

**Exploring interpersonal patterns of language switches in English/Spanish dialogue  
– a Systemic Functional Grammar approach to the study of codeswitching**

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The topic of this thesis is the exploration of possible interpersonally connected patterns in the use of codeswitching from English to Spanish in the speech of fluent bilinguals. The thesis bases its relevance on the need for more comprehensive understanding of characteristics of codeswitching, and it sets out to implement the Systemic Functional Grammar framework into the study of codeswitching. The study focuses on the interpersonal metafunction, in which the clause is considered as an exchange and the meanings relate to social relationships.

The data of the study consists of 60 clauses from fluent bilingual Latino characters from a fictional Netflix series *Orange Is the New Black* containing intrasentential codeswitches from English to Spanish. The data is analysed for the Mood-Residue structure found in the interpersonal metafunction of Systemic Functional Grammar by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) to localize the codeswitch into a certain grammatical component which the elements entail: Subject, Finite, Predicator, Complement, Adjunct and the interpersonally connected components Vocative and Expletive. The study aims to answer the research question of what types of patterns of CS use emerge from the analysis through SFG. The hypothesis is that CS is localized in the Residue as not to interrupt the message of the clause and due to the difference in the importance of the Mood element in English and Spanish. The thesis also discusses the implications for the behavior of codeswitching based on previous grammatical research of codeswitching. The results are discussed in regard to the research question, the hypotheses made as well as implications on how the field should proceed in the study of codeswitching from a Systemic Functional Linguistic point of view.

The analysis revealed that codeswitching occurs in both the Mood and the Residue elements but is more frequent in the Residue and the Vocative component, which falls outside the Mood-Residue structure. Two prominent patterns were revealed: there were no switches in the verbal components Finite and Predicator and thus the codeswitches in the Mood element occurred only in the Subject component, and the Vocative component was the most frequent localization for a switch. The fictive nature and the occurrence of mainly one-word switches in the data inhibits the generalization of the results, but the study offers insight into possible underlying reasons for patterns in codeswitching between English and Spanish and offers suggestions on how the Systemic Functional Grammar framework could be used to study codeswitching.

Keywords: Codeswitching, Systemic Functional Grammar, interpersonal metafunction

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## List of abbreviations

APC	the Adjectival Phrase Constraint
CPC	the Clitic Pronoun Constraint
CS	codeswitching
EC	the Equivalence Constraint
FHC	the Functional Head Constraint
FMC	the Free Morpheme Constraint
OITNB	Orange Is the New Black
SFG	Systemic Functional Grammar
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics

# 1 Introduction

In the field of linguistic research, the view on *codeswitching*, i.e. the use of two or more languages in the same speech event, has developed from an indication of deficient language acquisition to a non-arbitrary linguistic characteristic of multilingual speech. Research has suggested different motivations and functions for the use of codeswitching (see e.g. Auer 2013; Bhatia and Ritchie 2004; Altarriba and Heredia 2001) as well as several constraints and grammatical characteristics (see e.g. Belazi, Rubin and Toribio 1994; Di Sciullo, Muysken and Singh 1986; Sankoff and Poplack 1981; Pfaff 1979), and studies such as those of Toribio (2001) have even begun to explore the level of codeswitching competence in bilinguals. This thesis explores codeswitching from a rather uncharted grammatical premise, through the Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) framework by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014). SFG views language as “a system of making meanings” (Halliday 1985, xvii). However, the meaning the speaker aims to convey is embedded in the structures of the language uttered. As the study of codeswitching has mostly concentrated on aspects of traditional grammar, i.e. what type of rules of use stem from grammatical structures, there is a clear need for a change of perspective – how is codeswitching involved in the creation of meaning of utterances? The aim of this thesis is to explore the role of codeswitching in the meaning-making system of SFG through analysis of possible patterns in the localization of language switches in a grammatical structure within the SFG framework.

As Vail (2006) comments in his pioneering work on exploring the role of codeswitching through Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL): “One area SFL has not yet addressed is how to describe CS as a meaning-making linguistic resource” (2006, 134). The current thesis aims to cater for this by uncovering possible patterns of codeswitching use using the SFG framework with Vail’s study as the starting ground. The basis of the SFG framework are three basic functions of language: communicating experiences, manifesting social relationships and organizing discourse sequences (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 30-31). The second one mentioned, labeled *interpersonal metafunction* by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), is the focus of this study. Focusing on the interpersonal metafunction stems from the inherently interpersonal nature of codeswitching as well as Vail’s (2006) previous research on

codeswitching within the SFG framework. Some of the components found in the clause structures involved in meaning making found within the interpersonal metafunction are also closely connected to those of traditional grammar, thus providing a link to discuss previous suggestions on the grammatical nature of codeswitching and the possible findings offered by the SFG framework. In this thesis codeswitching is approached from an angle that seems the most natural: as codeswitching in fluent bilinguals can be considered a choice often times emanating from interpersonal motivations, the possible patterns revealed when exploring how codeswitching acts within the interpersonal metafunction of SFG can offer insight for future research on the role codeswitching plays in the meaning making of utterances. In his work, discussed in more detail in Section 5, Vail suggests that codeswitching has a role in creating interpersonal meaning, thus solidifying the interpersonal focus.

The data for the study consists of English clauses with Spanish codeswitches collected from the dialogue of Latino characters of a fictional series *Orange Is the New Black* from Netflix. Although fictional data posits its own issues, discussed further in sections 6 and 8, I have dealt with the same data in my BA thesis (Hyrsky 2015), where I found the dialogue included codeswitching with form and function similar to that of naturally occurring codeswitching. Thus, I chose to use the same data source for the current thesis.

The meanings expressed through the interpersonal metafunction relate to social relationships and this metafunction considers the clause as an exchange – the speaker/writer assigns the interlocutors certain speech roles with manifestation of meanings through the interpersonal structures. The SFG framework (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014) focuses on the clause and the structures in the clauses that express the metafunction i.e. meanings. The interpersonal metafunction entails two functional structures, the Mood and The Residue, which consist of several different components. The Mood element is the structure which carries the clause forth in the interaction, meaning that it consists of components which express what the clause is about and connect the utterance to the context of the speech event. In turn the Residue consists of components that give further information on the meaning of the clause. These roles of the two elements are displayed in Figure 1 below. In addition to these elements, this thesis also takes into consideration two interpersonal components that fall outside the Mood/Residue elements, the Vocative and the Expletive. The localization of

codeswitches in these structures is analysed in order to reveal possible patterns in use.

She	is	leaving	him	for another,	isn't	she?
<i>Mood</i>		<i>Residue</i>			<i>Mood</i>	

**Figure 1** An example of the Mood/Residue breakdown of a clause

The research question for the current thesis is what types of patterns emerge in the localization of codeswitches when clauses are inspected through the structures and components in the interpersonal metafunction? The thesis also considers what type of conclusions can be drawn from the possible emerging patterns in CS use. My hypothesis is that the localization of CS in the clauses will be focused in the Residue due to two reasons:

1. The Residue carries the “extra” information and thus switching within this construction will not interrupt the message.
2. The differences in the importance of the Mood construction in creating the meaning of the clause in English and Spanish inhibit CS in the Mood.

Another aspect of the thesis is that it will discuss the application of SFG into the study of codeswitching, and especially what needs to be considered when implementing SFG on English/Spanish codeswitching.

The thesis begins with the theoretical background, where I will first discuss and define codeswitching and present previous studies conducted on Spanish/English codeswitching (section 2) in order to clarify the need to explore codeswitching from an SFG point of view. Secondly, I introduce the Systemic Functional Grammar framework (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014) and give detailed descriptions of the structures found within the interpersonal metafunction (section 3). In the theoretical portion of the thesis I also discuss the integration of SFG and codeswitching (section 4). Next, I will introduce the materials and the methods used in the study (section 5), followed by the analysis and presentation of the results (section 6). I will then provide a discussion on the findings (section 7) and I end the thesis with concluding remarks (section 8). The analysed data along with the Finnish summary can be found as appendices.

## 2 Codeswitching

Codeswitching (from here on CS) is the use of two or more languages within a single stretch of speech. CS is considered to be a fundamental feature of bi- and multilingual speech and all bi- and multilingual speakers are considered to inhabit the ability to use CS. CS can take many forms and the length of the linguistic units where CS occurs is not limited: it can occur within a word or a phrase, or it can occur in only part of a sentence or at sentence boundaries. In this study the term codeswitching will be used as an umbrella term for all types of language switches appearing in any form or length, however it is noteworthy that in CS studies the phenomenon is referred to in other terms as well, for example language mixing (Altarriba and Heredia 2001) and code-mixing (Muysken 2000), and the term used at times depends on the type of CS under discussion.

Three main approaches can be distinguished in the field of CS research: the structural, the psycholinguistic and the sociolinguistic approach. The structural approach is “concerned with that CS can reveal about language structure at all levels (lexicon, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics)” (Bullock and Toribio 2009, 14), and research in the structural branch focus on grammatical analyses of CS data to uncover possible patterns and underlying rules and models of CS. The psycholinguistic approach strives to understand “the cognitive mechanisms that underlie bilingual production, perception, and acquisition” (ibid.), and research can for example concentrate on mental processes that induce CS or the pragmatic conventions brought about by CS. The sociolinguistic approach is about focusing on “the social factors that promote or inhibit CS” (Bullock and Toribio 2009, 14) and it also “views CS as affording insights into social constructs such as power and prestige” (ibid.), and research in this area, for example, explores the different functions of CS in social interaction from classrooms to political speeches. The current study considers CS from a structural point of view with its objective of uncovering possible patterns of CS in a grammatical structure, but as the Systemic Functional Grammar framework applied in this study (explained in the following section 4) has a functional view on grammar and the grammatical structures studied are motivated by interpersonal relations, this study also thus combines the structural view with the sociolinguistic approach.

CS can be either *intersentential* or *intrasentential*. Intersentential CS refers to “the mixing of various linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses, and sentences)” (Ritchie and Bhatia 1996, 629) from two different grammatical systems beyond sentence boundaries within a speech event (*ibid.*). Intrasentential CS refers to “the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses, and sentences)” (Ritchie and Bhatia 1996, 629) from two different grammatical systems within a sentence. Ritchie and Bhatia add that intrasentential CS “is constrained by grammatical principles” (1996, 629). They also note that intrasentential switching is often considered to be a mark of the highest level of skills and competence in a bilingual (1996, 636). Ritchie and Bhatia note that the distinction between intra- and intersentential CS and its usefulness and importance has been debated, and it may be difficult to clearly separate the two from actual discourse (1996, 630). However, the suggestion that grammatical principles govern intrasentential CS differentiate the two types of CS, as it makes it more relevant to position intrasentential CS under grammatical investigation.

As the current study observes CS in relation to grammatical structures and strives to uncover possible patterns, intrasentential CS will be the main focus in the study. As previously pointed out, switches within sentences are suggested to be subjected to grammatical constraints (Ritchie and Bhatia 1996, 629). MacSwan (2013, 323) points out that “because grammatical theory is primarily focused on relations below the sentence level, research on grammatical aspects of code switching has focused almost exclusively on intrasentential code switching.” A structural grammar of CS and the constraints that affect CS have been at the center of an array of CS studies (see e.g. Sankoff and Poplack 1981; Pfaff 1979; Di Sciullo, Muysken and Singh 1986; Belazi, Rubio and Toribio 1994). The suggested constraints have also evoked counter-suggestions, such as the Minimalist framework which states that “nothing constrains code-switching apart from the requirements of the mixed grammars” (MacSwan 2013, 337). Despite the mixed notions on the grammatical principles of CS, Ritchie & Bhatia point out that the efforts to pose these constraints have revealed CS to be something that is not completely random and without principles (1996, 645).

