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Spanglish Literature: Acceptance of Written
Code-switching among UVa Students

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ABSTRACT

In spite of the controversy regarding its grammaticality and acceptance in literature, code-switching is a widespread phenomenon that consists in the alternation of languages. The context generated at the English Studies degree (University of Valladolid), causes an interaction between English and Spanish that allows for the occurrence of Spanglish. This study aims at proving the hypothesis that people with a high level of language proficiency is inclined to consider the use of Spanglish as grammatical and acceptable. To this end, English Studies-enrolled undergraduates have performed a test that included fragments of Chicano literature written in Spanglish (Susana Chávez-Silverman's *Killer Crónicas: Bilingual Memories*), whose results, concerning its grammaticality and literariness, confirm the initial hypothesis.

Keywords: acceptance, Chicano literature, code-switching, grammaticality, language proficiency, Spanglish.

A pesar de la controversia en torno a su gramaticalidad y aceptación en la literatura, la alternancia de código es un fenómeno extendido que consiste en la combinación de las lenguas. El contexto que crea el Grado de Estudios Ingleses (Universidad de Valladolid), genera una interacción entre el inglés y el español que favorece la aparición del spanglish. Este trabajo busca probar la hipótesis de que las personas con un alto dominio del idioma son propensas a considerar gramatical y acceptable el uso del spanglish. Para ello, los alumnos de dicho grado han realizado un test con fragmentos de literatura chicana escrita en spanglish (del libro *Killer Crónicas: Bilingual Memories* de Susana Chávez-Silverman), cuyos resultados, respecto a su gramaticalidad y literariedad, confirman la hipótesis inicial.

Palabras clave: aceptación, alternancia de código, dominio del idioma, gramaticalidad, literatura chicana, spanglish.

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1. Introduction

Attempts have been made in order to formulate the grammatical rules that govern the phenomenon of code-switching -the alternation of several languages within the same communicative event. Nonetheless, interaction among speakers and between languages seems to be crucial for its occurrence (Toribio 2002, MacSwan 2014). Whereas this correlation takes place in the US, where code-switching between English and Spanish generates the so-called *Spanglish*, it does not take place in Spain, a country in which alternation does not occur, and so, code-switching is not produced. As a result of this lack of habitude, the use of Spanglish seems to involve bad connotations that keep users from adopting or even acknowledging this medium of communication both in the US and in Spain. Sharing Montes-Alcalá's (2000) hypothesis that "codeswitching has typically been socially unacceptable in speech," (219) its use in written form is presupposed to be even more disapproved of; thus, a survey has been created in order to analyze the acceptance of literary Spanglish within a community whose level of linguistic proficiency might allow for these shifts to happen: that of the University of Valladolid undergraduates of English Studies. The test consists of fragments belonging to a broader literary work from the Chicano author Susana Chávez-Silverman.

Accordingly, the hypothesis of this study is that, whereas Spanish-native 1st year students with a basic acquaintance of linguistics might label code-switching as ungrammatical, Spanish-native 4th year students, already familiarized with it, would find this practice acceptable and more than that: grammatical. The other hypothesis of the study is that with the increase of the acceptance of the fragments containing code-switching, there would also be an increase in the number of undergraduates that regard them as phenomena apt for literature. Moreover, the fragments include different types of code-switching –among sentences, within sentences, and within adjective phrases, referred to as inter-sentential, intra-sentential and ADJ-phrase code-switching- in order to check if the level of acceptance and/or literariness is inclined towards one of them. Consequently, the object of this study is aimed at proving that users' high degree of competence in both English and Spanish together with an environment that allows for the alternation between those languages is what causes people to regard code-switching as a grammatical practice that is apt for literature, due to the fact that the impact that

these factors combined has is more profound than that of a monolingual society such as the Spanish.

This paper is divided into six sections starting with this one, which is the introductory part. Throughout the study, previous analysis and research conducted on the code-switching phenomenon in general terms are examined so as to provide a thorough definition. Focusing on Spanglish (code-switching between English and Spanish), the section called ‘code-switching’ provides an analysis of what it consists of. Once the theoretical aspects are described, the different responses that society has towards code-switching, and its irruption into the literary world are also described within this second section, which comprises both the theoretical framework and the state of the art. The next section deals with the role that Spanglish has both in America - because of being the place where it was originated- and in Spain -because of being the country this study refers to. A depiction of the creative process of the test, the procedure, and the participants follow in sections 4, with the obtained results revealed in section 5. Finally, a comparison between the resulting data and the initial hypotheses is provided in the last section, which includes some conclusions and ideas for further research.

2. Code-switching

Code-switching is a widespread practice within bilingual communities (Fernández-Ulloa 2004, Riehl 2005) that consists of “the alternating use of Spanish and English in the same conversational event.” (Toribio 2002, 89) Thus, when a speaker effortlessly shifts from one language to another, he/she is said to have the bilingual ability to code-switch. (Draemel 2011) Withal, there is a general misconception with regards to the terms “code-switching” and “code-mixing”. While these terms are sometimes considered as being the same, code-mixing for Price (2010) is “the convergence of two languages that integrate into each other’s grammar characterized by borrowings[,]” (26) instead of an alternation of their usage. Moreover, “code-mixing” is also used when referring to the psycholinguistically conditioned alternation of code, which Riehl (2005) defines as the language alternation that emerges by “the specific conditions of language production.” (1945)

As noted by Poplack (1980), code-switching was first described as a “random” process in which two languages were alternated. (581). Attempts have been made, however, to find linguistic or functional mechanisms responsible for the regulation of the code-switching phenomenon. In this framework, researchers can be differentiated according to their approach to code-switching into the two following types: those who introduced categorical constraints on the one hand -such as Timm (1975), restricting code-switching with regards to verbs and auxiliary verbs-; and, on the other hand, those who offered more versatile standards -as was the case of Poplack (1978). Focusing on the latter type of researchers, within her study, Poplack (1978) generates two constraints: *the free morpheme constraint* (language shifts can result after any constituent except for bound morphemes) and *the equivalence constraint* (switches will occur so long as the syntactic rules of both languages will remain complied with).

Still, these efforts to catalogue the rules behind the formation of sentences containing code-switching were sometimes rendered unfitting. For instance, in the case of the equivalence constraint, counterexamples have surfaced; as MacSwan (2014) indicates, several empirical tests proved Poplack’s (1978) affirmations not to be binding. In his study, MacSwan (2014, 7) even provides the following example:

The students *habían visto la película italiana*.

‘The students had seen the Italian movie.’

*The students had *visto la película italiana*.

‘The students had seen the Italian movie.’

In these sentences, the same word order is followed both in the Spanish and the English grammars, thus complying with the demands of the equivalence constraint. Nonetheless, while the first sentence remains valid, the second one is considered to be ill-formed as there is a switch between the auxiliary and the verb, although both utterances would have resulted if her constraint was followed. Within the same group of researchers who suggest flexible standards is Woolford (1983) and the study that he carried out, in which the researcher stated that phrase structures shared by both languages would not be bound by constraints, but that those which were characteristic of one of the involved languages could only be filled with words belonging to it. Hence,

taking the adjective phrase structure into account, a phrase that does not consist of the same elements in the English and Spanish grammars, this hypothesis asserts that only examples such as “the beautiful house” or “*la casa bonita*” would result. However, formations such as “*la* beautiful house” are actually created, hence rendering the hypothesis that Woolford (1983) proposes ineffective.

