes speaker tends to relate a new word to an old one. This effects confusion in the content. It is probably restricted to the early stages of language contact.

(2) A different way in which loanwords can affect the existing vocabulary is when a new one replaces an old word. That is to say, the old words content is completely covered by the loanword; this happens both when foreign words are transferred and when they are reproduced. As a result, the old word disappears.

(3) A third type is found when both the new and old word survives with a specialization in content. This usually affects both the old word and the loanword if both survive. Specialization develops even when the transferred word is genetically related to the established form. These terms are then designate as "doublets".

Loanwords can be specialized according to style. Sometimes, this causes that

transferred elements acquire pejorative connotations, which they do not have in the mother tongue due to they occupy a familiar stylistic stratum. (Weinreich 54-56)

Indisputably, phonetic or grammatical interference are more restricted to the bilingual portion of a language community than lexical borrowing. It is important to consider that most of the time the lexical interference of any type becomes a borrowing as it is explained below:

As a matter of fact, the vocabulary of a language, considerably more loosely structured than its phonemics and its grammar, is beyond question the domain of borrowing par excellence. Upon this point, it is relevant to consider the reasons that motivate any speaker - monolinguals included- to accept new loanwords in his vocabulary. The reasons of lexical innovation in general must be analyzed first because many loanwords cases are not recognizable by monolingual.

Technology, medical development and advances generate the need to designate new things, persons, places, and concepts. This causes obviously a lexical innovation. Most of the time those new words are borrowed from the original language where they were created because of advances that are faster than the language development and adequacy.

Nevertheless, the designative inadequacy of a vocabulary in naming new things is one cause of lexical innovation, as well as internal linguistic factors.

Words low frequency is one such internal factor. Frequency has an important role due to words which come often to mind are more stable than those

which are relatively infrequent of the vocabulary. Infrequent words are less stable.

Therefore, those infrequent words are forgotten and replaced.

There is another internal factor conducive to lexical innovations pernicious homonymy. It is necessary to explain that sometimes a word seems to have been borrowed from another language in order to resolve the clash of homonyms.

In accordance with Weinreich (1953) The last reason for lexical innovation is associated to the tendency of the affective words to lose their expressive force. It is necessary to consider the need of many languages to use synonyms, which is inherent to the recipient language as well as the usage of euphemisms and slang. It is essential to regard the need is satisfied through the habit of borrowed words.

Certainly, bilingual needs a vocabulary replenishment due to the same reasons, internal (low frequency of words, pernicious homonymy, need for synonyms) as well as cultural. Because of a bilingual familiarity with a different culture the speaker is more strongly aware of his/her novel nature. Hence, bilingual is perhaps even more apt than the monolingual to accept loanword designations of the new things. An interesting concern is that the bilingual has the other language as a constantly available source of lexical innovations. On the other hand, replenishing vocabulary the monolingual depends on native lexical material and whatever loanwords may happen to be transmitted to him/her.

For the borrowing on the part of bilingual, three additional factors can be named. First, speaker tends to feel that some of the semantic fields are



insufficiently differentiated because of a comparison with the other language to which he/she is exposed.

The symbolic association of the source language in a contact situation with social values is the second consideration that affects bilingual in particular. This can be positive or negative.

A significant observation is necessary to consider in relation to bilingual. He/she does not use language for only one reason. The spokesperson also borrows vocabulary for cacophemistic purposes, particularly in slangy speech because of the unfavourable associations of the other tongue. In the same way, the speaker can use a lexical mixture for comic effects.

Finally, transferred words are more common when speaker's attention is diverted from the form of the message. There is an interference of another vocabulary through mere oversight that affects bilingual's speech. As a matter of fact, when the limitations on the distribution of certain words to utterances belonging to one language are violated.

There is no an explanation but sometimes in language contact some words resist the transfer. That is to say, some words seem never to be transferred. Several of the various enumerated causes of lexical interference may explain the borrowing of any one word.

In this type of interference bilingual has to choose among mechanisms. For instance, a simple word can be transferred or reproduced by a semantic extension; a compound word can suffer many processes.

Theoretically, there is a reason to judge that when a language which has many restrictions on the form of words may be proportionately more resistant to outright transfer. As a consequence language favours semantic extension and loan translation instead. Certainly, such resistance would be a function of the difference in the structures of the recipient and source language, not of the structure of the recipient language. In conclusion, interference can affect speaker proficiency but it is not the only determinant. The interference phenomena are considered as results of stimuli and resistance that can be structural and non-structural. Then, it is essential to consider that there are factors that can favour or inhibit interference.

### *CHAPTER III*

## **S**panish and English Phonetic comparison

Weinreich (1953) sets that in order to evaluate interference, it is necessary to state all the similarities and differences between the languages in contact as a pre-requisite. The features in each language area are going to be compared according to the specific interference. That is to say, a comparison must be done depending on the field to be studied, for example grammar, lexical, phonology. Hence, a phonetic alphabet comparison is included.

To search out reliable conclusions, it is indispensable to include an analysis of the phonetic alphabet in whichever phonetic research in order to have a really understandable idea of features of each phoneme.

The distinctive features knowledge is essential to identify the interference categories described in chapter II. As an effect to achieve trustworthy results the similarities and differences between Spanish and English phonemes are stated in this specific study.

Comparison of phonemes of language 1 and their allophones with the phonemes of language 2 is a basis to explain phonetic interference.

Based on functionality, it can be said that the sounds in question belong to two different phonemes. In accordance with the standard convention whereby phonemes are represented using [ ], can be shown as [s] and [T].