As CS is considered to be an ability that all bilinguals possess, it can be assumed that a great variation of different language combinations can be found and studied. As Chan (2009) presents, “pioneering works focused on bilingual communities

in the United States” (2009, 182), but today there are studies on bilingual CS from all over the world, for example Europe, Asia, Africa and the Middle East (ibid.). The languages involved in CS in the present study are Spanish and English, a language pair which has been the subject of various CS studies. In the following section some of the major contributors to Spanish/English CS studies are presented and their propositions concerning the grammar, i.e. constraints, of CS relating to the two languages are discussed. The discussion on previous research into the grammatical aspects of Spanish/English CS aids in discussing what type of patterns may be expected to appear in the use of CS and what SFG research can bring to the table when it comes to research on CS behaviour.

### 3 Spanish/English CS

One of the major contributors to CS studies is Shana Poplack, who carried out pioneering empirical studies on Spanish/English CS in a Puerto Rican community in the United States (Poplack 1980, Poplack 1981). Based on the studies, Poplack made two claims on general linguistic constraints of CS: *the Free Morpheme Constraint* (FMC) and *the Equivalence Constraint* (EC). According to the FMC, switches are not permitted between a bound morpheme and a lexical form unless the lexical form has been phonologically integrated into the language of the bound morpheme (Sankoff and Poplack 1981, 5). Switches such as those in examples (1) and (2) represent erroneous switches where a Spanish bound morpheme, *-iendo* and *-eando*, have been affixed to English verbs.

(1) \*EAT-iendo ‘eating’ (Poplack 1980, 586)

(2) \*runeando ‘running’ (Sankoff and Poplack 1981, 5)

The EC, then, is explained by Poplack as the tendency to codeswitch at points “where the juxtaposition of L1 and L2 elements does not violate a syntactic rule of either language, i.e. at points around which the surface structures of the two languages map onto each other” (1980, 586). This means that switches are not permitted in a structure that is not present in both languages. Figure 2 presents Poplack’s example of permissible switch points (dotted lines) and how constituents equvalate to each other in Spanish and English (1980, 586). Sentence C represents the actual utterance of the speaker (ibid.)

A.	Eng	I	told him	that	so that	he	would bring it	fast.
		↑		↑	↑	↑		↑
B.	Sp.	(Yo)	le dije	eso	pa' que	(él)	la trajera	ligero.
C.	Cs	I	told him	that	PA' QUE		LA TRAJERA	LIGERO. (04/73)

**Figure 2** Permissible codeswitching points by Poplack (1980, 586)

Based on the constraint, Poplack presented a list of major CS types in Spanish/English CS (Poplack 1981, 176-177). These switch types correspond to structures that map onto each other in the two languages, thus facilitating CS. The switch types are presented in Figure 3.

**1. Full Sentence:**

*ella canta canciones insultando a los hombres.* That's why you never heard of her. (She sings songs insulting men. That's why you never heard of her.)

**2. Conjoined Sentence:**

*yo voy por to' esos sitios y I was in 7<sup>th</sup> Avenue and Broadway.* (I go to all those places and I was in 7<sup>th</sup> Avenue and Broadway.)

**3. Interjection**

There should be a stop with these kids where there should be sta- discipline. *¡contra!* You know, open classrooms... (There should be a stop with these kinds where there should be sta- discipline. Darn! You know, open classrooms...)

**4. Between Major Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase**

Years ago people *se iban a trabajar.* (Years ago people would go to work.)

**5. Between Verb Phrase and Object Noun Phrase**

What ruined this people is *la vagancia de no 'cer na.* (What ruined this people is the laziness of not doing anything.)

**6. Between Verb Phrase and Prepositional Phrase**

*tu quieres meter mano* wid a man, that's your business. (You wan to fool around wid a man, that's your business.)

**7. Between Verb and Adverb**

*Un americano me puede preguntar* very nicely "*hace tiempo que yo te estoy viendo así y perdona que te pregunte.*" (An American can ask me very nicely "I've been seeing you like this for some time and excuse me for asking you.")

**8. Between Noun and Adjective**

*cojo mi garlic puro.* (I take my garlic pure.)

**9. Between Determiner and Noun**

Because if you smash it with the *pilón* and spray it, you don't get that burning sensation. (Because if you smash it with the pestle and spray it, you don't get that burning sensation.)

**10. Between Auxiliary and Verb**

So... you take the ham... as they're *ablandando, ya que está un poquito hirviendo, tu le echas el güeso del jamón.* (So... you take the ham... as they're softening, as they're boiling a little, you throw in the ham bone.)

**Figure 3** Major switch types of Spanish/English CS by Poplack (1981, 176-177)

As an example of a surface structure that is different in the two languages, we can consider the differing placement of adjectives in a noun phrase. Attributive adjectives are postnominal, except for a closed set of adjectives which can precede the noun, in Spanish, whereas in English the attributive adjectives precede the noun. Thus, switches inside nominal phrases between a noun and its attributive adjective are to be considered ill-formed. Examples 3 and 4 by Ritchie and Bhatia (1996, 641) represent erroneous types of switches regarding these types of phrases.

(3) \*el viejo man ‘the old man’

(4) \*the old hombre ‘the old man’

Before Poplack, Carol Pfaff also proposed CS constraints based on studies on Spanish/English CS in the speech of Mexican Americans in the United States (1979). The proposed constraints are in accordance with Poplack’s suggestions on switches occurring in structures shared by the two languages but are more specific as they refer to certain types of structures. The constraints presented by Pfaff (1979) are *the Clitic Pronoun Constraint* (CPC) and *the Adjectival Phrase Constraint* (APC). The CPC suggests that “clitic pronoun objects are realized in the same language as the verb to which they are cliticized, and in the position required by the syntactic rule of that language” (Pfaff 1979, 303). According to the CPC then, as Spanish and English have a differing position of the clitic pronoun, i.e. the clitic pronoun precedes the verb in Spanish but follows it in English, the verb and the pronoun must be in the same language in an utterance (ibid.). Examples 5 and 6 demonstrate this distinction with the clitic pronouns underlined.

(5) *El perro* chewed him up. ‘The dog...’ (Pfaff 1979, 301).

(6) *Sabes* los *cambian* around. ‘You know they change them around.’ (Pfaff 1979, 302).

The proposition of the APC is that “adjective/noun mixes must match the surface word order of both the language of the adjective and the language of the head noun” (Pfaff 1979, 306). According to the APC, in English/Spanish CS the mixing of the languages between adjacent nouns and adjectives in a noun phrase is prohibited, because the positioning of the two is different in the two languages (ibid.), as demonstrated in examples 3 and 4 above. However, Pfaff points out that switches between an adjective and a noun are possible with possessive pronouns, ordinal

quantifiers and other limiting adjectives (1979, 306). As is evident, the two constraints proposed by Pfaff are both accounted for in Poplack's Equivalence Constraint as they both have to do with restrictions set by differing surface structures in the languages.

In her work, Pfaff (1979) also makes other observations on differences between Spanish and English grammar which affect CS between the languages. Regarding verbs, "Spanish distinguishes more categories of tense and mood by verb suffix" (Pfaff 1979, 299) than English does and the verbal suffixes in Spanish agree with their subject in person and number (*ibid.*). One of the most salient difference is that non-emphatic subjects can be deleted in Spanish, because the verbs mark subject agreement, whereas English "requires an overt subject" (*ibid.*). As demonstrated in example 7, the utterance lacks an overt subject.

(7) *Estaba training para pelear.* 'He was training to fight.' (Pfaff 1979, 299)

However, as Pfaff points out, Spanish and English share a significant feature as they both apply "verbal constructions in which unconjugated verb forms follow conjugated auxiliaries or complement-taking verbs" (1979, 299).

Although the EC has its merits and accounts for many patterns found in Spanish/English CS, it does not account for some restrictions observed in Spanish/English CS research. In a study on accessing CS competence by Toribio (2001), fluent Spanish/English bilinguals read and then produced CS-laden content both orally and in writing. The study revealed that the widely suggested restriction on switching between auxiliaries and main verbs in Spanish/English CS is evident in the results, as the participants in the study did not reproduce such switches (2001, 429). As the verbal construction of auxiliary verbs preceding main verbs is present in both Spanish and English, according to the EC a switch between the two would be possible. Thus, *the Functional Head Constraint* (FHC) is presented by Belazi, Rubin and Toribio (1994) as a restriction to further explain "coherence and co-occurrence restrictions attested in Spanish-English codeswitching" (Toribio 2001, 430). According to the constraint, CS between a functional head and its complement is restricted because of the strong relation between them (Belazi, Rubio and Toribio 1994, 228). As further explained by Toribio (2001):

"In brief, the proposal holds that a functional element and its complement will be drawn from the same subclass of lexical items, precluding switching between functional elements – such

as modals, auxiliaries, negation, determiners, and subordinating and coordinating conjunctions – and their complements.”

(Toribio 2001, 430).

Examples 8, 9 and 10 from Belazi, Rubio and Toribio (1994) clarify the constraint. In the ill-formed example 8, the language switch occurs between the functional element Negator and its complementary verb, and in example 9 a disallowed switch between the functional element of an auxiliary and its complement verb is present. Example 10 presents an example of an acceptable switch in accordance with the FHC.

- (8) \**El hombre no* wants the book. ‘The man doesn’t want the book.’ (1994, 229).
- (9) \*The police officers have *visto un ladrón*. ‘The police officers have seen a thief.’ (1994, 230).
- (10) *Las policías han visto* a thief. ‘The police officers have seen a thief.’ (1994, 230).

Another aspect discussed in CS research is the idea put forth by MacSwan (2000), the Minimalist Program, which suggests that “nothing constrains code switching apart from the requirements of the mixed grammars” (MacSwan 2000, 43). According to the Minimalist Program, no mechanisms or constraints are made for codeswitching specifically, as the approach concentrates on exploring how grammatical components come together in a bilingual context (ibid.). The main idea is that bilingual language use is constrained only by the same principles that can be found in monolingual language use (ibid.). In his work MacSwan (2000) discusses how the suggested CS principles and constraints lack empirical evidence in different language combinations, and thus expresses that mechanisms that take into consideration the grammatical aspects of both languages are a more fruitful way of examining codeswitching. Even though CS studies have shown that the use of CS is not an arbitrary practice that lacks any type of structure and purpose, MacSwan’s suggestion is valuable since there seems to be no way of producing universal constraints on a phenomenon that can include any language mixture in the world.

In this section I have discussed the CS phenomenon in general, as well as from a structural point of view as I went through the suggested grammatical influences on English/Spanish CS. These constraints and grammatical suggestions of CS are

presented as to discuss the type of grammatical study that has been conducted on CS, and also because previous research influences the hypotheses and discussion of the current thesis. The grammatical constraints discussed mostly refer to structures in traditional grammar, but the current thesis employs a different approach to grammar, *Systemic Functional Grammar* (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014). Traditional grammar considers grammar as “rules for specifying structures” (Matthiessen and Halliday 2009,2) and deals with these rules regarding different structural units, whereas the foundation for Systemic Functional Grammar is that “grammar is a resource for creating meaning in the form of wordings” (ibid.). It considers language as a resource of meanings and demonstrates language as a system of these resources (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014). Thompson explains that Systemic Functional Grammar introduces “a range of other types of functional labels, reflecting the fact that clauses do not express only one kind of meaning (or perform only one kind of function)” (2004, 20). In the following section I will briefly explore Systemic Functional Grammar overall and then go through in detail the interpersonal part of the framework employed in this thesis.