Moreover, researchers, through their different studies, have developed various ways in order to categorize instances of code-switching; in this study, the one proposed by Lipsky (1985) and that by Poplack (1980) will be discussed. It should be taken into account that although some terms might be shared between these two researchers, they do not denote equal instances of code-switching. On the one hand, Lipsky (1985) establishes three categories, namely type I, II, and III code-shifts. Whereas the first category collects those cases in which L2 nouns are inserted into the L1 discourse; the second one refers to instances of inter-sentential code-switching, i.e. “code-switching that takes place at sentence boundaries.” (Draemel 2011, 8) Finally, type III denotes intra-sentential code-switching, which occurs “in the middle of an independent clause.” (Draemel 2011, 8) On the other hand, Poplack (1980) refers to intra-sentential code-switching when addressing fragments that “must conform to the underlying syntactic rules of two languages which bridge constituents and link them together grammatically.” (589) The author denotes another category as well, the one called extra-sentential code-switching that is “often heavily loaded in ethnic content[;]” (Poplack 1980, 589) this type includes tags and idiomatic expressions among others.

All in all, there is not a definite set of categories in which code-switching is divided, as researchers do not reach an official agreement. Yet, within this study, code-switching is regarded as a grammatical practice as long as it follows the constraints proposed by Poplack (1978), except for the ADJ-phrases, which have proved to be flexible. Furthermore, from now on, for the classification of the instances of code-switching, I will refer to inter-sentential and intra-sentential code-switching, using the notions stated by Lipsky (1985) and following the nomenclature of Draemel (2011).

Still, although code-switching is object of some kind of linguistic and functional regulations yet to be properly designated, it is also predetermined by several independent and interdependent aspects. Hence, Poplack (1980), stating that whereas

“functional factors are the strongest constraints on the occurrence of code-switching, it is clear that linguistic factors also play a role”, (585) also considered extra linguistic factors to be determining in code-switching -sex, age of second language acquisition, education, or social network membership among others. While some factors proved not to be decisive, others were significant at the 0.001 level (as was the case of reported and observed bilingual ability or ethnic identity). Besides, MacSwan (2014) describes code-switching as “the alternate use of two or more languages among bilingual interlocutors[;]” (1) thus, adding to the hypothesis that a speaker needs practice to fluently code-switch. Furthermore, Toribio (2002) states that this phenomenon “requires social knowledge that is culturally specific and acquired only through contextualized practice.” (103) Habitude being needed for a user to manage his/her code-switching aptitudes (Toribio 2002), a fluent speaker in both English and Spanish with no practice whatsoever in code-switching conversations might not have the skills to produce well-formed sentences that include language alternation. In the same sense, Price (2010), quoting Poplack (1988) asserts that “code-switching is a phenomenon of language contact[.]” (25) and remarks the idea that communities are crucial for the outbreak of code-switching, a thought shared by Toribio (2002) and also present in this study, aimed at proving that a suitable context -that is, one in which Spanish and English are alternated with habitude- is needed for the occurrence of code-switching.

When it comes to bilingual ability -a controversial factor within code-switching studies-, the degree of proficiency of the person applying code-switching into his/her speech has been widely discussed by researchers. For instance, Poplack (1980) asserts that this practice “indicate[s] a large degree of competence in both languages.” (588) She also notes that code-switching is required in certain bilingual communities and that its accomplishment “requires considerably more linguistic competence in two languages than has heretofore been noted.” (588) Nonetheless, traditionally, language shifts implied negative connotations, as Montes-Alcalá (2000) asserts by stating that “[c]odeswitching is often attributed to illiteracy, lack of formal education, or lack of proficiency in one or both languages.” (218) However, Poplack (1980), in noting that “the balanced bilingual has the option of integrating his utterance into the patterns of the other language or preserving its original shape,” (583) states that code-switching is, in fact, a matter of personal selection when being fluent in both languages. According to

her, then, by interchanging elements from both language systems, the individual vindicates his/her expertise on the English and Spanish grammars. (Poplack, 1980) This notion of personal choice regarding the use of code-switching is shared by Riehl (2005), who states that when users are confronted with triggering effects that would ease language transitions “it is up to the speaker whether he/she decides to continue the utterance in that language or to switch back to the base-language again.” (1946) In the same sense, Poplack (1980) talks about “speakers of varying bilingual abilities” (583) according to the integration of L2 segments or words into the base language. Hence, she designates a connection between the skills of the user and his/her performance while code-switching.

The controversy created by these opposite views towards language alternation has a direct impact in the way that users communicate, as they might or might not code-switch due to the cultural beliefs on the phenomenon. Thus, speakers’ behavior towards code-switching is determined by the society they are immersed in, as Toribio (2002) and Poplack (1980) demonstrate. The former studied “the language attitudes and linguistic behaviors of four speakers” (90) and concluded that code-switching was dependent on the “differing attitudes toward code alternation and its role in establishing their social identity.” (Toribio 2002, 115) On the other hand, the latter found that the reported and actual bilingual ability, as well as the feelings towards their identity, proved to be decisive in the performance of the participants of her study. (Poplack 1980) Moreover, Poplack (1980) argued that “code-switching behavior may be used to measure bilingual ability.” (615) Adding to this idea, Draemel (2011) also asserted that “code-switching involves amazingly complex cognitive skills and abilities[,]” (52) an assumption that goes in unison to that which this study defends: that code-switching is a phenomenon that requires a great amount of linguistic knowledge in the alternated languages.

Attitudes towards the use of code-switching differ; there are mixed feelings which go from sheer rejection to actual positive reactions within the US, as Toribio (2002) notes. Price (2010) goes as far as to blame The Real Academia Española -the institution regulating the use of Spanish- for the negative connotations that the term has. According to Johnson (2000), “outside the Hispanic community, [...] code-switching is

indicative of a rejection of full participation in American society and a refusal to learn proper English on the part of Latinos.” (Price 2010, 27) This is motivated by the fact that terms such as “Spanglish”, “Latino”, or “Hispanic” still nowadays retain “politically and ideologically motivated” definitions. (Price 2010, 30) Additionally, speakers see Spanglish as ‘an inferior mode of communication.’ (Martin 2005, 403) Proficiency is also at the stake here, as the alternation of languages denotes, for some authors, lack of knowledge in one or both of them, as is the case of Fernández-Ulloa (2004), who asserts that Spanglish only occurs when there is “una carencia de vocabulario[.]”¹ (89) Contrarily, Hispanic communities consider the hybrid language as a way of reinforcing and enhancing their ethnicity while at the same time claiming to belong to an English-governed society. (Price, 2010) This theory is supported by one of the participants of the experiment carried out by Toribio (2002), Yanira, who used code-switching claiming that it “serves the important function of signaling social identity.” (115)

Moreover, within that same study, there were also instances in which even those who used code-switching rejected it, as was the case of Rosalba. This participant used Spanish in order to communicate with some members of her family; however, the language that prevailed in her speech within any other context was English. In spite of her use of code-switching “exclusively at family gatherings[.]” Toribio (2002) states that the participant “ascribes no positive attributes to code-switching at all[.]” (106) Furthermore, “Rosalba rejects the practice of code-switching as epitomizing and hastening the loss of Spanish.” (106) Montes-Alcalá (2000) also noted that there is a strong belief that code-switching is used to counterbalance the lack of linguistic ability, despite Poplack (1980) remarking that “code-switching is a verbal skill requiring a large degree of linguistic competence in more than one language, rather than a defect arising from insufficient knowledge of one or another.” (615) This idea is the one followed in this study: code-switching is a practice that requires linguistic skills in the languages involved and that serves as a tool for communicating, as any language does.