**VOWELS**

Katamba (1989) illustrates that there are fourteen vowel sounds in English classified as follows:

		Front	Central	Back
<b>High</b>	Tense	i		u
	Lax	ɪ	ɨ	ʊ
<b>Mid</b>	Tense	e	ə	o
	Lax	ɛ	ʌ	
<b>Low</b>	Tense	æ	ɑ	ɔ
	Lax		a	

(Source: Katamba 12)

As it is well known the classification of vowels is in terms of the tongue position, the five vowels of Spanish can be presented schematically in the following way:

The distinctive quality of a vowel is determined by the shape of the mouth during articulation. This in turn is affected first and foremost by the position of the

tongue. Although the tip of the tongue will be down behind the lower front teeth for all Spanish vowel sounds, its front, centre or back will arch upwards towards the roof of the mouth. The key determinant is the relative position of the tongue's highest point, on both the vertical and horizontal axes. Thus, a vowel can be classed as a high, mid, or low vowel, on the one hand, and as a front, central or back vowel, on the other.

	Front	Back
High	i	u
Mid	e	o
Low	a	

( source: D'Introno 25 )

D'Introno (1995 ) explicates that [i] and [u] are produced with the tongue relatively high in the mouth, [e] and [o] have an intermediate tongue height, and [a] is articulated with a fairly flat tongue. Turning to the horizontal axis, it can be noticed that [i] and [e] are produced with the tongue arching forward, [a] is associated with an intermediate position, and [o] and [u] are produced with the tongue bunching backwards.

A vowel may also be specified in terms of whether the lips are rounded or unrounded during its articulation. It is necessary to notice that [o] and [u] are

articulated with rounded lips, while the other three vowels have unrounded lips. As it turns out, the lip-rounding feature is not critical to the classification of Spanish vowels, as each of the five vowel sounds can be distinguished from the others in terms simply its tongue height and its position on the horizontal axis.

According to the information above, differences and similarities between Spanish and English sounds can be presented as follows:

There are similarities in the vowel sounds in English as it can be noticed, the [i], [u], [e], [o], [a] sounds are equivalent in both languages.

The main difference is the number of vowel sounds, as it can be noticed clearly. In Spanish there are only five vowel sounds, on the contrary, there are 14 vowel sounds in English. This difference is due to two kinds of vowel sounds long and short in English. Conversely, there is no distinction between long and short vowels in Spanish, that is to say, all vowels have the same length as the English short vowels. Therefore, a Spanish speaker tends to pronounce the sounds he/she does not have in his/her inventory as he/she relates to 'similar' sounds. It is necessary to establish that there are differences in the way a speaker produces a foreign sound because a spokesperson tries to follow the first language rules when he/she pronounces.

It can be observed that [ɪ], [ʏ], [ʊ], [ə], [ɛ], [ʌ], [æ], [ɑ], [ɔ] sounds do not exist in Spanish. As a consequence they can be a problem for a Spanish speaker



and vice versa that is to say, a native English speaker tends to use his/her vowel diversity when it is not necessary.

The English language uses many vowel combinations what is called pairs. It would not be a problem if the vowels keep their own sound even when they are next to another vowel sound, nevertheless, the pronunciation changes. This change does not occur in Spanish where vowels remain their sounds even they are next to another vowel. As a result, there are some difficult sounds for a Spanish speaker as it demonstrated in the following:

The sounds [æ], [ʌ] and [ɑ:] are all confused most of the time; [ʌ] is used for all three. It is important to consider that where /r /occurs in the spelling, [ɑ:] is replaced by the vowel; the same occurs with the following sounds [ɒ], [əʊ], [ɔ:]. All of them are confused if there is no a [r] sound, nevertheless an intermediate sound which can be [ɒ] and [ɔ:] replace the sound.

Some times a vowel sound plus [r] sound replaces these sounds [ɪə, eə, ʊə] as well it happens with [ɜ:] sound.

A Spanish speaker is inclined to use [u:] for sounds [u:] and ʊ]. It is the same with [i:] and I] where A person uses [i:] more than [I].

Despite the fact that vowel sounds are the main problem for a Spanish speaker, it is important to note that some consonant sounds are sometimes difficult or confused. Before beginning with the difficulties, it is crucial to know the sounds which are similar. In order to identify the consonants correctly and in an easy way a table is presented below.

**Spanish Consonant Phonemes**

Manner of articulation			Point of Articulation				
			labial	dental	alveolar	palatal	velar
Obstruents	Voiceless	Non-fricatives	p	t		tʃ	k
		Fricatives	f	θ			x
	Voiced		b	d	s		g
Sonorants	Liquids	Laterals			l	ʎ	
		Vibrants	Tap			ʀ	
			Trill			r	
	Nasals		m		n	ɲ	

( source: D'Introno 16 )

As the Spanish phoneme inventory is presented above, it is necessary to explain some main features. Nevertheless, there is no need to supply all the phonetic details that are required in the description of its actual speech sounds. In Spanish, it is not necessary, for example, to distinguish between bilabial and labiodental places of articulation or between the palato-alveolar and the palatal

places of articulation; nor is there a need to specify whether a vowel is articulated with lip rounding or not.

English consonants are divided as follows:

Manner of Articulation		Point of Articulation						
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveo palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	Voiceless	p			t		k	
	Voiced	b			d		g	
Affricates	Voiceless							
	Voiced							
Fricatives	Voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
	Voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Nasals		m			n		ŋ	
Lateral					l			
Retroflex					r			
Semivowels Glide / voiced		w				j		

(Katamba 8)

In English, as well as in Spanish the subsequent sounds are equivalents [θ, ʃ, t, k, l, f, s, h, p, g, m, n, j, w, r]. The simplest example [s, z, v, b] are phonemes where an English speaker makes the difference when he/she pronounces each one of the previous sounds. It is necessary to underline that a Spanish speaker has a propensity to employ [s] for both sounds ([s, z]); it is the same when a

Spanish speaker has to pronounce [v or b], he/she always uses [b] for both sounds.

A Spanish speaker confuses [ð and d] sounds; sometimes ð is replaced by [d] (which is pronounced in a dental variety). Sometimes the reverse occurs, that means that /d/ must be a complete alveolar stop in all positions, and [ð] a dental friction sound is produced.

A Spanish speaker confuses [dʒ and tʃ] sounds and [tʃ] is used for both sounds.