## **4 Systemic Functional Grammar and the interpersonal metafunction**

The Systemic Functional Grammar approach (from now on SFG) was developed by M.A.K Halliday, and it emerged from systemic theory and functional grammar. Halliday developed the framework starting from his seminal paper in 1961 and in his 1985 work “An Introduction to Functional Grammar” he presents his grammatical descriptions that have been further revised in later editions in 1994 and later in 2004 by Christian Matthiessen. Halliday describes language as “a system of making meanings” (Halliday 1985, xvii), and in this system “the meaning is always more than the sum of the individual words” (Thompson 2004, 29). Thompson clarifies that the meaning is what the speaker wants the audience to understand, and thus the meaning of a sentence is equated with its function (2004, 7). Another important concept in the functional view is the context, which is considered to be interdependent with language – context affects language choices and language choices construe context (Thompson 2004, 9). The main attention in SFG is on the clause, because as Halliday explains, in functional interpretations grammatical structures are explained by reference to the meaning, and

the larger units of a language are, in principle, the constructs that realize higher-level patterns (Halliday 1985, 21).

Halliday's SFG framework (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014) presents three types of meaning or *metafunctions*, which are present in a clause simultaneously but each with its own components construes the meaning and function of the clause. The *ideational metafunction* relates the utterance to describing experiences, the *interpersonal metafunction* deals with meanings relating to interaction and maintaining relationships with others, and the *textual metafunction* explores how messages and their organization relate to a wider context (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 30-31). The previous studies on the grammar of CS have concentrated on patterns according to traditional grammar. As the use of CS is motivated by different factors, such as degree of formality and social distancing, many of them interpersonal and contextually intertwined (discussed in section 5), the inspection of CS through SFG offers a more functional view on the grammatical patterns of CS. That is, it does not only consider the grammatical rules set by the grammatical systems of the languages, but takes into consideration the contextual setting and the influence from the speakers themselves and the meanings that are being conveyed. Although the three metafunctions in SFG are all represented in the clause simultaneously, the focus of this study is on the interpersonal metafunction, based on the interpersonal implications that CS carries as well as indications from research on CS through the SFG framework (Vail 2006), discussed further in section 5. Thus, the experiential and the textual metafunctions will not be explained further.

According to Halliday, the interpersonal metafunction is concerned with how the clause functions as "a form of exchange between speaker and listener" (1985, 101). The clause is examined as an interactive event that the speaker/writer and audience play a part in (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 133). In the interaction, the speaker selects a speech role for themselves and through that role they also assign a part for the listener (*ibid.*), for example with an offer the speaker assigns themselves as the giver and thus appoints the listener as a receiver. Halliday presents as the fundamental speech roles *giving* and *demanding* and identifies the main commodities that are exchanged in the interaction as *goods & services* and *information* (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 135). As the result of these two variables, Halliday presents four main speech functions: offer, command, statement and question (*ibid.*), presented in

Figure 4. with their respective desired responses (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 137).

		Initiation [A/B]	Response	
			expected [C]	discretionary [D]
give [M]	goods-&-services [X]	offer shall I give you this teapot?	acceptance yes, please, do!	rejection no, thanks
demand [N]		command give me that teapot!	undertaking here you are	refusal I won't
give [M]	information [Y]	statement he's giving her the teapot	acknowledgement is he?	contradiction no, he isn't
demand [N]		question what is he giving her?	answer a teapot	disclaimer I don't know

**Figure 4** Speech functions and desired responses by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 137)

Halliday points out that the commodity exchanged in the interaction or the response of the listener are at times non-verbal (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 135); for example, in commanding someone to do something, the response is the carrying out of the action (or the opposite) of the command.

Halliday goes further to specify a distinction between the semantic function of a clause in the two different commodity exchanges. When exchanging goods & services, the semantic function of the clause is a proposal, as opposed to the exchange of information where the function of the clause is a proposition (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 139). This distinction brings forth two main issues that differentiate statements and questions, i.e. propositions from offers and commands, i.e. proposals; propositions can be argued and they have a clearly defined grammar (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 138-139). In contrast to propositions, offers and commands can't be affirmed, denied, insisted on, contradicted etc. (ibid.). Halliday points out that language in the context of offers and commands functions as "a means towards achieving what are essentially non-linguistic ends" (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 139) and thus no defined grammar has been developed for them (ibid.).

The reason why the proposition-proposal distinction is worth pointing out is because the beforementioned characteristics of propositions serve as a means to

interpret the clause in its exchange function (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 139). Through the grammatical resources developed for propositions, Halliday explains the functional structures that make up the clause in the SFG theory, more specifically the Mood and the Residue. These structures and the components they entail, which are identified in the data of this thesis, will be explored and clarified in the following sections. All the examples in these following sections are of my own making unless stated otherwise. The elements in question are underlined in the examples.

#### **4.1 The Mood element**

The Mood is described by Halliday and Matthiessen as the element which carries the dialogue forward (2014, 193). The Mood element expresses the interpersonal meaning in a clause through the two elements it consists of – *the Subject* and *the Finite*. Before these terms are further explained, it is useful to demonstrate why these two components are separated as a unit from the rest of the clause. Consider this example from Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 139): “*He loves me. He don’t. He’ll have me. He won’t. He would if he could. But he can’t so he don’t.*” From this traditional rhyme one can see, that only a certain part of the clause is re-used, and yet the rest of the clause is not repeated, the meaning still carries over. “*Love(s) me* and *have me* are “understood from one line to the next, only a small part of the clause being used to carry the sentiments forward” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 139). This small part is the Mood, and it has a specific semantic function as the carrier of the clause “as an interactive event” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 146). The two parts repeated are the Subject “he” and the Finite “don’t/won’t”. The Mood element also becomes explicit through the adding of a *tag* after the clause: “He didn’t do it, did he? She had to do it, didn’t she?”. In the tag, the two components of the Mood are repeated, and it often serves as an indicator that a response is demanded and what the response is expected to be (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 137).

##### **The Subject**

As mentioned, the two parts of the Mood are (1) the Subject and (2) the Finite. The Subject is a construction that belongs in the nominal group or is a nominalized phrase or clause (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 146). In its first appearance it can be any nominal group, but in repeating it is replaced by the corresponding personal pronoun (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 140), as demonstrated by example 11 below. As for

the meaning of the Subject, Thompson expresses the Subject to be the thing the clause is 'about' from the interpersonal perspective (2004, 53). Halliday and Matthiessen describe the Subject as the one "responsible for the success of the proposal" (2014, 146), which is recognizable in offers and commands such as "I'll do it for you, shall I?" or "You stop shouting at once!". Although this description is about offers and commands, Halliday and Matthiessen point out that the same principle operates in statements and questions (2014, 146). The Subject determines the elements that is responsible, but in propositions it specifies the entity responsible for the validity of the claim made (ibid.). For example, in example 11 the Subject is "my mom" and 'mom' carries the responsibility of the proposition of 'a rose was given to someone', which could be affirmed or denied as in "yes, she was" or "no, she wasn't".

(11) My mom was given a rose by the committee, wasn't she?

Thompson (2004) elaborates, that when identifying the Subject in cases where the Subject is an embedded clause and the clause includes and anticipatory 'it', both are labelled as the Subject, demonstrated in example 12 from Thompson (2004, 51):

(12) It was Grice who spoke next.

### **The Finite**

The other part that makes up the Mood is the Finite, which is realized by a part of a verbal group (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 140). The Finite differs from the Subject in another sense as well: the element is explicitly realized only by "a small number of verbal operators" (ibid.) that express tense or modality, as listed in Figure 5 (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 145).

<b>Temporal operators:</b>			
	<b>Past</b>	<b>Present</b>	<b>Future</b>
<b>positive</b>	did, was, had, used to	does, is, have	will, shall, would, should
<b>negative</b>	didn't, wasn't, hadn't, didn't + used to	doesn't, isn't, hasn't	won't, shan't, wouldn't, shouldn't
<b>Modal operators:</b>			
	<b>Low</b>	<b>Median</b>	<b>High</b>
<b>positive</b>	can, may, could, might, (dare)	will, would, should, is/was to	must, ought to, need, has/had to
<b>negative</b>	needn't, doesn't/didn't + need to, have to	won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, (isn't/wasn't to)	mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't, (mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to)

**Figure 5** Finite verbal operators by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 145)

In addition to these specific realizations of the Finite, the element can be found 'fused' into a verb when the verb is in simple past or simple present, is in active voice, is positive in polarity and neutral in contrast (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 140), demonstrated in examples 13 and 14. Halliday points out that these fused forms are the most common form of the verb in English (ibid.). In examples 15 and 16, the Finite is explicit.

- (13) He loves me dearly.
- (14) She gives me roses every day.
- (15) He did love me for a time.
- (16) She had given be roses earlier.

The Finite has the function of relating the assertion to the context of the speech event and presenting it as something that can be argued, and this is realized through *primary tense* and/or *modality* (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 144). Primary tense refers to how the Finite references to the time of the utterance, and as Halliday expresses it, "a proposition may become arguable through being located in time by reference to the speech event" (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 144). 'These temporal terms' refer to the realization of primary tense as past, present or future at the point of uttering (ibid.). Modality refers to how the Finite expresses judgement of the speaker, meaning the

probabilities or obligations the speaker attaches to their utterance (ibid.). Halliday also presents a third feature of the Finite – *polarity* (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 144). For an assertion to be arguable, it has to be assigned as being either positive or negative, e.g. *did* or *didn't*, *is* or *isn't* (ibid.).

## 4.2 The Residue

What remains of the clause is called the Residue. Halliday identifies three kinds of functional elements in the Residue: *Predicator*, *Complement and Adjunct* (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 151). As the Mood is seen as the component which sets out the proposition or proposal and who or what its validity is in reference to, the Residue can be considered as the component that fills in the details. In this section the three functional elements in the Residue are presented as they are defined in Halliday's work (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014). I will also present two elements, the Vocative and the Expletive, which fall outside the Mood-Residue structure but carry interpersonal value according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 159).

### The Predicator

The Predicator is a component belonging in the verbal group and there can only be one of them in a clause (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 151) However, note that the verbal group functioning as the Predicator can consist of several verbal operators, demonstrated in examples 17 and 18 below. The verbal group that realizes the Predicator lacks the temporal or modal operator, as it is already functioning as the Finite in the Mood (ibid.). Thus, the Predicator is non-finite (ibid.). The Predicator has four functions in the clause: specifying time reference aside from reference to the time of the speech event, specifying other aspects and phases of the claim (e.g. seeming or trying), specifying the voice as active or passive and specifying the process insisted of the Subject (e.g. mental process or relation) (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 151-152).

(17) I have been trying to get an appointment for next week.

(18) They may be having a party on Saturday.