¹“A deficiency in vocabulary.”

3. Code-switching in America and Spain

With more than 50 million US residents speaking Spanish either as a native tongue or as a second language,² it is only natural that the romance language is inserted in everyday life and even beyond, into English. Whereas shifting from one language to another has consistently been looked upon with disapproval, it is a common practice in the US, where code-switching is a phenomenon whose increasing usage has led to a certain degree of assimilation. Fernández-Ulloa (2004) refers to America as a place in which there is a situation of “bilingüismo social”³ or diglossia -two different language systems are shared by a community, but one of them is rendered more importance than the other. (84) In the USA, this situation of diglossia is apparent when taking into account the roles that both English and Spanish have in society: while the former is formally used, the latter is downgraded to an informal environment.

Yet, whereas the act of code-switching has been mainly used in natural speech, i. e. it was primarily adopted in oral communication, it has already reached the literary world; thus, we can find literature which shifts between English and Spanish, consequently generating what is known as ‘Spanglish literature’. An example of this is *Pollito Chicken* by Ana Lydia Vega, a short story written entirely in Spanglish in 1977, and thus, considered to be one of the first of its kind. Furthermore, this phenomenon has reached the academic field, as the Amherst College of Massachusetts has offered courses on Spanglish taught by Ilán Stavans, the translator of Cervantes’ *The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote de La Mancha* into Spanglish.⁴ It is in this receptive atmosphere that, in America, literary works written in Spanglish are not only published but acknowledged as such, as being actual literature. The reason behind this rise of hybrid-language literature is the fact that the Hispano and Latino communities -roughly

² According to the 2015 report published by Instituto Cervantes, there are 41.3 million Spanish-speaking people within the US population whose level of expertise is that of a native. Furthermore, 11.6 million possess a somewhat lesser degree of proficiency, thus considering Spanish to be their second language. (Instituto Cervantes. «El español: una lengua viva. Informe 2015». pp. 7, 2015. Web. 3 Mar. 2016. http://eldiae.es/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/espanol_lengua-viva_20151.pdf)

³ “Social bilingualism.”

⁴ Ilán Stavans is a renowned Mexican-American literate who translated the first chapter of Cervantes’ *The Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote de La Mancha* into Spanglish and instructed courses on Spanglish during 2009 and 2014 at Amherst College in Massachusetts. (Amherst College. «Spanglish» Web. 5 Apr. 2016. <https://www.amherst.edu/academiclife/departments/courses/0910F/SPAN/SPAN-94-0910F>)

representing the 17% of the total US population⁵- incorporate Spanish in their daily routine in spite of English being the dominant language. English and Spanish being in contact and having both so profound an importance in the United States, users not only mix these languages in their conversations, but also in their writings.

Frontiers have always been a matter of dispute between adjacent territories; as communities expand and get in contact with each other, tensions arise and the confrontations lead to political conflicts. It is in this same manner that, as a consequence of the Mexican-American War, a warfare that went on for almost two years (1846-1848), the Mexican territory was diminished once the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed. The contract set the US border in the river called Río Grande, rendering the Mexican territories that were above it -Texas, California, Arizona, Colorado, and New Mexico- within the area controlled by the United States. (Griswold 2006, Fernández-Ulloa 2004) Because of this, the Mexican population living in these areas were suddenly absorbed by the United States, who imposed English as the official language within those territories to the extent that “[d]ebido a la opresión política, social y económica a principios del siglo XX, el español no era visto con buenos ojos[.]”⁶ (Fernández-Ulloa 2004, 89)

At the same time, Fernández-Ulloa (2004) notes that ostracism led to these people using a dialect in order to “indentificarse como chicanos.”⁷ (90) While this same author refers to diglossia within the US community, Bakhtir (1981) coins the term ‘heteroglossia’, and uses it to refer to the situation that is present in literature: the different languages and their variations are the ones in charge of shaping literature. Moreover, Martin (2005) defines literary code-switching as resulting “from a conscious decision to create a desired effect and to promote the validity of authors’ heritage languages[.]” and states that its use in literature “creates a multiple perspective and enhances the authors’ ability to express their subjects.” (404) As well, Dumitrescu

⁵ As listed by the United States Census Bureau, out of the 318,857,056 people living in the US in 2014, 55,279,452 have Hispanic or Latino origins. (Bureau, U. S. Census. «American FactFinder - Results». Web. 4 Mar. 2016. http://factfinder.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_13_1YR_B03001&prodType=table)

⁶ “Due to political, social, and economic oppression during the early 20th Century, Spanish was not well seen.”

⁷ “Identify themselves as Chicanos.”

(2014) states that “literary code-switching” has an aesthetic purpose at the same time that it mirrors society. (357) Additionally, Putrino (2011) asserts that language alternation within literature is “linked to identity, but might also be a means to embellish a work[.]” (35) In the same sense, some scholars point out that the social uneasiness that Chicano authors deal with is reflected through their texts and through the use of Spanglish, as is the case of Arteaga (1997). Adding to this hypothesis, literary authors claim to make use of language shifts to express their identity, such as Anzaldúa (1987), who states that code-switching “reflects my language, a new language-the language of the Bortherslands.” (viii)

Likewise, Chávez-Silverman (2004) devotes a whole section within her book *Killer crónicas: bilingual memories* in order to explain her use of language, making references to those linguistic features that, due to her adoption of both Spanglish and English together with different variants of Spanish, her prose is filled with. In addition, within her latest publication *Scenes from la Cuenca de Los Angeles y otros natural disasters*, Chávez-Silverman (2010) has included an afterword -written by Michael Shelton- that enlightens the reader with the notion of code-switching and with diverse reasons behind the use of several languages in literary works. Furthermore, Shelton states that “the use of two languages [...] enriches the message with cues to aspects of the sentence the speaker has chosen to highlight.” (Chávez-Silverman 2010, 157)

Circumstances as the previously mentioned in the United States are reversed in a country like Spain, where the language in command is Spanish and whose percentage of foreigners in 2014 was around 10.⁸ Whereas this percentage refers to foreigners regardless of their nationality, a more in depth examination reveals that the most numerous English-speaking country found is the United Kingdom, whose presence in Spain accounts for 310.052 residents⁸ –a far lesser number than that of Spanish-speakers in the USA. Besides, the Spanish National Statistics Institute notes as well that foreigners tend to gather around Mediterranean areas which are conceived to be tourist-friendly and in which they fraternize among their foreign colleagues so their need of

⁸ Within the Spanish population -46.512.199 in 2014-, 4.677.059 are foreigners as per the Spanish National Statistics Institute. (Instituto Nacional de Estadística. «Cifras de Población a 1 de enero de 2015 *Estadística de Migraciones 2014*» pp. 3-4, 2015. Web. 5 Mar. 2016. <http://www.ine.es/prensa/np917.pdf>)

speaking Spanish is lessened.⁹ These data reveal that English and Spanish are not in so close a contact as they are in the United States, as there are no areas or cultural conditions within the Iberian Peninsula that resemble that areas of the US in which Spanglish is used.