The [ŋ] does not occur in an independent form in Spanish and [n or ŋ] replace that sound.

An important difference is that in English [p, t, k] are aspirated.

Concerning the Spanish [r] a tongue-tip roll or tap is used

The previous information is going to be useful in order to search out reliable results. It is fundamental for this research work to have a clear idea about the differences and equivalences between the two languages.

# M

## ethodology

First this work was based on the previous knowledge summarized in chapters one, and second information to be analyzed was obtained from some tape recordings made in Corozal as it is explained below:

### THE SETTING OF THE STUDY

Even though, chapter one is about Belize, at this point, it may be useful to recapitulate and extend to some specific features about the setting.

The research work was completed in Corozal, a town located in Belize. This town is, in fact, close to the border with Mexico. According to the 2000 census, its population is estimated at approximately 33,335 people in the whole district. In the town of Corozal the number of inhabitants is estimated to be 7,900 inhabitants.

The economy is based on the growing of sugar and processing industry as well as free zone trading. Many people are employed there or have stores.

This district is ruled by a local government which is made up of seven members who depend on the national government and the laws are approved by the House of the Representatives.

Corozal has a special language situation due to the fact it is near Mexico. Many people moved there during "la Guerra de castas" and others because they married to a Belizean. As a result, the city situation provides many factors that allow interference as a possible phenomenon to find. Some specific features concerning interference can be found in Corozal such as multilingualism. As it is known, people speak Spanish or/and English, and some people speak Chinese and Thai. It is important to consider that Garifona and Creole are also spoken. As it has been established, when more than two languages are exposed to each other the influence is inevitable. Corozal has this specific situation and the different social levels and ages, make it a suitable place to research many linguistic phenomena.

#### THE SUBJECTS:

In chapter two there are several aspects concerning bilingualism and the bilingual person. It is indispensable to give information with reference to the specific characteristics of the people whose speaking is analyzed in this work. As it was explained before, Weinreich (1953) suggests studying the bilingual person before studying the phenomena. It is important to pay special attention to chapter one, which provides specific information in relation to people living in the studying set.



As mentioned above according to the 2000 census, the population in Corozal is estimated in 7,900. Therefore, it would be impossible to have a recording from all of them because of the time, money and environmental circumstances as well as the amount of information obtained will be intricate to manage. As Milroy (1984) suggests, to analyze a sample with specific features representativeness is needed for this category of a sample research, which encloses the representative percentage of the whole population.

Taking Weinreich's (1953) suggestion regarding the unique procedure to study interference is by describing it and tabulating its frequency. Therefore the subjects to be studied were chosen according three variables. At this point, it is crucial to clarify that the sample analyzed was smaller than the sample acquired for this work.

The sample to be analyzed was chosen according to people's age, gender and educational level. The selection was done in that way because it is a reliable form to get useful samples and give unfailing conclusions.

People selected are bilingual, they speak Spanish and English.

The variables in which the subjects were chosen are the following:

A) Educational level. People are divided according to the schooling as follows:

Low alludes to people who are from illiterate to graduates of elementary school.

Mid mentions people who finished high school studies.

High refers to people who finished any kind of studies after high school that means technical or a college career.

B) Gender. There is a division among the genders due to differences in using a language can be found between men and women.

C) It is necessary to consider age as a variable because there are some differences in using the language between young people or old people. It is known that most of the time, young people make changes when they use the language, meanwhile old people usually refuse using new words or language forms. It is also required to emphasize that people at 18 have a standard use of the language because they have acquired the grammar rules in addition to enough vocabulary and therefore they have acquired the correct manner to pronounce a word. Therefore, the age variable is divided into three as the other. I refers to young people from 18 to 30. II alludes people from 31 to 50 years old. III indicates people older than 50 years old.

In order to clarify the manner in which the selection was done it is indispensable to study the chart below:

Educational level	Gender		group by age
	Male/	female	
Low	1	10	I
	2	11	II
	3	12	III
Mid	4	13	I
	5	14	II
	6	15	III
High	7	16	I
	8	17	II
	9	18	III

According to the chart, number one refers to a young man, (he is not younger than 18 or older than 30 years of age, whose highest schooling level could be no more than elementary. Number 14 alludes an adult woman (she is not younger than 31, but also she is not older than 50) and she has finished high school. Finally, it can be noticed that number 9 mentions an old man who has a technical or college career.

Afterwards, it is clear why the 18- people sample is considered suitable for this research. In order to have a clear idea on the subject of the number of the samples, it is necessary to consider the three variables of gender, age and education. Gender is divided into: male and female. Age is divided into three levels and education into three levels. Therefore, nine samples were taken from men and nine from women, 6 samples obtained from young people with different educational levels as well as middle aged and elderly people. In conclusion, the samples were

selected according to those overall variables to have a sample from both genders by means of different age, gender, and educational level.

At this point, it is necessary to emphasize that sometimes it was not easy to find people with specific variables. As a consequence, it was required to interview more people in order to find the needed person for this study.

## THE INSTRUMENTS

Poplack (1979) points out that the unique way to study bilingual people is by getting their speech tape recorded. In this specific work the instruments used were:

- Tape recordings based on semi-structured interviews. (See Appendix C) It is needed to point out that Spanish was the language used in the interviews because of the hypothesis explained in the introduction. At this point it is necessary to explain in a clear way that most of the time people are nervous when they have to speak in front of a tape recorder. This is why they were told that the purpose of the interview was to have a better idea with reference to the life in Corozal. Therefore, customs, schooling system, government, and leisure activities were some of the topics drawn on. (See Appendix D) They were not told that the real purpose was to have a recording of their speech because maybe their speech would not be as real as they normally would use in daily life. As a result of informing the participants in the study of the information being collected, the conclusions

would be false. The interviews lasted from approximately 15 to 20 minutes. Auspiciously, most of the people interviewed spoke more than 15 minutes. It is important to consider that people were restless, and consequently, the first five minutes of each interview were left out of the interviews. (See Appendix E)

- Another instrument was the Individual Informant File. It was very useful to obtain valuable information with reference to the informant, as well as it was a perfect way to classify the informants. (see Appendix d)

## DATA ANALYSIS

The preceding chapters and the objective of the entire work have their fulfilment in this part due to all the information obtained. As a result, previous information is used to analyze the data achieved.