Halliday points out that two English verbs appear only as the Finite when in simple present or simple past and should not be assumed as a fused form of the Finite and Predicator; these verbs are *be* and *have* (have as 'possess') (Halliday and Matthiessen

2014, 153), demonstrated in examples 19 and 20. The negatives of the verbs reveal that they are in fact not fused forms: *isn't* and *wasn't* as the negatives of *is* and *hasn't* as the negative of *have* (ibid.). These verbs as Predicators in a clause work in the typical way in all other tenses (ibid.), as demonstrated in examples 21 and 22.

(19) I was at the party earlier.

(20) I have a terrible cough.

(21) I had been at the party earlier.

(22) I had had a terrible cough.

### **The Complement**

The Complement is an element which could have been chosen as the Subject but is not, and it is commonly realized by a nominal group (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 153), demonstrated in examples 23 and 24. The Residue can include one or two Complements (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 151).

(23) She gave me roses yesterday.

(24) I didn't see him at all.

Halliday notes, that all other nominal groups except for the one functioning as Subject are Complements, except for certain circumstantial Adjuncts (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 153). He points out that this includes thus those nominal groups that can't function as the Subject, such as those where an adjective acts as Head (ibid.), demonstrated in example 25 from Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 154). The Complement component may also be a prepositional phrase or an adverbial group in relational clauses (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 154), demonstrated by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 154) in examples 26 and 27.

(25) The clergy's concern was, of course, still spiritual.

(26) He is Minister for Industry but his degree is in agricultural science.

(27) Where's our cake?

## The Adjunct

The Adjunct element on the other hand does not carry the possibility of being the Subject, and it is commonly realized by an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 154-155), demonstrated in examples 28 and 29. There can be an indefinite number of Adjuncts up to about seven in one clause (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 151).

(28) I was given some roses yesterday.

(29) I was given roses by my peers.

Halliday distinguishes three types of Adjuncts: circumstantial Adjuncts, conjunctive Adjuncts and modal Adjuncts (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 156). However, the types of Adjuncts differ in their interpersonal significance and their location in the interpersonal structures: circumstantial Adjuncts belong in the Residue, some modal Adjuncts belong in Mood, and conjunctive Adjuncts and some modal Adjuncts are not a part of the interpersonal Mood-Residue structure at all (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 157). As Halliday & Matthiessen express that conjunctive Adjuncts, such as *anyway*, *also* and *alternatively*, are textual in function, not interpersonal (2014, 157), they won't be further discussed.

Circumstantial adjuncts express some circumstance related to the process presented in the clause (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 156), such as those in examples 28 and 29 above. Modal Adjuncts, then, “--- express the speaker/writer's judgement on or attitude to the content of the message” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 108). Modal Adjuncts are divided into two types, mood Adjuncts which are located in the Mood element and comment Adjuncts which fall outside the Mood-Residue structure but are interpersonally relevant (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 157). Examples 30 and 31 demonstrate mood Adjuncts and example 32 demonstrates a comment Adjunct.

(30) I always try my best.

(31) They eventually gave me what I wanted.

(32) Unfortunately, I didn't get any roses from them.

## The Vocative and the Expletive

Two elements which contribute to the interpersonal function of a clause but fall outside of the Mood-Residue structure are brought up by Halliday and Matthiessen: The Vocative and the Expletive (2014, 159). Vocatives are used by the speaker to identify the person they are addressing or call for a particular person's attention (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 159), as in examples 33 and 34 from Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 159). Halliday and Matthiessen also note that the Vocative is often used in dialogue to express interpersonal relationships, for example "claiming superior status or power" (2014, 159).

(33) It's lovely darling. – Thanks. Thank you Craig so much for saying so.

(34) Mum, do you know where the scissors are?

Expletives, then, are used by the speaker to express their "current attitude or state of mind" (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 159), as in the following examples 35 and 36 by Halliday and Matthiessen (ibid.)

(35) God, mine's terrific.

(36) Now straight – straight – Jesus! Ok; open the door.

Many of the terms used in SFG are familiar from traditional grammar, and although their construction in SFG may often be very similar, e.g. 'Subject' can consist of a single noun, a nominal phrase or a clause, it is important to remember their difference from a functional point of view, and what implications the functions of the components may carry over to the use of CS. The close relation between the Subject and the Finite as the carriers of the interaction may for example affect CS tendencies between the two components as well as between the Mood and the Residue. Identifying the different components and the occurrence of CS between or within them may reveal patterns that can be explained by the functional relations of the components themselves.

In these sections I have explored the different elements and components of the interpersonal metafunction which are identified in the data of this thesis. These descriptions are the basis of identifying the components, but there are two other aspects that contribute to identifying the different elements – the mood system and the

order in which the components occur. These aspects are explored in the following section.

### 4.3 The mood system and the ordering of the components

According to Halliday and Matthiessen, every free clause, a clause that can stand independently, takes a choice for *mood* (2014, 97).

“MOOD is the major interpersonal system of the clause; it provides interactants involved in dialogue with the resources for giving or demanding a commodity, either information or goods-&services – in other words with the resources for enacting speech functions through the grammar of the clause.” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 97)

Halliday and Matthiessen present *the mood system*, which classifies independent major clauses as either *indicative* or *imperative* in mood (2014, 97). A clause indicative in mood can then either be *declarative* or *interrogative*, and interrogative clauses are either *polar interrogative* (yes/no) or *content interrogative* (with a WH-element) (ibid). The mood system is connected to the textual metafunction through the different thematic structures that the different moods express (ibid.). However, the system is more tightly associated with the interpersonal metafunction, as the mood choices are realized by different orderings of components in the Mood (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 143).

Halliday and Matthiessen explain how the general principle of the mood choice goes: the grammatical category of indicative is typically used for information exchange, and within the indicative, declaratives characteristically express statements and interrogatives express questions (2014, 143). The interrogative mood is further categorized into yes/no interrogative for polar questions and WH-interrogative for content questions (ibid.). The mood system’s realization through the Mood element goes as follows according to Halliday:

(1) The presence of the Mood element, consisting of Subject and Finite, realize the features ‘indicative’.

(2) Within the indicative, what is significant is the order of Subject and Finite:

(a) The order Subject before Finite realizes ‘declarative’.

(b) The order Finite before Subject realizes ‘yes/no interrogative’;

(c) In a ‘WH- interrogative’ the order is:

(i) Subject before Finite if the WH- element is the Subject;

(ii) Finite before Subject otherwise. “

(Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 143)

Halliday goes further to specify how the WH- element in interrogatives plays a part in the ordering of components in the clause. The WH- element is always merged with either the Subject, Complement or Adjunct (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 160). If it is merged with the Subject, the order of components in the Mood is Subject before Finite and the WH-elements is part of the Mood (ibid.). If the element is merged with a Complement or Adjunct, it belongs in the Residue and the ordering in the Mood is the typical interrogative ordering of Finite before Subject (ibid.). These WH- interrogative types are demonstrated with in Figure 6 (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 163).

who	killed		Cock Robin
Subject/WH-	'past' Finite	'kill' Predicator	Complement
Mood		Residue	

whose little boy	are	you
Complement/ WH-	Finite	Subject
Residue	Mood	

where	have	all the flowers	gone
Adjunct/ WH-	Finite	Subject	Predicator
Residue		Mood	

**Figure 6** Wh-elements conflated with Subject, Complement and Adjunct by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 163)

The mood choice of imperative, i.e. demanding goods & services (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 97), can be realized completely without the Mood element in its unmarked occurrence (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 165), demonstrated in examples 37 and 38. However, imperative mood choice can also be realized with a Mood element composed only of Finite or Subject, or it can include both components in its marked occurrence (ibid.), as in examples 39 and 40.

(37) Look over there!

(38) Hold out your hand!

(39) Don't, please.

(40) You do the dishes!

However, as Halliday and Matthiessen point out, there are properties of English dialogue that enable the omission of modal elements (2014, 193). *Ellipsis*, the omission of elements that are presupposed from previous dialogue, makes it possible, for example, for a clause to consist only of Mood with the Residue omitted (ibid.), demonstrated in example 41.

(41) Will you do the dishes? – I will. (omitted Residue: do the dishes)

Halliday and Matthiessen note that even though “every free clause in English requires a Subject, because without a Subject it is impossible to express the mood of the clause, at least in the usual fashion” (2014, 193), there are circumstances under which the Subject is absent in dialogue. Each clause type has an unmarked, i.e. assumed, choice of Subject (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 194). For offers and statements the unmarked choice for Subject is ‘I’ whereas for questions and commands the assumed Subject is ‘you’ (ibid.). If no other implication of a Subject is present and the utterance interpreted as one of these clause types, the Subject is assumed as either ‘I’ or ‘you’, as evident in the following examples from Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 194):

(42) Carry your bag? (‘Shall I ...?’)

(43) Met Fred on the way here. (‘I ...’)

(44) Seen Fred? (‘Have you ...?’)

(45) Play us a tune. (‘Will you ...?’)

As illustrated in examples 42, 44 and 45, the whole Mood element is omitted in the instance of an absent, unmarked Subject (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 195). Information clauses however may have the Finite present as to express tense or modality or, as in example 43, because the Finite is fused with the Predicator (ibid.). The context can affect whether the omitted Subject is understood as the unmarked one

or something else, as in in the following example from Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 195):

- (46) Seen Fred? ('Have you ...?')  
- No; must be away. ('He ...').

In this section I have presented the SFG theory by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), more specifically the interpersonal metafunction and the structures that it entails. The descriptions provided help to understand the analysis made on the data in this thesis. The distinctions of the different components are also necessary for the purpose of distinguishing them from the units and terms of traditional grammar. In the following section I will discuss the integration of SFG into the study of CS, the issues brought about by the inclusion of two different languages in the analysis, and previous work on CS from an SFG point of view.

## **5 Applying SFG on English/Spanish CS**

As is evident from the discussion in sections 2 and 3, CS is a phenomenon that has been greatly studied from a structural point of view, with an emphasis on how it behaves in the scope of traditional grammar. Another research objective on CS briefly mentioned in section 2 are the functions that the switches manifest, and different functions of CS have been defined and discussed for example in the works of Altarriba and Heredia (2001), Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) and Auer (2013). As CS is considered to serve different functions, and different forms and grammatical constraints have been suggested, it is quite interesting that studying CS from a Systemic Functional Grammar point of view has not been a point of interest. CS clearly has function and carries meaning in an utterance, thus it can be expected to also have significance in the construction of meaning and function of the utterance itself. SFG explores how the different meanings in utterances manifest, and thus serves as a mode to explore the way CS plays a part in these manifestations.