Moreover, the main reason that detracts the occurrence of code-switching in Spain is the belief that it is a matter of linguistic incapacity. And yet, in the Iberian Peninsula, when the bilingual capacities of the speaker are sufficiently apparent, still society rejects the shifts from one language to another alluding to redundancy and opulence. Furthermore, the previously mentioned contrast between the terms “code-switching” and “code-mixing” exemplifies the difference between the conditions in America and in Spain. Hence, the insertion of English words into the Spanish lexicon that has been taking place in Spain is an example of code-mixing. Besides, there is no need for a Spaniard to be able to speak English in their everyday-life as is the case in America. Exceptions are present however when taking employment into account, as tourism or exportations, for instance, require users to be able to communicate with people all over the world. Be it as it may, as people do not usually combine the usage of both languages in their everyday life, they as well do not mix them while writing; as a result, Spanglish literature is not produced in Spain. Writers can fully express themselves in Spanish and have no need to use English or Spanglish to complete their works. Moreover, code-switching is a phenomenon which is not considered apt for literature because of people not being enough familiarized with it and also because of the fact that literature is a rigid medium which does not usually allow for bizarre elements.

Yet, however uncanny code-switching is in Spain, when involved in an English-related University degree, students get immersed in a new language community: that which shifts from Spanish and English (regardless of its happening within or among sentences). Because of this occurrence, I have taken as an example the degree of English Studies, in which I am immersed, imparted at the University of Valladolid.

⁹ By collecting data from the Spanish National Statistics Institute, Escudero (2015) affirms that, in July 2014, the Mediterranean provinces are the ones whose rate of foreign population is the highest in Spain - such as Girona, Lleida, Tarragona, Almería, Málaga, and Las Palmas with a percentage of foreign population that oscillates between 16 and 20; and Baleares, Alicante, and Santa Cruz de Tenerife which overpass the 20%. (Escudero, Jesús. “¿Cuántos Extranjeros Hay En Su Provincia? Noticias de España.” *El Confidencial*. 2015. Web. 15 Apr. 2016. http://www.elconfidencial.com/espana/2015-01-26/del-3-de-jaen-al-23-de-baleares-consulte-cuantos-extranjeros-hay-en-su-provincia_617076/)

Within the Faculty of Arts, nationalities are mingled as well as languages; teachers, regardless of their mother tongue, impart the majority of the lessons in English, although there are few instances in which Spanish is used. Likewise, the outcome that pupils produce is essentially in English except for conversations among colleagues or informal chats. Encountering this blend of languages, students tend to mix both English and Spanish in their dialogues, thus, generating an environment in which Spanglish is manifested. Nonetheless, undergraduates tend to exclude this practice from literature because it is perceived as a rigid medium that should only include officially grammatical instances of language. Toribio (2002) makes reference to this idea when talking about “bilinguals, who view writing as a formal medium that should remain untainted by the alternations of speech[.]” (100)

As a student myself, I have experienced the transformation that my instruction has engendered with regards to my attitude towards the code-switching phenomenon. Whereas, I was skeptical about its use upon arrival, on account of my using of both English and Spanish alternately and the notions on code-switching that I have acquired throughout the degree, I consider its occurrence as being grammatical. Moreover, from my personal experience, I have realized that its manifestation is partly involuntary and partly conscious; considering that, although it takes reasoning in order to create code-switched sentences, languages automatically alternate in my head when producing Spanglish. Hence, my assumption is that linguistic knowledge and habitude on the alternation of languages is what is needed for a person to regard code-switching as a grammatical or an acceptable practice, and the degree of English Studies generates a context in which these factors occur together.

4. Materials & Methodology

4.1 Participants

As the objective of the study was to prove that, the higher the linguistic competencies, the higher the rate of acceptance towards code-switching, a suitable range of participants was needed. This hypothesis was to be proved by exposing both first-year and last-year students of English Studies to the designed test, because their competence gap would be the wider among the University degree. The test requested

participants to note their name and the academic year they were currently involved in so as to have support that data was actually taken from people belonging to the degree of English Studies and was not manipulated. Participants were also asked about their nationality and the languages that they were able to speak together with any long-term stay in an English-speaking country. This responded to an attempt to rule out any individual whose personal background might have any interference in the results obtained from the test.

Thus, students were sorted by their nationality, as those of them who had Spanish roots were sought. By doing this, the test would be done by individuals whose context was a monolingual one. Moreover, their mother tongue was as well taken into account, as they might have English-speaking parents that would allow for a frequent use of the English language. Accordingly, they would be students who learned English as their second language and have Spanish as their L1. Moreover, their level of English was also inquired, and students had to rate their proficiency according to the parameters that sets the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Hence, they could choose among A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 levels. Although their proficiency could have been graded through a separate task, this option was dismissed as it would mean that the length of the whole process would be considerable. Furthermore, genuine responses were sought and an extensive quiz might diminish the attention of the undergraduates.

On the one hand, first-year students were chosen because of having a basic knowledge about grammar and linguistics; this fact contributes to a reaction against the use of the hybrid language, as students might be already affected by the social belief that languages are not supposed to be intermingled. Together with this, they may not have been in contact with a community in which a different language was needed - through an Erasmus Scholarship or an exchange-, so their acquaintance with bilingualism would be scarce. On the other hand, fourth-year students were chosen because of having a high level of expertise in the English language, allowing for the acceptance of code-switching. They would as well be more likely to have participated in programs to study abroad, and so, exposed to the use of their second language in a context where it is used as a first language. In short, data was obtained from Spanish-

native participants: 20 undergraduates who were attending the first year of English Studies and 20 other undergraduates who were on its fourth and last course -from now on referred to as 'Group 1' and 'Group 2' respectively- Data were then sorted by the participants' level of English, as the hypothesis of the study is that the users' level of English determines their attitude towards code-switching.

4.2 Procedure

Prior to the actual data collection, the test was given to two students who did not participate in the study in order to assess whether the test generated doubts and to calculate how much time was needed to complete the activity: it was determined that a span of at least 25 minutes was necessary. The official data collection was carried out during two different sessions: one for each group of students. Participants were given an acceptability judgment task -a task in which participants are given sentences in order to rate their grammaticality- which was previously explained so that their performance would be valid. The first group to carry out the test was Group 2, in which 23 students offered themselves voluntarily to do it. Out of these 23 undergraduates, two of them had English or Bulgarian nationalities, and one participant did not answer all of the questions, so their tests were omitted from evaluation. The remaining 20 undergraduates' tests were the evaluated ones. In order to have the same number of participants in each group, only 20 students were given the test within the first course of English Studies. Also, Group 1 was given the test during an actual class and students were compelled to carry it out. In order to ease their reading comprehension, both groups were free to ask any question as long as they were not related to the language in which fragments were written.

4.3 Test

The test consisted of 27 fragments, whereof 9 were the genuine examples of code-switching literature and the rest of them were fillers.¹⁰ Students were asked to read the fragments and then comment on their grammaticality -they had to decide whether excerpts were 'grammatical', 'not grammatical but acceptable', or 'ungrammatical'. In addition, they had to assess them according to their level of literariness, i. e. participants

¹⁰ A copy of the test is attached to this document and can be found in section 8, called 'Annex'.

would mark ‘yes’ if they considered that the specific fragment could be part of a broader literary work and ‘no’ if they considered otherwise.