It was necessary to have more than 18 interviews with the intention of selecting the informants according to variables. Therefore, 22 interviews were done intending to obtain the total number required as a minimum to establish reliable results. Three hundred and ninety minutes were recorded during the interviews. Finally, 234 minutes were analyzed after selecting them using the criterion mentioned previously. It is indispensable to emphasize that the first five minutes of each interview were left out for reasons previously mentioned.

*Chapter IV*

**R***esults and discussion*

The results are presented in different manners, in the course of graphs and lists of the main words with interference as well as discussion of significant information.

It is important to underline that a total quantity of 17,496 words were obtained to acquire this information. Words in minutes six and seven in each conversation were counted, and an estimate was done to have a general idea regarding the total amount of the linguistic corpus. As expected, each informant had a different fluency, and as a consequence the number of words per person varied.

In the course of the informants' linguistic corpus analysis, the subsequent information was deduced:

As is elucidated in chapter two, actual phoneme substitution is when phonemes are identically identified in two languages, although they are pronounced in a different manner. This type of Interference was found mainly in the [r], [ɲ] (ñ) and [ʎ] (ll) sounds as it could be verified on the word lists, as well as on the graphs. As a result, the information and the words transcription are presented according to the sounds mentioned before.



[r]

It is in fact crucial to emphasize that the difference between Spanish [r] and English [ɹ] is the manner of pronouncing it. Even though both are alveolar the English sound is pronounced turning the tip of the tongue up and slightly back, as it uncurls it forms a sound that does not occur in Spanish. The Spanish sound is pronounced using the single flat of the tongue against the roof of the mouth. The difference is found in the mode in which the tongue is placed when the sound is articulated. That is to say [r] is a retroflex consonant and the correct symbol is [ɽ] is used to highlight the different pronunciation.

It is necessary to establish that the list below belongs to the most significant interference examples. Words with different spelling are presented in the chart below in order to give an adequate amount of cases to set evidently the phoneme substitution.

English Word	Informant pronunciation	Spanish pronunciation	Spanish Word
To change	[kambiə <sup>1</sup> ɾ]	[cambiár]	Cambiar
Evening	[təɾde]	[tárde]	Tarde
Government	[gobiəɾno]	[gobiérno]	Gobierno
Rita	[ríta]	[ríta]	Rita
To give	[dəɾ]	[dár]	Dar
Fourteen	[katəɾse]	[katórse]	Catorce
Behaves	[pəɾta]	[pórta]	Porta
To donate	[donəɾ]	[donár]	Donar
Fourth	[kuárta]	[kuárta]	Cuarta
To reveal	[rəbélan]	[rebélan]	Revelan
To Graduate	[graduár]	[graduár]	Graduas
Palmar	[palmár]	[palmár]	Palmar
Part	[pəɾte]	[párte]	Parte
To rest	[deskansəɾ]	[deskansár]	Descansar
Tuesday	[məɾtes]	[mártes]	Martes
Corozal	[koɾosál]	[korosál]	Corozal
Do it	[asəɾlo]	[asérlo/]	Hacerlo
Another	[otɾə]	[ótra]	Otra
To ask	[prəgúnta <sup>o</sup> ]	[preguntár]	Preguntar
Person	[peɾsóna]	[persóna]	Persona
Control	[kontɾóla]	[kontrola]	controla
Send	[mandəɾ]	[mandár]	Mandar
Cover them	[kubiəɾtos]	[kubiértos]	Cubiertos
record	[rədʒístro]	[rexístro]	registro

<sup>1</sup> To pronounce this sound the tip of the tongue turns up and slightly back as in *first* and *bigger*.

As it can be observed, speakers are predisposed to pronounce [ə] after [r] more than when the [r] is before the vowel. This sound is taken from English pronunciation, as it is known [ə] does not exist in Spanish.

Words like [təɾde], [gobiəɾno] (evening and government) are considered as borrowings due to that the monolingual showed interference, but because of their use they are considered as borrowings.

## [R] rr

In Spanish, the difference between [r] and [R] is the manner in which they vibrate (verify on chart on pages 58-59). The same interference as [r] occurs whilst English speakers have to say a word that includes the [R] sound. There are some examples of the interference in –rr words listed below:

English Word	Informant pronunciation	Spanish Pronunciation	Spanish Word
Close	[seɾamos]	[seRámos]	Cerramos
hill	[seɾos]	[séRos]	Cerros
Closed	[seɾó]	[seRó]	Cerró
Hold	[agaɾamos]	[agaRámos]	Agarramos
above	[aɾíba]	[aRíba]	Arriba
car	[káɾo]	[káRo]	Carro

## [ʎ] (II)

As it was stated at the beginning, the interference in the [ʎ] sound (II) was also detected as it is demonstrated in the chart below:

English Word	Informant pronunciation	Spanish pronunciation	Spanish Word
They	[éjos]	[/éʎos]	ellos
She	[éja]	[éʎa]	Ella
To Help	[ajudár]	[aʎudár]	Ayudar
There	[ajá]	[aʎá]	Allá
Most	[majoría]	[maʎoría]	mayoría
We will go	[baiámos]	[baʎámos]	vayamos
I help	[ajúdo]	[aʎúdo]	Ayudo
biscuit	[gajéta]	[gaʎéta]	galleta
Horses	[kabájos]	[kaʎáʎos]	caballos
Deceased	[fajesída]	[faʎesída]	Fallecida
Tortillas	[tortías]	[tortíʎas]	tortillas

The [ʎ] sound does not exist in the English consonant inventory. This sound is several times substituted by [j] sound. The sound can be indicated as [j] as in [jes] (yes). Sometimes [j] is used when the sound is an open sound. Upon this point, it is relevant to emphasize that the y's sound in English is not regarded as a consonant. It is considered a semivowel.