As I noted, studying CS from an SFG point of view has not been a topic of vast interest, but some groundwork has been laid to explore this view on CS. Peter Vail (2006) integrated CS into the systemic functional approach in his paper on codeswitching among Thai and Lao speakers in Northeastern Thailand. Vail explored CS with a Systemic Functional Linguistic metafunctional framework considering all

three metafunctions, and his study revealed CS “that clearly function as tools for textual cohesion and interpersonal meaning” (2006, 159), but no clear role for CS in the ideational metafunction was suggested (ibid.). In Vail’s opinion this was due to the similarities in the transitivity systems of the two languages observed (ibid.). Vail observed CS both at clause boundaries and within clauses, labelling them as switching and mixing respectively (2006, 134). Vail discusses the interpersonal dimension of both of these CS types and in the case of CS below the clause level, Vail found mixing occurring with pronouns and politeness markers (2006, 146). Vail’s (2006) observations are made on a rather surface level, as the work does not discuss how CS occurs or behaves regarding the mood system or the Mood and Residue elements. This may be due to the fact that according to Vail, the languages in question are almost identical grammatically (2006, 146). As the languages in Vail’s study differed mainly in semantic and lexical ways, the discussion on SFG disparity is not relevant for his study. Although in his work Vail addresses the fact that the language data chosen limits the findings to the two particular languages and the particular cultural context (2006, 135), I consider Vail’s work to be instrumental in sparking interest in SFG studies on CS, as his conclusions showed that CS plays a part in creating the different meanings expressed in SFG, at least in regards to the interpersonal and the textual metafunctions. For the present study especially, Vail’s (2006) findings justify the exploration of the role of CS in the construction of meanings from an interpersonal point of view. I also agree with Vail’s discussion on previous CS research and why implementing SFG or SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) is the logical next step in CS research:

All of these valuable approaches have shed light on different aspects of the phenomenon, but they are ultimately difficult to integrate because they start with starkly different assumptions and pursue different aims. Grammatical accounts of codeswitching have emphasized constraints over affordances, linguistic rules over semiotic resources, and ‘language’ as an abstraction over its flesh-and-blood users. CA approaches have been strong in analyzing the minutiae of conversation, but have discounted broader context and meaning beyond the immediate interaction. Studies in language and identity have effectively examined CS as a semiotic resource in the construction of identity, but such studies typically lack a fine-grained model of language. An analysis of CS within an SFL paradigm might be way to reap the various insights gained from these disparate approaches and integrate them into a single functional model of language, one focused on meaning-making and context.

(Vail 2006, 134)

The SFG framework discussed in section 4, and applied in this thesis, by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) considers the English language. The meanings expressed by the three metafunctions and even the structures within the metafunctions may be considered universally applicable, but it is evident from further research among other languages (see e.g. Banks 2017; Lavid, Arús and Zamorano-Mansilla 2010 and Li 2007), that how meaning is created within clauses and how the meanings within the metafunctions come forth may differ from language to language. Undoubtedly, this is an issue that must be acknowledged when applying SFG on CS: there are two languages to consider, and both languages have their own way of expressing meaning. As the present study goes to analyse CS on a more detailed level, i.e. the Mood-Residue structure, it's important to address the issues brought about by differences in the way two languages behave regarding the structures in the interpersonal metafunction. Even though, as was mentioned in section 3, English and Spanish share many grammatical features which enable CS between the languages at the clause level, when it comes to SFG and analysis regarding mood and the Mood structure, there are some major differences. Lavid, Arús and Zamorano-Mansilla (2010) discuss these differences in their work on SFG of Spanish.

The most vital difference in the structures of the interpersonal metafunction between English and Spanish is that the role of the Mood element is more limited in Spanish (Lavid, Arús and Zamorano-Mansilla 2010, 242). The Mood element is not as clearly a separate functional unit, as is evident from the fact that the Subject and the Finite are not present in tags or as realizations of speech functions in elliptical clauses (ibid.). Even though the particles that realize the tag element in Spanish vary regionally and even individually, the shared feature is that neither the Subject nor the Finite is repeated in it (Lavid, Arús and Zamorano-Mansilla 2010, 261). The tags are mostly single words relating to polarity, for example 'no', 'verdad (true)' or 'sí (yes)' that are expressed with a rising tone (ibid.). Examples 47 and 48 from Lavid, Arús and Zamorano-Mansilla (2010) represent tag usage in Spanish, the tags are underlined.

(47) *Eso no lo pones como extranjero, ¿no?*  
 'You don't mark that [expression] as foreign, do you?' (Lavid, Arús and Zamorano-Mansilla 2010, 284)

(48) *No quiero decir que sean mejores que los más antiguos, ¿verdad?*



As can be seen from Figure 7, both languages have two main types of mood choice: the indicative and the imperative. The indicative has the same subcategories of interrogative and declarative, and the interrogative can be classified as yes-no interrogative or wh-interrogative in both languages. The differences concern the further subcategorization of the imperative, the yes-no interrogative and the declarative.

The data of the current study focuses on clauses with CS from English to Spanish, thus it is irrelevant to go into further detail on the SFG suggested for Spanish. As the analysis is done from the interpersonal point of view and focuses on the Mood and Residue elements, it is viable to focus on clauses that derive from the language system of English, as in English the Mood has a greater meaning in expressing the function of the clause. Issues with the data available, explained in more detail in the following section 6, also make it less feasible to analyse switches from Spanish to English regarding the Mood-Residue structure from the current data source.

In section 3, constraints made on CS overall and on Spanish/English CS are discussed, and even though the constraints are based on analysis made with traditional grammar in mind, the suggested grammatical patterns provide a basis for hypotheses made for analysis through SFG. For example, some of the permissible switch points for English/Spanish CS suggested by Poplack (1981) can be considered indication of where switches within the structures in the interpersonal SFG framework are also permissible to occur: a permissible switch between a verb phrase and an object noun phrase indicates that a switch between the Finite or the Predicator and a following Complement is possible, a permissible switch between a verb phrase and a prepositional phrase indicates that a switch between the Finite or the Predicator and an Adjunct is possible. The suggested switch points also go below the component level, for example to switches within noun phrases, which can act as the Subject or the Complement or be a part of an Adjunct. The most interesting switch point suggested is that within a verb phrase – according to Poplack (1981), a switch between an auxiliary and a verb is permissible. However, as mentioned in section 3, there is a suggestion that the Functional Head constraint opposes these types of switches, and evidence from research shows that bilinguals avoid these types of switches. The basis of Poplack's (1981) propositions was that switches may occur between two languages when the surface structures are similar, but in the case of verbal structures in Spanish and English, SFG may help in understanding underlying patterns that affect switch

patterns. Because the interpersonal information that the verbal components carry is different between Spanish and English, i.e. a non-emphatic Subject is not explicit and is usually conflated with the Finite or the Predicator, switching may be avoided in these components. SFG's of both English and Spanish regard Subjects, Finites and Predicatives as separate components occurring in similar positions, thus on a surface level switching between them is considered possible, but as the importance of the Mood element is different and the verbal components may carry differing information, it creates an underlying structural difference. In conclusion, I have based my hypothesis that CS in the data will mainly be localized in the Residue, as the underlying differences in the importance of the Mood element in expressing the mood of a clause and the differences in the interpersonal information expressed in the verbal components may defer speakers from switching at those points as not to disrupt their message.

As Vail's (2006) findings indicate, CS plays a role in forming the interpersonal meaning of the clause, thus focusing the study at hand on this metafunction is justified. Vail's findings are not surprising, because as mentioned at the beginning of this section, CS has been suggested to have different functions, and many of these functions relate to the interpersonal aspect of utterances. For example, Ritchie and Bhatia (2004) discuss the motivations for the use of CS, and these motivations may also be viewed as functions of CS. The motivations by Ritchie and Bhatia (2004) include social distancing, switching because of preference for degree of formality or identity, switches due to social variables such as gender and age, the use of "we" or "they" code and the attitudes towards CS. All these motivations have an interpersonal aspect to them, and thus further examination of CS in terms of interpersonality can be expected to carry merit. Vail's (2006) findings also suggested that CS plays a part in textual cohesion, but as the data of the current thesis comprises of dialogue and short speech turns by varying speakers, an analysis of the textual metafunction is not relevant.

In this section I have discussed the integration of SFG into the study of CS, with insight from previous research by Vail (2006) to support the interpersonal outline of the current thesis. The implications of the differences in the SFG of English and Spanish were considered and how these differences affect the hypotheses for the

current study. In the following section I will present the data of the study as well as the methodologies employed in the analysis.

## **6 Materials and Methods**

In this section I will first introduce the data source, the Netflix series *Orange Is the New Black* as well as the data collection method. I will also discuss the obstacles faced in the data collection and the section also includes some clarification of problematic cases in the data. Secondly, the methodology of the analysis in the study is discussed.

### **6.1 Data**

The source of data for the current study is the dialogue of the drama comedy series *Orange Is the New Black*. Even though it can be argued that fictional dialogue written by professional writers may not be the most reliable source for CS data, I have in my BA thesis (Hyrsky 2015) uncovered that the CS found in the Spanish/English dialogue of the series conforms to the forms and functions of naturally occurring CS. The study I conducted also revealed that the dialogue included different types of CS in regard to the form of CS, ensuring that there would be intrasentential CS for the data of the present study. Thus, I chose to use the same data source in the current study. It is noteworthy, that pioneering studies such as those by Pfaff (1979) and Poplack (1980), mentioned in section 3, have been carried out on the Spanish/English language combination, thus it is only fitting that a very experimental study on CS, such as the present study, involves these two languages.

As mentioned, the source for the data is the Netflix original series *Orange Is the New Black*, from here on OITNB. The series premiered in 2013 and during the data collection of this thesis there were five 13-episode seasons available on the streaming site Netflix. The series' creator is Jenji Kohan, and there are varied writers involved in the writing of the episodes. The series tells the story of a fictional women's prison called Litchfield in the United States. The main plotline follows a Caucasian woman, Piper Chapman, who enters the prison for drug smuggling charges, but the everyday lives and backgrounds of other inmates and prison workers are also followed. The series explores such themes as relationships, power, race, religion and societal issues.

Most of the characters in the series are, for the most part of the existing seasons, grouped based on their ethnic backgrounds, the groups including for example the Latinas, the African Americans and the Caucasians. The current study focuses on the dialogue of the Latina group, as well as the dialogue of other Latino characters present in the storylines. The backgrounds of all the Latino characters are not revealed, but it has been established that they come from varied cultural backgrounds, for example Mexico, the Dominican Republic, Colombia, Cuba and Puerto Rico. Despite the different backgrounds, the characters speak English and Spanish with each other and seem to understand each other in both languages.

At first, the main Latina group consists of seven women, but as the series progresses more Latino characters are introduced both into the prison population, in the flashback sequences of the lives the characters led before they entered the prison as well as among civilians. The data was collected from the dialogue of those characters who were presented speaking both English and Spanish fluently. These characters are the following 13: Maritza Ramos, Maria Ruiz, Aleida Diaz, Gloria Mendoza, Blanca Flores, Flaca Gonzales, Cesar Velazquez, Ouija Aziza, Zirconia, Jorge Ruiz and Maria's unnamed friend. Characters excluded from the data collection were one of the Latina inmates, Dayanara Diaz, who clearly states she can't speak Spanish, as well as characters who switch to Spanish words here and there but their fluency in both languages is not established. The characters whose dialogue is included have spoken both Spanish and English fluently during the series, thus establishing their fluency in both languages. As mentioned in section 2, the current study focuses on intrasentential CS, which can be considered to require a high level of bilingual competence (Ritchie and Bhatia 1996, 636). Thus, I consider the establishment of fluency in both languages a requirement to make the CS data from different speakers as comparable as possible and to create a common context for the data – the speech of fluent bilinguals in a mainly English-speaking environment.

There is no comprehensive collection of the OITNB episode scripts, and the scripts that are available do not include the Spanish utterances. Thus, the data was collected by watching each of the 65 episodes of the show on Netflix, spotting the switches from the speech of the Latina characters and transcribing the switches with the help of the English subtitles. During the gathering of the data for this thesis, there were 5 seasons of OITNB with 65 episodes with a changing running time between 51

and 90 minutes per episode. The time mounted to 64 hours of material to observe. Of the 65 episodes viewed, 31 of them had CS that was included in this thesis. 13 episodes included English/Spanish CS but were excluded from the study due to different factors (CS by non-fluent speakers, intersentential CS, CS from Spanish to English etc.). There were 21 episodes that didn't include any type of English/Spanish CS.