Fillers were elicited from several resources either in Spanish and English, namely non-literary texts, which included six fragments with grammatical mistakes manually added; and twelve fragments belonging to literary works, which were not altered. Six literary excerpts were from novels in English; namely, from *The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas*, *The Extraordinary Journey of the Fakir Who Got Trapped in an Ikea Wardrobe*, *A Man Called Ove*, *Twilight*, *The Elegance of the Hedgehog*, and *The Girl with the Dragon Tattoo*. The other six fragments were taken from novels in Spanish; for instance, *El niño con el pijama de rayas*, *El increíble viaje de un faquir que se quedó atrapado en un armario de Ikea*, *Un hombre llamado Ove*, *Crepúsculo*, *La elegancia del erizo*, and *Los hombres que no amaban a las mujeres*.

Examples of code-switching were extracted from Susana Chávez-Silverman’s *Killer Crónicas: Bilingual Memories* and the fragments used in the test were deliberately chosen so that they included clear examples of code-switching. Being a Chicano writer who mixes several language variations from South America, her writings are full of ‘foreign’ words; thus, the fragments containing these words were excluded.¹¹ In addition, proper nouns were not considered as instances of Spanish or English, and were not included in the evaluation so that participants were not confused.

As was previously stated, different studies have developed several classifications with regards to the type of code-switching utterances; in this study, a deviation of the already mentioned classification created by Lipski (1985) was used so as to generate the three types in which the test was based. Following the notions that Lipski (1985) expands within his study, I have examined Chávez-Silverman’s text in order to find type II and type III occurrences of code-switching, referring to them as inter-sentential and intra-sentential respectively in order to be concise. As previously stated, code-switching instances referred to as type I by Lipski (1985) included examples in which L2 nouns are inserted into the L1 discourse; thus, by considering them as instances of

¹¹ ‘Foreign’ meaning in this case any word that, although belonging to the Spanish lexicon, a Peninsular Spaniard is not accustomed to (namely ‘chismeando’ meaning ‘cotilleando’, ‘departamento’ referring to ‘apartamento’ and so on and so forth). These words are used within Latin-American communities that alternate numerous variations of standard Spanish and could lead undergraduates to confusion.

code-mixing, they were not used in the test. Moreover, as the adjective phrase has proved to be a controversial element when the code-switching phenomenon is involved in its creation, instances of language shifts within these particular phrases generated another category in this study: ADJ-phrase code-switching. All in all, the test included three instances of each type of code-switching alternately arranged within the survey.

An instance of the inter-sentential type was the following one: “Son malas hierbas, nos decías, They’re just weeds, girls! Pues ese México ya no existe en mi Zapopan de antaño. I always thought we lived way out in the country all the time, growing up.” (Chávez-Silverman 2004, 47) The fragment which goes as follows: “So I begin quickly revising, remapping my day in my mind: ir al gimnasio during the lunch hour en vez de antes de mi clase...” (Chávez-Silverman 2004, 55) is an example of what I have considered as intra-sentential code-shifts. Lastly, the next excerpt belongs to the third category, as there is code-switching within the adjective-phrase: “El jovencísimo, blond-maned Rutger Hauer en toda su Teutonic gloria [...] la aun más joven-casi jailbait –Monique Vand Der Ven, con su slightly Evita-rabbity smile, su dyed hair, her Nederlands roundness.” (Chávez-Silverman 2004, 98)

5. Analysis of the data

First of all, it was presupposed that first-year students would have a lesser linguistic knowledge about the English language than fourth-year students. This factor was to be estimated by taking the undergraduates’ level of English into account; hence, and according to the CEFR parameters, Group 1 might rate their skills as basic (A1, A2) or low-intermediate (B1) and Group 2 would consider theirs as high-intermediate (B2) or advanced (C1, C2). Nonetheless, although first-year students had the option to claim to have an A1 or A2 level of English, they are thought to have higher competencies prior to enrolling in the English Studies degree. Their claim to have basic skills might be caused by not having actually tested their linguistic knowledge.

Table 1 demonstrates that the prediction has applied in a 75% of the first-year students and in a 95% within the fourth-year students.¹² However, there were some

¹² All the cells of each table include first the absolute frequency of the obtained results and, after a dash, their relative frequency.

exceptions in both groups, as 4 out of the 20 participants attending the first year of English Studies claim to have a B2 level of English, and there is a single C1-level individual. Within the fourth year, only one individual asserts to have an inferior proficiency than expected: a B1 level of English.

Table 1: English level of participants per academic year.

	Group 1	Group 2	Total
A1	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
A2	4 - 20%	0 - 0%	4 - 10%
B1	11 - 55%	1 - 5%	12 - 30%
B2	4 - 20%	6 - 30%	10 - 25%
C1	1 - 5%	12 - 60%	13 - 33%
C2	0 - 0%	1 - 5%	1 - 2%

In general terms, there is a group that is not present, which is that of people with an A1 level of English, an exceptionally low level for an undergraduate. In the same manner, only one participant was included within the C2-level group, rendering an uneven distribution among the six proficiency levels. Nonetheless, it is to be taken into account that these are the levels that students claimed to have, but their reported ability was not contrasted with their actual performance. Had participants been given a test in order to discern their English level, results might have varied. Still, as previously stated, this option was not fulfilled due to the fact that it would elongate the survey process.

As one of the aims of the study was to determine whether the acceptance of code-switching depended on its type, results were sorted by fragments alternating languages among sentences (inter-sentential), within sentences (intra-sentential), or within adjective phrases (ADJ-phrase). Table 2 shows an even distribution of responses in each type of code-switching, with ‘ungrammatical’ clearly being the most frequent response. Also, Table 2 shows that among students, inter-sentential instances were the most accepted of the three types, because there was a 52% of undergraduates who ranked them as ‘grammatical’ or as ‘not grammatical but acceptable’. Besides, out of the 360 answers regarding the instances of code-switching, 88 were ‘grammatical’, 74 of them were ‘not grammatical but acceptable’, and 198 sentences were credited as ‘ungrammatical’, which stands for a 55% of the total.

Table 2: Acceptance of the sentences depending on their type.

	Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
Grammatical	33 - 28%	28 - 24%	27 - 23%	88 - 24%
NG-Acceptable	29 - 24%	22 - 17%	23 - 18 %	74 - 21%
Ungrammatical	58 - 48%	70 - 59%	70 - 59%	198 - 55%

Apart from indicating their acceptance towards the samples that were shown in the test, participants had to answer whether those instances could be part of a broader literary work or not. Their responses are summarized in Table 3, which exhibits a slight difference in answers regarding the fragments that included code-switching within adjective phrases. The majority of users ruled these instances out of literature, as 61% of them answered ‘no’ in the second question. On the other hand, the ‘inter-sentential’ type of code-switching was considered as being suitable for literature in a 44% of the cases, the highest rate of all the types. When taking the whole of the code-switching sentences into account, 41% of the cases were considered apt for literary works, and 59% of the cases that were considered unfitting for literature instead.

Table 3: Literariness of the sentences depending on their type.

	Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
Yes	53 - 44%	49 - 41%	47 - 39%	149 - 41%
No	67 - 56%	71 - 59%	73 - 61%	211 - 59 %

These two variables -acceptance and literariness- were combined in table 4 to render more light to the responses of the participants. The highest percentage of response was first ‘ungrammatical’ and then ‘no’, as the percentages show; a 41% for the inter-sentential type, a 50% for the intra-sentential, and a 52% for the ADJ-phrase. Besides, of all the code-switching phenomena, a 47%, which stands for 170 responses, reflects answers in the same manner. Additionally, the next highest percentage is that which combines the ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’ responses with a 26%, a 20%, and a 18% with regards to the types, and a 20% in the totality of the cases of code-switching. Hence, Table 4 indicates a strong tendency towards ‘no’ being the chosen response to the question of literariness when the fragment was considered to be ungrammatical. In the same manner, data shows that if ‘grammatical’ was the selected choice, a ‘yes’ would immediately follow. Contrarily, when participants claimed to find sentences not

grammatical but acceptable, there was no clear predilection concerning the fragments' role in literature, except for the case of the adjective-phrase type, which tended to be followed by a 'yes' answer.

Table 4: Acceptance and literariness of the sentences depending on their type.

		Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
Grammatical	Yes	30 - 25%	24 - 20%	21 - 18%	75 - 20%
	No	3 - 3%	4 - 4%	6 - 5%	13 - 4%
NG-Acceptable	Yes	15 - 12%	13 - 10%	17 - 13%	45 - 13%
	No	14 - 12%	9 - 7%	6 - 5%	29 - 8%
Ungrammatical	Yes	7 - 6%	12 - 9%	9 - 7%	28 - 8%
	No	51 - 42%	58 - 50%	61 - 52%	170 - 47%

Furthermore, results were sorted according to the reported level of English that the participants claimed to have. Therefore, tables 5, 6 and 7 indicate the same values that were previously shown with regards to the total number of answers, in this case, concerning the proficiency of each undergraduate.

Acceptance is shown in Table 5, which indicates that students who claim to have an A2 level of English consider this phenomenon -regardless of its type- 35 out of 36 times as being ungrammatical, that is, a 97% of times; and those with a B1 level score an 82% of 'ungrammatical' responses. Then, numbers are reversed and there is a 70% of B2-level undergraduates who refer to code-switching as a 'grammatical' or as a 'not grammatical but acceptable' practice; and a 60% of C1-level participants who claim the same. It is to be noted that there is a 100% of 'grammatical' responses in the case of the individual who had a C2 level of English. Also, this table shows that inter-sentential code-switching is the most accepted type of the three exhibited in the test, as it scores the highest percentage of the response 'grammatical' and the response 'not grammatical but acceptable' combined (8% in A2 level, 28% in B1 level, 77% in B2 level, and 64% in C1 level –the C2 level was excluded in this case because each type scores a 100% in all of the cases, thus displaying no difference among them). On the other hand, there was no code-switching type that was significantly less accepted than any other.

Table 5: Acceptance of the sentences depending on their type, per English level.

		Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
A2	Grammatical	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
	NG-Acceptable	1 - 8%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	1 - 3%
	Ungrammatical	11 - 92%	12 - 100%	12 - 100%	35 - 97%
B1	Grammatical	3 - 8%	3 - 8%	1 - 3%	7 - 7%
	NG-Acceptable	7 - 20%	3 - 8%	2 - 5%	12 - 11%
	Ungrammatical	26 - 72%	30 - 84%	33 - 92%	89 - 82%
B2	Grammatical	14 - 47%	9 - 30%	10 - 33%	33 - 37%
	NG-Acceptable	9 - 30%	9 - 30%	12 - 40%	30 - 33%
	Ungrammatical	7 - 23%	12 - 40%	8 - 27%	27 - 30%
C1	Grammatical	13 - 33%	13 - 33%	13 - 33%	39 - 33%
	NG-Acceptable	12 - 31%	10 - 26%	9 - 23%	31 - 27%
	Ungrammatical	14 - 36%	16 - 41%	17 - 44%	47 - 40%
C2	Grammatical	3 - 100%	3 - 100%	3 - 100%	9 - 100%
	NG-Acceptable	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
	Ungrammatical	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%

Table 6 deals with how participants answered to the question of the literariness of the fragments. If no attention is paid to the type of code-switching, individuals who reported to have an A2 level of English answered ‘no’ in a 94% of the cases; similarly to those with a B1 level, who scored a 93%. Contrarily, in the case of the B2-level participants, a 52% of the responses were affirmative, and those with a C1 level answered ‘yes’ in a 71% of the cases. The participant claiming to have a C2 level indicated ‘yes’ as well in all of the instances, scoring a 100%. However, when analyzing each code-switching type separately, none was significantly less or more accepted than any other.

Table 6: Literariness of the sentences depending on their type, per English level.

		Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
A2	Yes	1 - 8%	1 - 8%	0 - 0%	2 - 6%
	No	11 - 92%	11 - 92%	12 - 100%	34 - 94%
B1	Yes	3 - 8%	3 - 8%	2 - 6%	8 - 7%
	No	33 - 92%	33 - 92%	34 - 96%	100 - 93%
B2	Yes	18 - 60%	14 - 47%	15 - 50%	47 - 52%
	No	12 - 40%	16 - 53%	15 - 50%	43 - 48%
C1	Yes	28 - 72%	28 - 72%	27 - 69%	83 - 71%
	No	11 - 28%	11 - 28%	12 - 31%	34 - 29%
C2	Yes	3 - 100%	3 - 100%	3 - 100%	9 - 100%
	No	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%

Responses to the question of grammaticality and that to the question of literariness of each undergraduate combined were fragmented in three tables in an attempt to show them in a straightforward way. Consequently, Tables 7, 8, and 9 gather the answers to the question of acceptance and to that of literariness. Table 7 deals with those individuals who claimed to have an A1 or A2 level; yet, there were no participants with an A1 level of English so this section was removed. A 92% of the total responses indicated that fragments were both ungrammatical and non-literary. Also, there is no relevant difference when analyzing data according to the type of code-switching, as numbers differed in matter of, at most, two responses out of twelve -two of them still in the ‘ungrammatical’ category, but in that of literary, and another one in the ‘not grammatical but acceptable’ and ‘no’ responses category.

Table 7: Acceptance and literariness of the sentences depending on their type, in A2 level.

			Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
A2	Grammatical	Yes	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
		No	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
	NG-Acceptable	Yes	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
		No	1 - 8%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	1 - 3%
	Ungrammatical	Yes	1 - 8%	1 - 8%	0 - 0%	2 - 5%
		No	10 - 84%	11 - 92%	12 - 100%	33 - 92%

A similar trend is present in Table 8 in the case of those students who answered B2 when asked about their linguistic knowledge of English. An 83% of their responses indicate ‘ungrammatical’, and non-literary. The next highest percentage is a 10, corresponding to the answers ‘not grammatical but acceptable’ and ‘no’. However, answers were distributed in a more even way than that of Table 7. There were instances in four out of the six categories, as users who claimed that fragments were grammatical found them apt for literature, and conversely, those who considered them as ungrammatical did not find them fitting for literature. Fragments containing code-switching within adjective phrases were the least distributed of all three types, as a 92% of responses were ‘ungrammatical’ and ‘no’. On the other hand, the most disseminated was the inter-sentential type, which scored an 8% in the category ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’, a 20% in the category ‘not grammatical but acceptable’ and ‘no’, and a 72% in the case of the ‘ungrammatical’ and ‘no’ category.