It is significant to denote that when a speaker has to articulate a sound, which does not exist in his/her language inventory the probability to produce interference is increased. That is why the percentage of interference in –ll- words is larger than in [r]. It connotes that all the –ll- words were pronounced as [j] not like [ʎ] as it is in Spanish.



## [ɲ] (ñ)

Interference is unavoidable when a phoneme has no equivalent in the second language. The speaker endeavors to articulate the phoneme by identifying it with one of his/her language. This is the case of [ʎ] and [ɲ]. English speakers do not have the [ɲ] sound in their inventory, and that is why they demonstrate interference when they have to pronounce it. As it is illustrated in the chart, informants use [n] + [i] to say words they should articulate as [ɲ].

English Word	Informant pronunciation	Spanish Pronunciation	Spanish word
Years	[ánios]	[áɲos]	Años
Year	[ánio]	[áɲo]	Año
Chile	[nínio]	[níɲo]	Niño
Damages	[dánios]	[dáɲos]	Daños
Belizean	[belisénios]	[beliséɲos]	Beliceños

It is indispensable to accentuate that all the –ñ- words were pronounced with interference the same as occurs with –ll-. Even though the words are not several it is important to point that all of them were pronounced in an erroneous manner.

This interference takes place when people whose first language is Mayan learn Spanish as a second language. In some parts of Yucatan, Mexico, even people who do not speak Mayan have the same pronunciation. This phenomenon is named “despalatalización” in Spanish. The name is due to people apparently

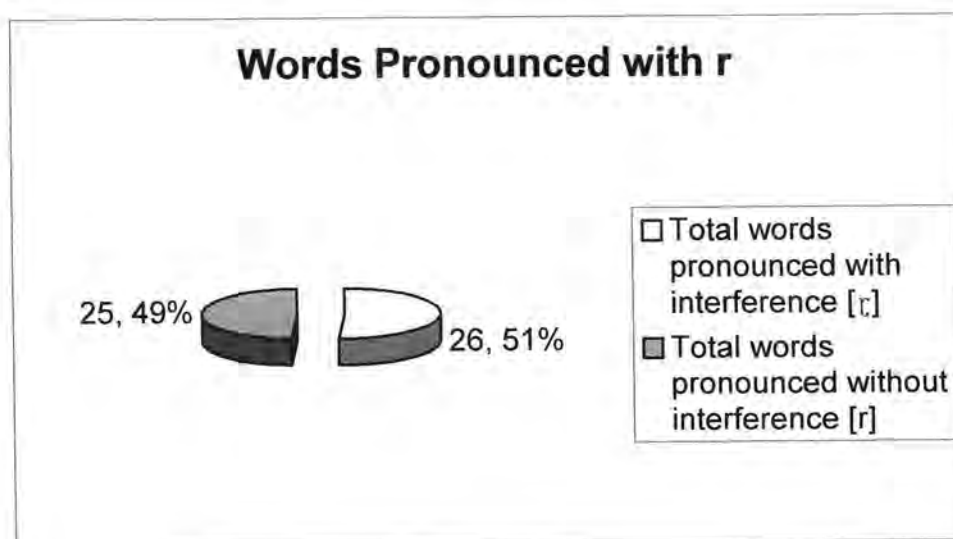
taking out the  $\tilde{}$ , so instead of saying  $\tilde{n}$  [ɲ] they say [n] which looks like the first one. Nevertheless, they are different phonemes.

The following information presents the results with the use of graphs intending to exemplify the more relevant interviews as well as a comparison in accordance with the three variables.

Informant 11 is a 49 year old woman whose first language is Spanish. She finished elementary school studies. According to the information achieved from her, it is possible to infer that even though her first language is Spanish, she was the woman with the foremost evidence of interference as it is illustrated in chart 5.1.

### *Informant 11*

Graph 5.1



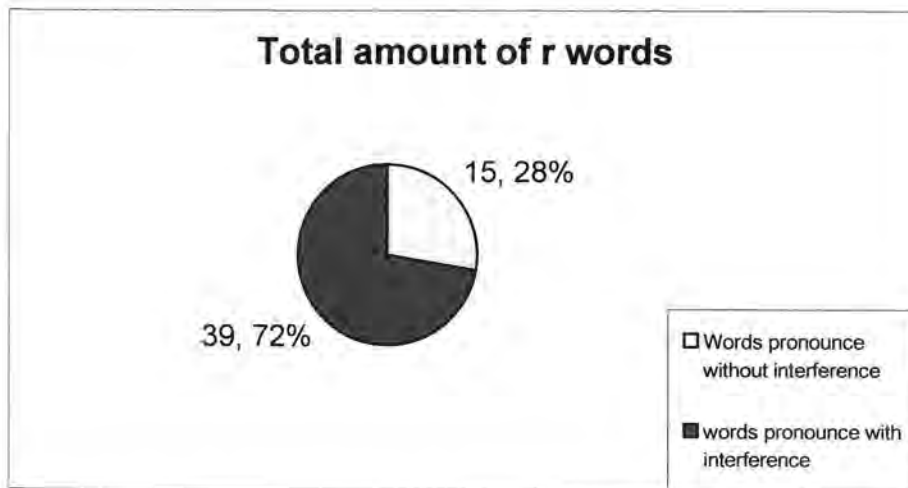
As it can be observed, in the graph, this informant said 51 words using –r and she articulated 26 with interference because she used [ɾ] instead of using [r].



The difference in pronunciation was explained before. It is important to lay emphasis on the fact that she was the unique informant that presented interference with the [l] sound. The words used were: [tal] [mal].