The English subtitles included some of the shorter switches in Spanish, but longer stretches of Spanish speech were only given English subtitles. There are no available Spanish subtitles that would include the longer stretches of speech spoken in Spanish by the Latino characters. This resulted in having to transcribe the Spanish parts by ear. However, some utterances were impossible to fully be transcribed in Spanish due to inarticulateness. These types of utterances are not included in the data of this thesis, as the thesis concentrates on English to Spanish CS, and the inarticulate Spanish sequences were present only in Spanish utterances with English CS. It is noteworthy that CS with other language pairs other than English and Spanish were present in the series, for example Russian/English CS, but the study focuses on English/Spanish CS due to reasons established in section 3, and as mentioned different languages may have their own implications when it comes to SFG. Thus, switches involving any other languages were excluded.

As discussed in section 5, the role of the Mood element in expressing the mood of a clause and in realizing the function of the clause is diminished in Spanish. The mood of a clause is expressed in various different ways such as intonation and inflections, and unlike in English, the ordering of the constituents of the Mood are not bound to certain mood types. This then means, that for the present study, the lack of Spanish subtitles, i.e. description of what is actually said in Spanish, what words are used and in what order, makes it difficult to analyse the clauses which are uttered in Spanish with CS to English. One might argue that the utterances could be analysed in regard to the localization of the switch in the Mood-Residue construction on the basis of the English subtitles given, but the English translation of the utterance adapts the language according to the syntactic rules of English, and thus the functions of the words uttered may be changed from what they were in the original Spanish utterance, and the localization of words in constructions may thus also change. To illustrate this point, in example 56 the switch from Spanish to English is located in the object noun

phrase in the original utterance, but in the subtitles the switch is present in the verb phrase. The switch is underlined.

- (56) Aleida: Fool me once, shame on you. Fool me twice **te corto la fucking teta**  
**cabrona.** (you cut off a tit)  
(asshole)  
[I'll fuckin' cut your tit off.]

Season 5, episode 9

Because of the lack of explicit description of the Spanish utterances to enable proper analysis and because the Mood element does not carry as much importance in the construction of the message in Spanish as it does in English, Spanish clauses including English CS are excluded from the study and the analysis focuses on English clauses that include Spanish CS.

The objective of the study is to explore possible patterns in the localization of language switches in the Mood-Residue construction presented in SFG. This means that the focus will be on intrasentential switches, i.e. switches occurring inside sentence boundaries, and even more specifically switches occurring inside clause boundaries. Thus, CS at sentence boundaries, such as those in examples 49 and 50, were not included in the analysis.

- (49) Gloria: Oh, Blanca, Blanca, I got that. I got that. *Dámelo.* Go clean the mixer.  
(Give me that)

Season 2, episode 8

- (50) Aleida: Are you kidding me? (*In Spanish: You have to be fucking kidding me. You too?*).

Season 1, episode 5

Furthermore, switches made by non-fluent speakers were also disregarded. One of the characters in the main group of the Latina inmates explicitly expresses her lack of skills in Spanish, and thus switches made by her, such as that in example 51, were excluded.

(51) Daya: And then what happens when the baby ends up with no daddy? Another fucking *barrio* baby.

(slum)

Season 2, episode 11

There were two switched nouns, *abuela*/grandmother and *tía*/aunt, which occurred several times and raised the question of whether their occurrences were to be considered as CS or as being *socially integrated items*. Socially integrated items, as defined by Hasselmo (1970), are linguistic items from other languages which become habitualized in repeated use (1970, 179). In the case of *abuela*, there were two occurrences, presented in examples 52 and 53, in which the word is morphologically integrated into English. Thus, the instances with the switched word *abuela* were disregarded as I decided to consider the word as a socially integrated item. No phonological or morphological integration was present in the occurrences of the switch *tía*, thus its occurrences were considered CS in this study.

(52) Flores: The shit that comes in boxes, it tastes like my *abuela*'s ashes.  
(grandmother)

Season 2, episode 6

(53) Maritza: Yes, your face will smell like your *abuela*'s pork.  
(grandmother)

Season 5, episode 5

The Mood-Residue structure is found in independent clauses, thus minor clauses have to be disregarded since those cannot be analysed in regards to the structure under inspection in the present study. Switches such as those in examples 54 and 55 were not included in the study.

(54) Flaca: Fuck you. Fucking *gente naca*.  
(nobodies)

Season 3, episode 5

(55) Aleida: Hmm. Funny *cabrona*.  
(asshole)

Season 1, episode 13

The limitations of the data are the fictive nature of the dialogue and restricted sampling of the occurring CS. The dialogue is written by various writers of whom there is not much information on, and it is not possible to know if all of the CS is written in the scripts or if the Latino actors insert the switches into speech themselves. However, my previous experience with the data, as mentioned at the beginning of this section, has made it explicit that there are different types of CS used by the speakers in terms of form and function, and the forms and functions of CS found in the data follow the patterns of naturally occurring CS. Thus, the data can be studied as CS, and although one must be hesitant in making generalizations of how CS behaves based on the results, the results can help make hypotheses and predictions for studies with naturally occurring CS data.

The data sampling for the study is restricted to independent English clauses including Spanish CS, thus all other types of occurrences of CS are disregarded in the present study. The data used for the analysis comes from different characters in the series, and all the characters are not equally represented in the amount of utterances that are included. However, as the objective of the current study is to explore possible patterns in the functional structures of the language and the framework the analysis is made through considers the clause “the primary channel of grammatical energy” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 49), the restriction of the data to independent clauses is justified. The analysis does not consider, nor does it require the consideration of, such variables as gender, age or profession, as it focuses on examining patterns found for CS in general. Thus, the inconsistencies in the representation of different speakers in the data do not pose an issue. There is a consistent variable in place for the inclusion of the utterances in the data, that of the speakers’ fluency in both the languages included in the CS occurrences, which gives the data a common denominator. In future research focusing on naturally occurring data, including the variables excluded in this study, such as age, gender and social status, will be valuable in framing the role of CS in meaning making of clauses in certain contexts.

## **6.2 Methodology**

The theory applied for the analysis of the data in the present study is that of the interpersonal metafunction and the structures of Mood and Residue from the SFG framework by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014). The whole SFG approach bases itself

on the notion that “[a] language is a resource for making meaning, and meaning resides in systemic patterns of choice” (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 23). As the use of CS by a speaker is a choice, whether conscious or unconscious one, studying the localization of it in the structures of SFG may reveal possible patterns in use, which is in line with the objective of the analysis.

The data chosen, i.e. the pieces of dialogue with intrasentential or more specifically intraclausal CS from English to Spanish, was analysed in terms of the mood of the clause (i.e. imperative, interrogative, declarative) and the elements of the Mood and the Residue, thus revealing the localization of the switch in these structures. The analysis of the Mood and Residue elements were not only limited to identifying the presence of these elements, as the clause was further analysed in regard to the components the elements consist of: In the Mood element, the Subject and the Finite were identified, and in turn the Predicator, the Complement(s) and the Adjunct(s) in the Residue. As mentioned in section 4, Halliday and Matthiessen present two elements that carry interpersonal significance but fall outside the Mood-Residue structure, the Vocative and the Expletive, and these two components were also included in the analysis and the results.

The mood of the clause was analysed in order to uncover possible patterns in the localization of CS in certain mood types. The mood of the clause was analysed retroactively: first the mood was determined by the speech function the clause was fulfilling – a statement, a question, an order etc. Once the clause was analysed in terms of the structures of Mood and Residue based on the initial mood choice analysis, the mood choice was confirmed by the presence and the ordering of the elements of the Mood. The components in the Mood and Residue elements were identified on the basis of the description of the characteristics of the components by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), explained in section 4. In addition to the verbal components of Finite and Predicator, a third category was created for a fused form of the two, when the verb in a clause was in simple past or simple present and had active voice and positive polarity. This component cannot be assigned as belonging exclusively to the Mood or the Residue, as it involves both structures.

To uncover possible patterns of CS in the clauses, several different aspects regarding the clause components and CS in them were analysed. Naturally, the

localization of CS in the components of the clauses was identified. As the components are not necessarily comprised of only one-word items, the switches were also analysed on the basis of whether the whole component was switched or only a part of the component. The overall number of component occurrences in the data was also analysed and compared with the overall occurrences of CS in the components to determine the frequency of switches of the individual components. To be able to further comment on the hypotheses of the current thesis, the analysis also takes a closer look on the most frequent mood type clauses, the declarative clauses.

Because the data consists of isolated utterances by various different speakers and the objective of the study is to explore possible general patterns that may occur, to take into consideration the entire speech of certain people, count the component occurrences, i.e. the number of occurrences of individual component types such as the Subject, the Finite etc., there and then compare that with the occurrence of switched items is redundant. The counting of overall occurrence of components in the data, i.e. in major English clauses entailing Spanish CS does thus not reveal any large patterns concerning individual speakers but gives indication of possible overall patternizations.

Some special cases regarding the components in Mood require discussion as there were some occurrences of a clause as a Subject and omitted and ellipsed components. In the case of an occurrence where there was an embedded clause with an anticipatory *it* as the Subject (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 198), presented in example 57, the two separated parts of the Subject were counted as two separate occurrences of the component of Subject, even though they together act as the Subject of the clause. This is because they appear separately, and each part of the Subject could have entailed a switch.

(57)

It	's	that Mexican <i>papí chulo</i> that hangs out next to school
Subject	Finite	Subject

(handsome daddy)

Maria's friend, season 4, episode 2

In cases where one of the components of the Mood were omitted or ellipsed, as in examples 58 and 59, the omitted or ellipsed components were not counted in the number of component occurrences.

(58)

	Had to	haggle	with <i>las negritas</i>
(Subject omitted)	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct

(the black women)

Maritza, season 1, episode 8

(59)

(so they won't get all, like, PC, and)		give	it	to the fat <i>mayate</i>
(Subject ellipsed)	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	

(black woman)

Flaca, season 3, episode 5

There is a need to establish how clauses were determined to be included in the analysis as English clauses with Spanish CS, as it may not always be clear which language offers the linguistic base for the utterance and which is the language that the speaker then switches to. The speech context may offer an answer – if the majority of what is said is in one language, the language with a smaller representation in speech can be expected to be the language that the speaker switches to. However, as the analysis here focuses on clauses, it can be expected that at times the representation of each language in the utterance is equal. With one-word switches, such as that in example 60, it is easy to determine what the role of each language is – English is the languages from which the speaker switches into Spanish. In example 61, however, Spanish and English are almost equally represented, and the source language for the switch is not as clear-cut.

(60) Maria: You have the prettiest *bebecita* here, after mine.

(baby)

Season 3, episode 1

(61) Maria: Sometimes *yo necesito* two pillows.

( I need )

Season 1, episode 7

In the cases where there was uncertainty of whether the CS was an English-to-Spanish switch, it was determined to be one if the Spanish part of the utterance conformed to the structures of SFG for English. Thus, example 61 is included in the analysis, as the explicit Subject before the inflected Finite+Predicator component is in accordance to the structures in SFG for English.