Table 8 also exhibited the results of the B2-level participants, whose more frequent responses were ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’, standing for the 32% of the cases, and followed by ‘ungrammatical’ and ‘no’ with a 25%. Sorted by code-switching type, percentages significantly differ among the three of them. First, the inter-sentential code-switches scored a 47% in the first category - ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’-, a percentage that is clearly lessened in the other two types of code-switching. This type also differs in the sense that, unlike the other two, it does not score in all of the categories but in four –all of them except for the cases of ‘grammatical’ and ‘no’ and ‘ungrammatical’ and ‘yes’. The remaining types of code-switching’ responses were distributed among all of the categories, with an special focus on the first and the last one –respectively, a 26% and a 23% of the responses agree with code-switching fragments being grammatical and literary, and a 30% and a 23% with them being ungrammatical and non-literary. In the case of the adjective phrase type, there was a third category which also scored a 23%, that which considered alternation of language acceptable and apt for literature. All in all, in general terms, there was a 32% of ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’ responses, followed by a 25% of ‘ungrammatical’ and ‘no’ responses.

Table 8: Acceptance and literariness of the sentences depending on their type, in B1 and B2 levels.

			Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
B1	Grammatical	Yes	3 - 8%	3 - 8%	1 - 3%	7 - 6%
		No	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
	NG-Acceptable	Yes	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	1 - 3%	1 - 1%
		No	7 - 20%	3 - 8%	1 - 3%	11 - 10%
	Ungrammatical	Yes	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
		No	26 - 72%	30 - 84%	33 - 92%	89 - 83%
B2	Grammatical	Yes	14 - 47%	8 - 26%	7 - 23%	29 - 32%
		No	0 - 0%	1 - 4%	3 - 10%	4 - 5%
	NG-Acceptable	Yes	4 - 13%	3 - 10%	7 - 23%	14 - 15%
		No	5 - 17%	6 - 20%	5 - 17%	16 - 18%
	Ungrammatical	Yes	0 - 0%	3 - 10%	1 - 4%	4 - 5%
		No	7 - 23%	9 - 30%	7 - 23%	23 - 25%

The last division, Table 9, deals with participants who had a C1 or C2 level of English. In the case of the C1-level undergraduates, in general terms, responses were uniformly distributed between the first and the third options: ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’ and ‘NG/Acceptable’ and ‘yes’. Next in line would be the last category, scoring a 21% of the responses. These percentages are almost unaltered when taking the type of code-

switching into account. Additionally, the participant with a C2 level of English answered ‘grammatical’ and ‘yes’ in all of the instances of code-switching regardless of its type; thus, the first category scores a 100% in all of the cases.

Table 9: Acceptance and literariness of the sentences depending on their type, in C1 and C2 levels.

			Inter-sentential	Intra-sentential	ADJ-phrase	Total
C1	Grammatical	Yes	10 - 26%	10 - 26%	10 - 26%	30 - 25%
		No	3 - 8%	3 - 8%	3 - 8%	9 - 8%
	NG-Acceptable	Yes	11 - 28%	10 - 26%	9 - 23%	30 - 25%
		No	1 - 3%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	1 - 1%
	Ungrammatical	Yes	6 - 15%	8 - 20%	8 - 20%	22 - 19%
		No	8 - 20%	8 - 20%	9 - 23%	25 - 21%
C2	Grammatical	Yes	3 - 100%	3 - 100%	3 - 100%	9 - 100%
		No	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
	NG-Acceptable	Yes	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
		No	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
	Ungrammatical	Yes	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%
		No	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%	0 - 0%

Generally, when analyzing data sorted by the linguistic level of English that each undergraduate had, percentages remained equal depending on the type of alternation of language. Nonetheless, there is a general pattern: as the level of English increases, the higher the acceptance and literariness of code-switching gets. Thus, adding the percentages of the ‘grammatical’ and the ‘not grammatical but acceptable’ responses and comparing them to the ‘ungrammatical’ ones, proportions go as follows: 3%-97% in A2, 18%-82% in B1, 70%-30% in B2, 60%-40% in C1, and 100%-0% in C2. As hypothesized, the progression has a growing trend in terms of acceptance, indicating that bilingual ability is a key factor that leads to the acceptance of code-switching. A trend that is also present in Table 6, which displays an exponential growth in the ‘yes’ percentages as the English level of the participants increases. What is also to be noted is that, both in the case of the grammaticality and the literariness, opposites are reversed when dealing with B2-level undergraduates; they are the ones whose responses, at least in a 50% of the cases, determine code-switching as being grammatical or acceptable (70%) and literary (52%).

6. Conclusions

In general terms, the inter-sentential type of code-switching seems to be the one which students tend to consider as grammatical in a higher degree, as it is the type which gets the highest rates of grammaticality and literariness. Also, its level of acceptance -set by the aggrupation of the 'grammatical' and 'not grammatical but acceptable' responses- is the only one of the three types that is above 50%. In addition, this type is the one which scores the highest in the question about the literariness of the fragment -with a 44% of 'yes' response. This might be caused by the simplicity of inter-sentential code-switching: it is the easiest way to code-switch, as languages are alternated in separate sentences. Besides, users do not have to take into account the syntactic rules of the languages in order to follow the equivalence constraint proposed by Poplack (1978); thus, rendering fluidity to the process of code-switching.

Also, when results are taken as a whole, undergraduates show a slight predilection for the 'ungrammatical' and 'no' responses -with a 55% and a 59% respectively. An additional finding, not expected before carrying the experiment out, is that there is a tendency to consider that a fragment is not proper for a literary text if the code-switching phenomenon is considered as ungrammatical, as a 47% of the total responses followed this way. To a lesser extent -in a 20% of the cases-, participants also tended to consider instances of code-switching both grammatical and literary.

Concerning the level of English, this whole study was aimed at proving that the linguistic level of English determinates the students' acceptance towards the use of code-switching, a hypothesis that has been confirmed by the data collected in Table 5. What is more, the study also shows -in Table 6- that the higher the level of English, the higher the number of people that consider that code-switching can be included in a literary work; thus, confirming another of the hypotheses of the study. While the majority of the participants that ban the fragments from literature do it precisely because of the fact that there is a mixture of two languages, those who claim that code-switching is apt for literary works also do it specifically because of being an instance of code-switching.

The object of the study is as well validated, as it aimed at proving the fact that despite being in a monolingual country, undergraduates with a high level of English and

belonging to an environment in which they can alternate languages tend to regard code-switching as a grammatical procedure that is apt for literature. Whereas this study was designed for undergraduates enrolled in English Studies within the UVa, it could as well be aimed at any person living in a monolingual country, acquainted with linguistics, and whose context allows for an alternation of English and Spanish. What is more, this same study can be improved either by having a broader number of participants or by actually carrying out an actual test regarding the users' competences in English.

These findings reflect how attitudes towards this practice can differ among participants due to the fact that there is no established notion regarding code-switching. Yet, whichever are the views on language alternation, code-switching is a fact, a means for communication that goes beyond Spanglish, as it comprises shifts between several languages (French-English, Italian-German, Chinese-English), and between languages and dialects (Sicilian dialects-Italian). As a matter of experience, my assumption is that most of its repudiation is caused by a lack of acquaintance and that, were students instructed in code-switching, it would be much more accepted. Moreover, as it is a spread manner of communication, it should be acknowledged instead of repudiated.