### *Informant 2*

Graph 5.2



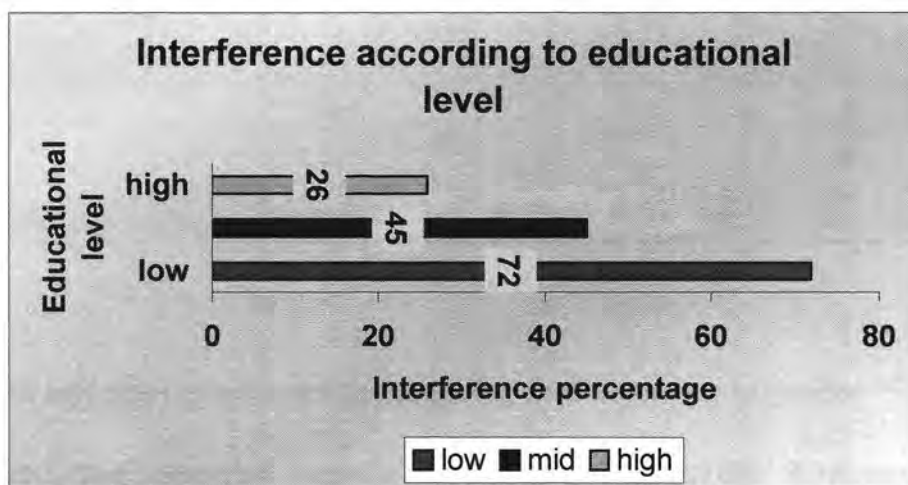
Graph 5.2 belongs to informant two who is a 39 year old man with a low educational level. As it can be inferred from the graph, he presented a 72 percent of interference. The reason is that his first language is English and he speaks English most of the time.

Because of the analysis it can be concluded the following based on the graphs. At this point, it may be necessary to look at chart on page 65, with the intention of having a clear idea of reference to the speakers' specific features.

Interference is a phenomenon that occurs with much more frequency in people with a lower educational level as it is illustrated in graph 5.3. The reason for

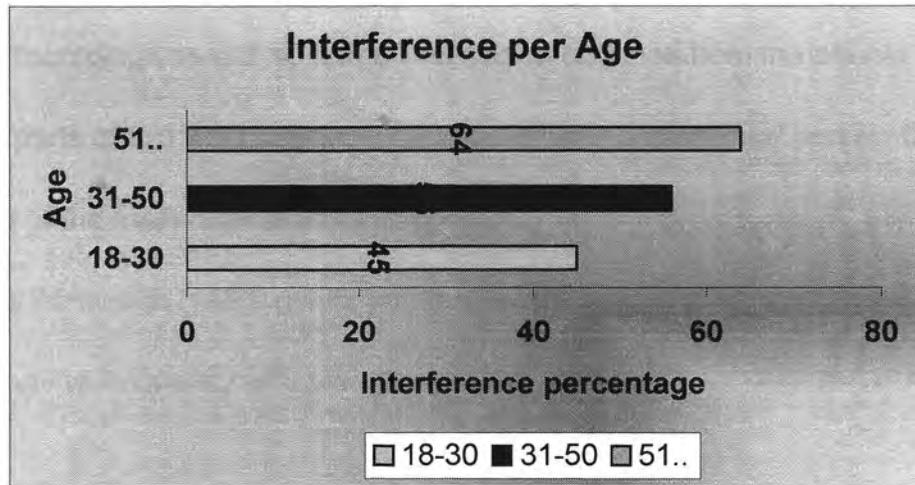
this situation may be that they learn Spanish in an informal situation and they have common usage as a rule.

Graph 5.3



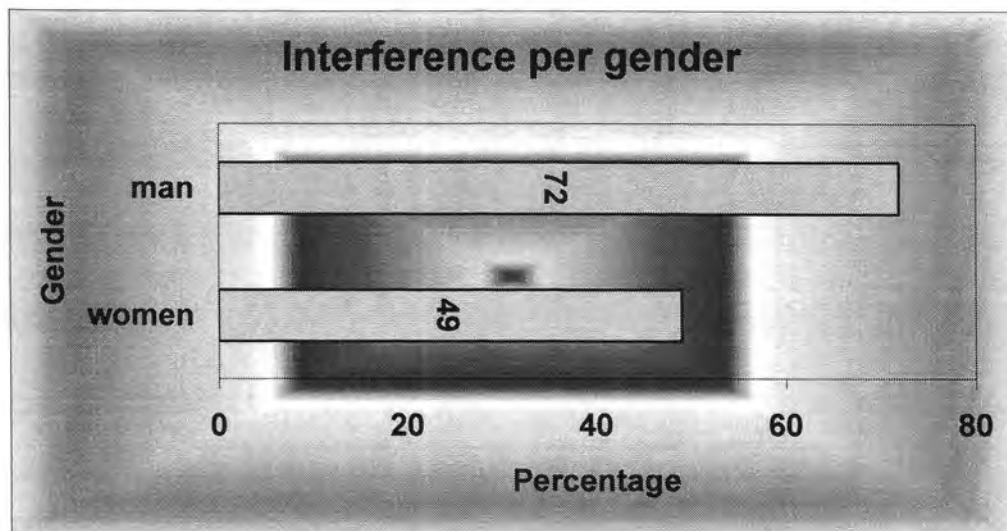
Graph 5.4 points up interference comparison among the different ages. As it can be deduced from the chart, interference is more frequent in people older than 51 years of age. It is actually remarkable to highlight the fact that young people have less interference, and the reason for this is not only because of the statistics but also because young people have more Spanish influence and the English contact they have had is through more schooling. Therefore, people older than 51 had and still have more English contact because most of their parents were native English speakers.

Graph 5.4



The last chart is evidence for deducing that according to gender comparison, men presented more interference than women did. A remarkable detail with reference to this variable is the fact that three male speakers pronounced the word *afuera* as [αluera] instead of the Spanish pronunciation [afuera]. No women pronounced this word as the men respondents did.

Graph 5.5



The data analysis was done according to all the information achieved from the tape recordings as well as some information obtained from the people and the different parts of this work. Statistical analyses were an essential part for the fulfilment of the main objective of this chapter.

As Weinreich (1953) points out, the unique way to study interference is by measuring the frequency as it was done in this research.