The translations on the Spanish utterances in the data were made either on the basis of my own knowledge in Spanish or by employing different translation tools, more specifically online dictionaries Wordreference.com and the Urban Dictionary. These two were used because they offer several suitable translations from which to choose from based on the context. The Urban Dictionary was especially suiting for the translations as some of the Spanish terms used have a more culturally connected meaning than what the literal translation might be.

The analysis in the current thesis focuses solely on one of the three metafunctions presented in Halliday & Matthiessen's (2014) SFG framework, although as mentioned in section 4, the three metafunctions exist in a clause at the same time and together form the meaning of the clause (2014, 83). As the objective of the study is to explore possible patterns in the occurrence of CS in SFG structures, and not uncovering how the overall meanings of utterances are formed, the comprehensive analysis of all three metafunctions of the clause is not relevant at this point. Furthermore, as Vail's (2006) study suggested (discussed in more detail in section 5), CS carries function in creating interpersonal and textual meaning, but could not present such a suggestion on experiential meaning (2006, 159). Regarding the analysis of the textual metafunction, as the data consists of short independent clauses taken out of the context of the utterance and uttered by various different speakers, textual analysis would not reveal relevant patterns. In the following section I will present the results of the analysis regarding CS in the interpersonal elements of the data, after which the results will be discussed in the discussion section.

## **7 Analysis & Results**

In this section I will present the results of the analysis on the intraclausal CS in the data. In the first section I will present overall results regarding all the clause types and

in the second section I will consider the results on the localization of CS in the constructions of the interpersonal metafunction in declarative clauses.

The overall results comprehend the mood types of the clauses, the localization of CS in the different components analysed, as well as the results regarding whether the CS comprised the whole component or if a switch occurred in only a part of a component. Another set of results discussed is the overall occurrence of the different clausal components in the data and the ratio of switch occurrences in the components.

The CS in the clauses is marked bolded and italicized in the examples and all Spanish utterances in the examples are transcribed from English subtitles given on Netflix. The translations of the Spanish utterances are indicated beneath the analysis grid in parenthesis. The information after the example includes the character name of the speaker as well as the season number and the episode number of where the utterance occurred. The examples cover only the clause in which the CS occurs, since that is the only part of an utterance that was analyzed. Some clauses are provided with additional speech context as well to help discussion in section 7.2., and these full utterances are included for some data in the data appendix 1 to help locate them in the speech of the characters if necessary.

## 7.1 Overall results

The data analysed contains 60 clauses with intraclausal CS. The clauses were analysed in terms of their mood choice, which are presented in table 1.

**Table 1** Mood types of the analysed clauses

Mood types in clauses	Indicative		Imperative	Total
	Declarative	Interrogative WH-                  Yes/No		
Number of clauses	50	1                          3	6	60
%	83,3%	6,7%	10%	100%
	90%			

The majority of the clauses, i.e. 90% (54), have indicative choice of mood, and the remaining 10% (6) are thus imperatives. Within the indicative mood choice declaratives are the most common type of mood with 83,3% (50) from all clauses, and interrogatives

comprise only 6,7% (4) of all clauses. From the four instances of interrogative mood choice in a clause one is a WH-interrogative and three are yes/no interrogatives.

The 60 clauses analysed include a total of 62 code-switched Spanish word items. Most of the clauses, i.e. 58 clauses, include one word or compound word switches, such as those in examples 62 and 63, but two of the clauses include two switched items, presented in examples 64 and 65, thus the number of switched items does not match the number of analysed clauses.

(62)

Some <b>blanca</b> guesser bitch	won	the Twix
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement

(white)

Aleida, season 1, episode 8

(63)

You	've	got	<b>tres días</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

(three days)

Gloria, season 2, episode 8

(64)

<b>puta</b>	's	full of <b>caca</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement

(bitch)

(shit)

Maritza, season 1, episode 6

(65)

Sometimes	<b>yo</b>	<b>necesito</b>	two pillows	for ergonomics
Adjunct	Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

(I need)

Maria, season 1, episode 7

Table 2 presents the results of the analysis on the localization of the switched items in regard to the components of the Mood and Residue elements, and the interpersonally relevant components Vocative and Expletive in the different mood types.

**Table 2** Localization of code-switches in the components of the clause

	Localization of CS	MOOD			Total	% from all switches
		Declarative	Interrogative WH- Yes/No	Imperative		
C O M P O N E N T	Vocative	16	1	5	22	35,5%
	Subject	14	1		15	24,2%
	Complement	11	1		12	19,4%
	Adjunct	8	1	1	10	16,1%
	Expletive	2			2	3,2%
	Finite+Predicator	1			1	1,6%
	Finite				0	0,0%
	Predicator				0	0,0%
	Total	<b>52</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>Total of switched items 62</b>	
	% from all switches	<b>83,8%</b>	<b>6,6%</b>	<b>9,6%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>

As can be predicted from the division of the mood types and the fact that most of the clauses included one switch per clause, the majority of the switches, i.e. 83,8% (52) occur in declarative clauses. 6,6% (4) of the switches occur in clauses with interrogative mood, three in yes/no interrogative clauses and one in a WH-interrogative clause. Switches in imperative clauses comprise 9,6% (6) of the total of switched items.

In regards to the Mood element, i.e. the Subject and the Finite component, 24,2% (15) of the switches are localized in the Subject component, whereas there are no CS in the Finite component found in the data. The compound component of Finite+Predicator compile 1,6% (1) of all the switches.

Moving on to the Residue element, i.e. the Predicator, the Complement and the Adjunct components, the most common localization of the switches is in the Complement, which comprise 19,4% (12) of all the switches. The second most common localization is the Adjunct with 16,1% (10). There are no instances of CS located in the Predicator component found in the data.

Two components which fall outside the Mood/Residue elements but carry interpersonal relevance, i.e. Vocatives and Expletives, were also included in the analysis and the results. As seen in table 2, the most common localization for a switch is in the Vocative component with 35,5% (22) of the switches. Expletives are much less common but are still present in the data in 3,2% (2) of the switches.

The switches were also analysed in regard to whether the switches comprised the whole component or if CS was only used in a part of a component. Table 3 presents the results for when CS comprised the entire component.

**Table 3** Whole component switches

	Whole component switched	MOOD			Total	% from the overall CS occurrences in the component
		Declarative	Interrogative WH- Yes/No	Imperative		
C O M P O N E N T	Vocative	15	1	5	21	95,5 %
	Subject	3	1		4	26,7%
	Complement	2			2	16,7 %
	Expletive	2			2	100 %
	Finite+Predicator	1			1	100 %
	Adjunct				0	0,0 %
	Finite				0	0,0 %
	Predicator				0	0,0 %
	Total	<b>23</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>30</b>	

Of switches located in the Vocative component, the majority, i.e. 95,5% (21), are fully switched, as demonstrated by examples 66 and 67.

(66)

Just	keep	walking	<i>mami</i>
Adjunct	Finite	Predicator	Vocative

(honey)

Aleida, season 1, episode 8

(67)

You	're	gonna have to learn	these	soon	<i>hermano</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

(brother)

Cesar, season 3, episode 1

The entire Subject component is switched in 26,7% (4) of the cases. These four instances include two one-word Subject components, presented in examples 64 and 65 above, and two instances where the Subject includes two items, an article and a noun, as seen in examples 68 and 69.

(68)

Who	's	<b>la jefa?</b>
Complement	Finite	Subject

(the boss)

Ouija, season 4, episode 1

(69)

<b>La china</b>	found	it	on the bottom shelf	in the comissary
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Adjunct

(The chinese lady)

Aleida, season 3, episode 12

Switches located in Complements are full switches in only 16,7% (2) of the instances, presented in examples 70 and 71.

(70)

You	've	got	<b>tres días</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

(three days)

Gloria, season 2, episode 8

(71)

the only Mexicans	are	<b>campesinos</b>	from Fresno
Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct

(farm people)

Flaca, season 4, episode 2

The two Expletive switches found in the data are both cases where the whole component was switched, presented in examples 72 and 73.

(72)

I	'm	his mother	<b>carajo</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Expletive

(damn it)

Gloria, season 5, episode 8

(73)

<b>Coño</b>	he	's	coming
Expletive	Subject	Finite	Predicator

(Fuck)

Blanca, season 5, episode 8

The only instance of a switch in the Finite+Predicator compound component is fully switched, presented in example 74, which is not surprising as only one verb can act as the component in question. There are no fully switched Adjuncts found in the data.

(74)

Sometimes	<b>yo</b>	<b>necesito</b>	two pillows	for ergonomics
Adjunct	Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

(I need)

Maria, season 1, episode 7

**Table 4** Part of the component switched

C O M P O N E N T	Part of the component switched	MOOD			Total	% from the overall CS occurrences in the component
		Declarative	Interrogative WH- Yes/No	Imperative		
	Subject	11			11	73,3%
	Adjunct	8	1	1	10	100%
	Complement	9	1		10	83,3%
	Vocative	1			1	4,5%
	Expletive				0	0,0%
	Finite				0	0,0%
	Finite+Predicator				0	0,0%
	Predicator				0	0,0%
	<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>32</b>	

Table 4, then, presents the results for CS comprising only a part of a component. The majority, 73,3% (11) of CS localized in the Subject component are switches where only a part of the component is switched. The instances include multiple word Subjects such as that in example 75, two-word Subjects as in examples 76 and 77 as well as article plus noun pairs in which only one of them is switched, as in examples 78 and 79.

(75)

It	's	that Mexican <b>papí chulo</b> that hangs out next to school	
Subject	Finite	Subject	

(handsome daddy)

Maria's friend, season 4, episode 2

(76)

These <b>cundangos</b>	think
Subject	Finite+Predicator

(faggots)

Maria's father, season 4, episode 2

(77)

That <b>blanquita</b>	is	bland
Subject	Finite	Complement

(whitey)

Aleida, season 5, episode 8

(78)

the <b>roja</b>	could	eat
Subject	Finite	Predicator

(red woman)

Maria, season 2, episode 2

(79)

<b>La Red</b>	says
Subject	Finite+Predicative

Maritza, season 3, episode 6

All switches localized in the Adjunct component are part-switches. Majority of the switches in the Adjunct component are one-word switches, as in examples 80 and 81, with only one instance where an article and a noun are both switched, presented in example 82.

(80)

My daughter	's	with my cousin	at some <b>marimacha</b> collective she's part of
Subject	Finite	Adjunct	Adjunct

(lesbian)

Maritza, season 1, episode 13

(81)

Two boys	are	with their <b>tía</b>
Subject	Finite	Adjunct

(aunt)

Gloria, season 2, episode 2

(82)

	Had to	haggle	with <b>las negritas</b>
(Subject omitted)	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct

(the black women)

Maritza, season 1, episode 8

Regarding the Complement component, switches that don't comprise the whole component are also more common with 83,3% (10) of the Complement switches. Most of these instances involve multiple-word Complements, such as those in examples 83 and 84, but there are also a few two-word Complements such as those presented in examples 85 and 86.

(83)

You	have	the prettiest <b>bebecita</b>	here	after mine
Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct	Adjunct

(little baby girl)

Maria, season 3, episode 1

(84)

Sometimes	love	ain't	stronger than <b>débil</b>
Adjunct	Subject	Finite	Complement

(weakness)

Cesar, season 3, episode 5

(85)

My baby girl	is	taking	<b>cholo</b> dick
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

(halfbreed)

Maria's father, season 4, episode 2

(86)

She	ain't	gonna get	no <b>boricua</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

(Puerto Rican)

Aleida, season 5, episode 8

Only one instance of the Vocative switches is not a full switch, presented in example 87. There are no part-switches among the switches in the Expletive and the Finite+Predicator components.