7. Annex

Test:

Name: _____ Date: _____
 Studies: _____ Course: _____ Nationality: _____
 Languages: L1: _____ L2: _____ L3: _____
 Have you been abroad (Erasmus, Exchange, any other)? For how long?

Rate your level of English: () A1 () A2 () B1 () B2 () C1 () C2

Read the following excerpts and mark with an X one of the three options according to their grammaticality (1 being grammatical; 2 not being grammatical but acceptable; and 3 being ungrammatical). Then, briefly comment on whether you would or would not consider them to be part of a literary work.

1. Perdió una pierna en la batalla de Vélez Málaga. Según las crónicas le imputaron sin anestesia y sin quejas por lo que comenzó a ser conocido por su valentía. Después se quedó tuerto por la esquirla de un cañonazo.

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

2. Ove is fifty-nine. He drives a Saab. He's the kind of man who points at people he doesn't like the look of, as if they were burglars and his forefinger a policeman's torch. He stands at the counter of a shop where owners of Japanese cars come to purchase white cables.

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

3. Contrarily to what is traditionally believed, literature as such isn't modified by historical periods, events or societies. This factors only affect mankind, who is ultimately the entity which produces literature.

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

4. Why did this particular movie (in all my many moviegoing years) grab hold of me, reach inside me con toda su overwrought emotionality, hyper-violencia, and Baroque, dark Dutch humor y machacarme el corazón?

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

5. The best part was the fact that Grandmother made costumes for Bruno and Gretel. No matter what the role, no matter how few lines he might have in comparison to his sister or grandmother, Bruno always got to dress up as a prince, or an Arab sheik, or even on one occasion a Roman gladiator.

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

6. —Pero ¡si son mis tres mejores amigos para toda la vida!
—Bueno, ya harás nuevas amistades —dijo Madre quitándole importancia con un ademán, como si fuera fácil encontrar a tres mejores amigos para toda la vida.
—Es que nosotros teníamos planes —protestó él.
—¿Planes? —Madre enarcó las cejas—. ¿Qué clase de planes?

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

7. When the school day had finally ended, I walked to the parking lot without enthusiasm. I did not especially want to walk home, but I couldn't see how he would have retrieved my truck. Then again, I was starting to believe that nothing was impossible for him.

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

8. El jovencísimo, blond-maned Rutger Hauer en toda su Teutonic gloria [...] la aun más joven-casi jailbait – Monique Vand Der Ven, con su slightly Evita-rabbity smile, su dyed hair, her Nederlands roundness.

() Grammatical () Not grammatical but acceptable () Ungrammatical

Literary work: () yes () no. Why: _____

9. Los experimentos pedagógicos son más divertidos con los hijos de los de más, claro. Más de la mitad del camino hacia el éxito depende del esfuerzo del alumno.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

10. And even a year or so before he died a veces, en una comida familiar or just sitting around their living room, someone playing the piano, alguien cantando en mi tan, muy musical familia, Daddy era capaz de abstraerse de la escena circundante and a radiant light would come over his face y miraba a mamá y a veces hasta murmuraba, girls, isn't Mother beautiful?

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

11. La irreductible originalidad de La Celestina ha provocado que desde su aparición en 1499 hasta ahora, a poco más de cinco siglos de su publicación, siga siendo una de las obras que más polémica y controversia ha suscitando entre la crítica especializada en torno a cuestiones tan elementales como el autor, el texto, la intención, el género literario, el carácter paródico de la obra.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

12. En eso Julio, tuviste razón. Pero no sé si en todo lo demás. Ni sé si en mucho más. Eso que escribiste eras todo vos. (Well what/who else could it have been, nena?)

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

13. Consequently, lexical semantics in those days had a historical–filological orientation and was mainly concerned with etymology and the classification of how meanings of words change over time. There is important to note that word meanings in the early days of lexical semantics were regarded as mental entities.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

14. Esto me hizo ponerme bastante más nerviosa. I felt those male motorcross eyes on me from all sides –porque John y Steve también se habían despertado- y comencé a sentir esos little bumps –think think think- under the weels.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

15. Interior Minister Fouchet's special advisor no longer had any influence (he was imprisoned secretly in the premises of the secret police where he had considerable difficulty in explaining why he had a radio transmitter installed in his bathroom scales).

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

16. Poco después de las tres de la tarde, en la residencia de ancianos de Malmköping la calma fue sustituida por una zozobra que duraría varios días. En lugar de enfadarse, la enfermera Alice se inquietó y no dudó en utilizar la llave maestra.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

17. Mi hermana Laura está en Venice; ya no vive in the East Village. Y María Negroni y los suyos están a salvo in Brooklyn, shell-shocked and acrid smoke penetrating even their dreams, just one week after, pero a salvo.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

18. —El rollo es que Anita solicitó más asistencia domiciliaria, ya sabes. O sea, Rune está hecho polvo y ella sola no puede. Entonces los de los servicios sociales hicieron una investigación de esas, y luego la llamó un tío y le dijo que habían decidido que ella no iba a poder tirar del carro.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

19. This section stablishes five questions that are of central importance to any theory of lexical semantics that makes claims to be a coherent framework within which lexical meanings can be describe and explain.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

20. I try to conjure your stern, and instead I hear you snort with laughter sobre los ridículos, amateurish “professional” musicians –esos Musicians of Bremetown: todos off-key, mal vestidos y hasta inhabiting an ill-concealed, unsavory bordering-on-incestuous relationship, la madre-hijo team on the piano, te acuerdas?

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

21. Lo más arduo de explicar fue por qué me resultaba tan hermoso aquel lugar y también justificar una belleza que no dependía de la vegetación espinosa y dispersa, que a menudo parecía muerta, sino que tenía más que ver con la silueta de la tierra, las cuencas poco profundas de los valles entre colinas escarpadas y la forma en que conservaban la luz del sol.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

22. Then there's Paloma, a twelve-year-old genius. She is the daughter of a tedious parliamentarian, a talented and startlingly lucid child who has decided to end her life on the sixteenth of June, her thirteenth birthday.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

23. The old policeman was sitting with his coffee, waiting, expecting the call.

"It arrived."

"What is it this year?"

"I don't know what kind it is. I'll have to get someone to tell me what it is. It's white."

"No letter, I suppose."

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

24. Son malas hierbas, nos decías, They're just weeds, girls! Pues ese México ya no existe en mi Zapopan de antaño. I always thought we lived way out in the country all the time, growing up.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

25. —Estoy ocupada. Ella colgó.

Al final, se decidió por una alternativa no contemplada hasta ese momento: el veneno. La elección la sorprendió incluso a ella misma, pero, bien pensado, era perfecta.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

26. So I begin quickly revising, remapping my day in my mind: ir al gimnasio during the lunch hour en vez de antes de mi clase...

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

27. Aunque, en cuatrocientos metros cuadrados, no sería verdaderamente un problema. Y bueno, pienso que los viejos tienen derecho a un poco de respeto, al fin y al cabo. Y estar en una residencia de ancianos desde luego no es tenerles respeto.

Grammatical Not grammatical but acceptable Ungrammatical

Literary work: yes no. Why: _____

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