## CONCLUSIONS

As it was alleged at the beginning of this work and with special emphasis in chapter three, Belize is a young nation with a really enormous linguistic field to be studied. Its history is full of interesting events; therefore, its culture is an extraordinary field to be studied. Each town represents the opportunity to do a research in different fields and Corozal is not the exception.

This work was actually an astonishing opportunity to discover the richness that the country has. When this research was planned, there was an idea about the kind of experience it would be, nevertheless, the expectation was surpassed at doing it. Working with foreign people was in fact an interesting experience not only because of the manner in which people agreed to be interviewed, but also because of the knowledge obtained from them.

The information revealed in the informant file was interesting. It is interesting to note that a simple piece of paper could help to achieve useful information. It is an essential tool when doing this type of research work. The idea with reference to English was the first language for most people mentioned in the project was rejected. It was one remarkable point demonstrated from the individual files and their information. That is to say, Spanish is the first language for most people in

Corozal. It is also important to underline that even though the official language is English, the primary language is not always the native one.

An important point to consider when doing this type of research is that language is in a continuous change, therefore, the social situation and the culture is also changing. People from different nationalities are moving to Belize and Corozal. This is why checking census data is important to achieve reliable results.

Doing this type of research, it was evidently inferred that the most suitable and trustworthy method to study interference is by measuring it. Nevertheless, it is necessary to use an effective methodology, otherwise the data obtained could be unfeasible to manage. As a result, it is crucial to underline that one practical and reliable manner to achieve real results is by recording speakers.

A useful consideration for future phonetic researches is to discuss songs written by community to be studied.

Finally, it can be stated that the results based on the data analysis allow accepting the hypothesis that guided this research: English native speakers in Corozal identify at least one phoneme of their second language (Corozal's Spanish) as one of their mother tongue (Belizean English). People are evidence for interference when they use words with r, ll, ñ, rr. According to the Speakers' speech features it can be established that they presented actual phone substitution. This is the forth



type of phonetic interference occurs when a bilingual pronouns phonemes that are identically defined in two languages, but in fact they have a different pronunciation.

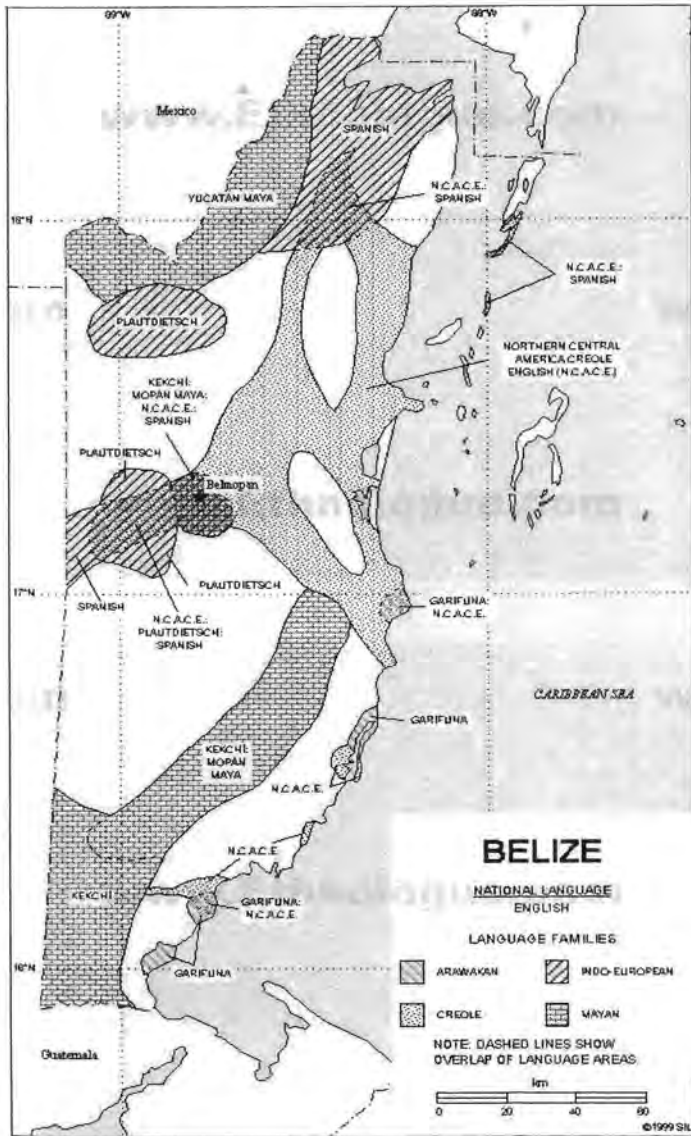
And this is the case of the phonemes mentioned before.

## APPENDIX A



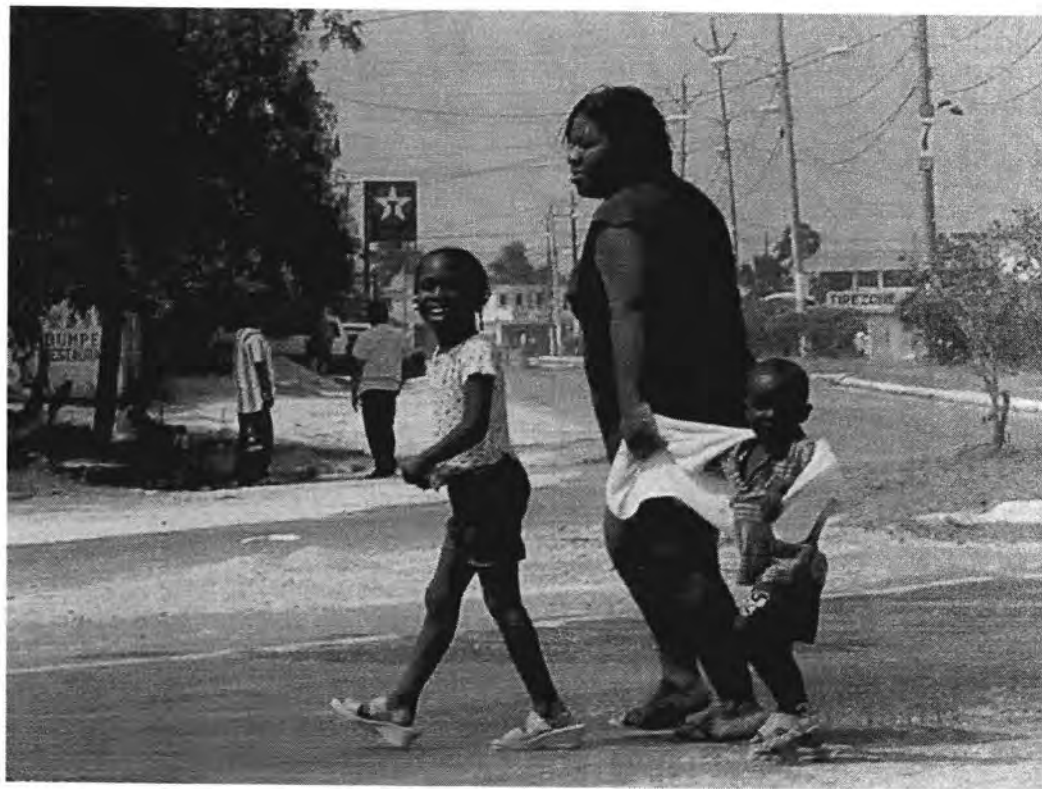
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# APPENDIX B



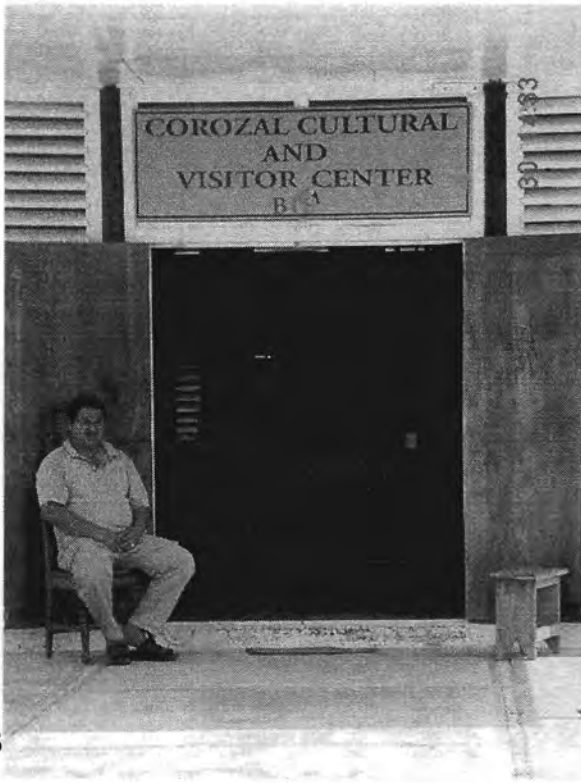
source: [http://www.ethnologue.com/show\\_country.asp?name=Belize](http://www.ethnologue.com/show_country.asp?name=Belize)

<sup>2</sup>APPENDIX C



<sup>2</sup> Photo 1: Corozal .

Photo 2 : A family in Corozal



3



<sup>3</sup> Cultural Center and Town Hall.



4



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<sup>4</sup> Religion has an important part in Belizean education.



5



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<sup>5</sup> Social Security office.

## APPENDIX D

¿Cuál es su ocupación?

¿Puede describir en que consiste su trabajo?

¿Cuáles son los principales Fuentes de empleo?

¿Cuáles son las actividades que realiza la gente en sus días de descanso?

¿Quién es el responsable de la educación?

¿Cuáles son las opciones de estudio que tienen los jóvenes?

¿Cuáles son los principales sitios arqueológicos?

¿De qué manera ha beneficiado a la zona libre?

¿Qué tipo de servicio médico tienen?

## APPENDIX E

Transcript (minute 6)

### INFORMANT 4

...todos los empleados de la zona están [kubiəɾtos] también abajo del seguro social, como los Mexicanos que tienen servicio de trabajo están [kubiəɾtos] abajo del seguro social, una vez que tienen permiso de trabajo están [kubiəɾtos] y el patrón tiene que pagar por [éios]

*¿Qué tipo de diversiones tienen aquí en Corozal?*

[dibəɾsión] no hay mucha, nuestra dibəɾsión es ir a Chetumal a [nadaɾ]

No, no hay mucho, hay un salón de baile. No, no hay un disco como el de Chetumal ta más chico, recientemente el casino [aiá] se va la gente verdad pero [maioria] Chetumal. Pero acá en Corozal es más fácil ir a Chetumal

### INFORMANT 7

... si tenemos todo eso cuando ya cumplimos un [anio] tenemos dos semanas de vacaciones con pago y para la navidad tenemos aguinaldo.

*¿Cuánto tiempo tiene trabajando para la empresa?*

Más de un [anio]

*¿La empresa tiene transporte?*

Como hoy entré a las diez tengo que buscar pasaje para [regresa°]

*¿Hay transporte en la noche?*

Si hay gente que va a Chetumal a [kompra°] esta de [regreso]

### INFORMANT 11

... muchos [aiúdo] a em.. empacar libros [aiúdo] a atender a los [ninios] cuando vienen a [kambiáɾ] sus libros yo los atiendo también hago la limpieza de todo hago acá.

*¿Cuántas personas trabajan aquí?*

Aquí tres personas la jefa pues ahorita esta de vacaciones tres semanas [agaRó] y su asistente él entra hasta las tres de la [tárde] y sale hasta las siete u ocho de la noche

En la biblioteca desde las nueve se abre hasta las siete ocho de la noche.

No el [gobiəɾno], su pago de la muchacha es del [gobiəɾno]

No soy voluntariamente namas la muchacha

APPENDIX F

INDIVIDUAL INFORMANT FILE

Interview number: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Origin: \_\_\_\_\_