(87)

There	's	more of us	everyday	fucking <b>pendeja</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

(bitch)

Blanca, season 4, episode 2

As tables 3 and 4 indicate, the ratio between full component switches and partly-switched component switches is almost equal, 48,4% (30) of full switches and 51,6% (32) part-switches, but there are major differences in the ratio of the two types regarding the different components. The majority of switches occurring in the Subject (73,3%) and the Complement (83,3%) components as well as all occurrences of switches in the Adjunct component are part-switches, whereas all switches occurring in the Finite+Predicator and the Expletive components and a majority of switches in the Vocative (95,5%) component are full switches of the component.

In order to draw any conclusions on the basis of the localization of the switches, especially when there are some components that are not switched at all in the data, the occurrence of the components in the clauses was also accounted for, presented in Table 5. There are five instances, demonstrated in examples 88 through 92, where a component is either omitted or ellipsed, and these components are not counted as being present.

(88)

	Had to	haggle	with <b>las negritas</b>
(Subject omitted)	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct

(the black women)

Maritza, season 1, episode 8

(89)

	give	it	to the fat <i>mayate</i>
(Subject ellipsed)	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

(black woman)

Flaca, season 3, episode 5

(90)

These <i>cocolos</i>		all over	the ball	like it's a free sandwich
Subject	(Finite/predicator omitted)	Adjunct	Complement	Adjunct

(black people)

Ouija, season 4, episode 2

(91)

	You	gonna roll over	like a <i>pendeja</i>
(Finite omitted)	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct

(bitch)

Gloria, season 4, episode 4

(92)

Fucking <i>quera</i>		trying to steal	our people	with this arty bullshit
Subject	(Finite omitted)	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

(bitch)

Maria, season 5, episode 7

**Table 5** Presence of clause components

	Presence of components in the data	MOOD			Total	% from all component occurrences
		Declarative	Interrogative WH- Yes/No	Imperative		
C O M P O N E N T	Subject	50	1	3	54	23,4%
	Complement	38	1	3	43	18,6%
	Finite	31	1	2	36	15,6%
	Adjunct	29		1	32	13,9%
	Predicator	16		2	24	10,4%
	Vocative	17		1	23	9,9%
	Finite+Predicator	17			17	7,4%
	Expletive	2			2	0,8%
	Total	<b>200</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>231</b>	
%	<b>86,6%</b>	<b>6,5%</b>	<b>6,9%</b>	<b>100%</b>	<b>100%</b>	

There is a total of 54 Subject components in the data, comprising 23,4% of all components found. There is a total of 43 occurrences of the Complement components,

comprising 18,6% of the total of components. Finites comprise 15,6% of all components with 36 occurrences. 13,9% (32) of the components were Adjuncts. The Predicator occurs 24 times, making up 10,4% of all components. Vocatives occur 23 times, making up 9,9% of all the components. The compound component Finite+Predicator is present in 17 instances, comprising 7,4% of all components. The Expletive component occurs most rarely with only 2 instances, i.e. 0,8% of the total of the components. Based on the results on the presence of the components in the data, Table 6 was comprised to show in which components a switch was most frequent by calculating the ratio of the occurrence of CS in a component from the total component occurrence number.

**Table 6** The frequency of occurrence of CS within a clause component

<b>Component</b>	<b>Number of component occurrences</b>	<b>Number of occurrences of CS in the component</b>	<b>% of switch occurrence from component occurrence</b>
Expletive	2	2	100%
Vocative	23	22	95,7%
Adjunct	32	10	31,3%
Complement	43	12	27,9%
Subject	54	15	27,8%
Finite+Predicator	17	1	5,9%
Finite	36	0	0,0%
Predicator	24	0	0,0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>231</b>	<b>62</b>	

The Expletive component occurs twice and was switched in both occurrences. The Vocative component is switched 95,7% (22) from all the component occurrences, with only one Vocative left unswitched. The Adjunct component includes a switch in 31,3% (10) of the occurrences of that component. Within the Complement component, switches occur in 27,9% (12) of all the Complement occurrences. From all the Subject components occurring in the data, 27,8% (15) are switched. The Finite+Predicator component is switched only once out of the 17 occurrences in the data, whereas there are 36 occurrences of the Finite component, but none are switched. The Predicator component occurs 24 times but doesn't include any switches.

To note, the overall occurrence of the different components in the data was tallied up in order to observe whether the non-existent or low occurrence of CS in certain components was due to the fact that there are no component occurrences where a switch could occur. It should be recognized that not many conclusions can be

drawn from the frequency of CS in the components alone, as the component numbers are very limited as they only cover the clauses in the data of the thesis.

## 7.2. The localization of switches in declarative clauses

As the hypothesis of the present thesis considers the localization of switches in relation to the Mood-Residue division, it is relevant to compare the localization of the switches in this sense. However, as clauses in imperative mood rarely include the Mood element, and because of the sparse occurrence of the interrogative mood, this part of the analysis will consider only the clauses in the declarative mood. This is because declarative clauses were the majority, also there were only a few clauses in the declarative mood which didn't include any components from either the Mood or the Residue elements. Four declarative clauses were excluded from this part of the analysis, as they comprise only the Mood element. These clauses are presented in examples 93 through 96. The excluded clauses all have CS in the Subject component.

(93)

my <i>tía</i>	says
Subject	Finite+Predicator

(aunt)

Gloria, season 2, episode 2

(94)

<b>La Red</b>	says
Subject	Finite+Predicative

Maritza, season 3, episode 6

(95)

These <i>cundangos</i>	think
Subject	Finite+Predicator

(faggots)

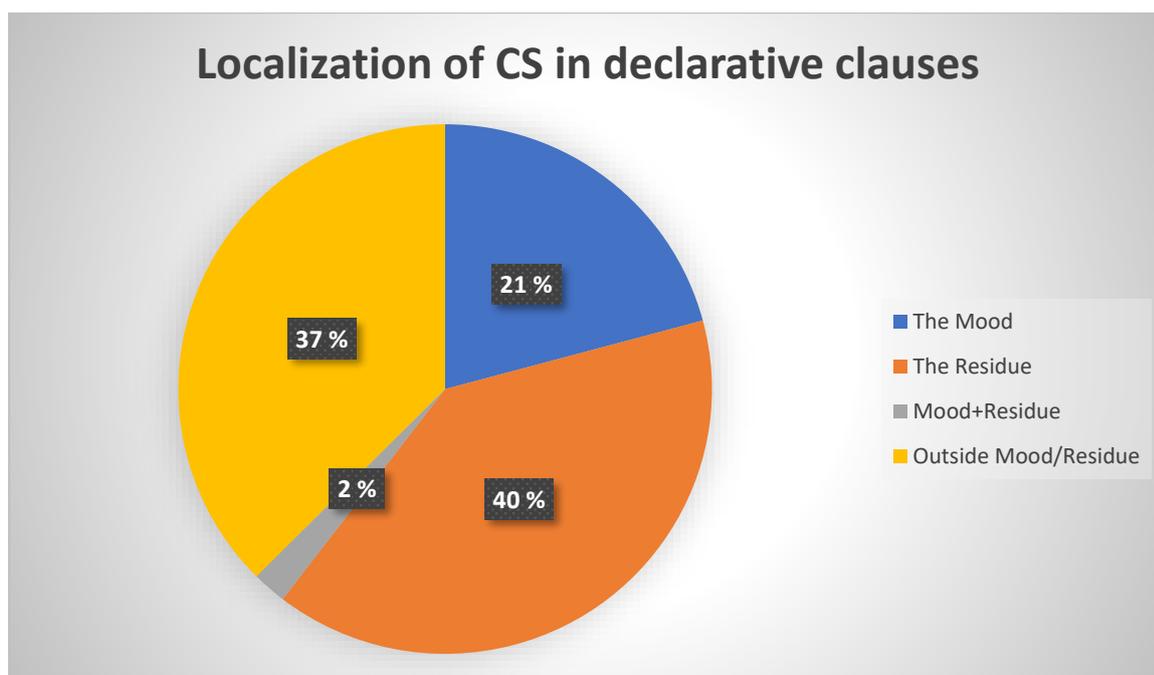
Maria's father, season 4, episode 2

(96)

It	's	that Mexican <i>papí chulo</i> that hangs out next to school
Subject	Finite	Subject

(handsome daddy)

Maria's friend, season 4, episode 2



**Figure 8** Localization of CS in declarative clauses

Figure 8 presents the results for the analysis on the localization of CS in the Mood/Residue construct in 46 declarative clauses. The majority of CS is localized outside the Mood element, but there are still switches in the Mood as well. The Residue element, which includes the Predicator, the Complement and the Adjunct components, comprises the majority of CS occurrences with 40% (19) of the switches. Components that fall outside the Mood/Residue construction yet carry interpersonal meaning, The Vocative and the Expletive, contain 37% (18) of the switches in declarative clauses. The Mood element, which includes the Subject and the Finite components, comprises 21% (10) of the switches. As expressed in the previously presented table 2 in section 7.1, all the switches in the Mood element were CS within the Subject component. The Mood+Residue element, meaning the conflated component of the Finite and the Predicator, which can't be clearly categorized as either belonging in the Mood or the Residue, comprises 2% (1) of the switches.

As only 10% (6) of the clauses were not declarative in mood, considering the different results presented in the previous section and only regarding the declarative clauses will not present any relevant changes in the results. Instead, in this section I will discuss some examples from the declarative clauses.

The following example 97 is one of only two occurrences in the data where the clause included two switches in two different components. The entire Subject

component is switched as well as part of the Complement, thus the clause has CS both in the Mood and the Residue.

(97)

(Vote for Flaca)

<b><i>puta</i></b>	's	full of <b><i>caca</i></b>
Subject	Finite	Complement
(bitch)		(shit)

Maritza, season 1, episode 6

As the occurrence of two switches in a clause was so rare, it is worth examining the clause closer. From the larger context of the clause, i.e. the complete utterance, it can be seen that the clause is part of a catchphrase and is made to rhyme. Especially important for the rhyming of the sentence is the second switch, the part switch in the Complement, 'caca'. The rhyming objective of the clause may shed some doubt on any interpersonal motive for the second switch.

The following example 98 contains the only switched verbal component, the Finite+Predicator component, in the data. The verbal switch is preceded by a switch in the Subject, and thus the whole Mood is switched.

(98)

Sometimes	<b><i>yo</i></b>	<b><i>necesito</i></b>	two pillows	for ergonomics
Adjunct	Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
	(I	need)		

Maria, season 1, episode 7

This CS occurrence was discussed in section 6.2., and I pointed out that the clause adheres to the conventions of clause structure in the SFG in English because the personal pronoun Subject is explicit. Being the only verbal component switch in the data, the utterance poses intriguing suggestions about switches between the Mood and the Residue. As the verbal constructions and the interpersonal information they carry differ in English and Spanish, CS to Spanish in an English context may thus require that the whole Mood is switched if the verbal component is uttered in Spanish and the Subject is a personal pronoun, as not to mix the two verbal systems.

In the case of CS in the Subject component of the Mood, there is no indication that a switch in the Subject would require a switch in any other component. CS in the Subject component are a common occurrence, and as in the following examples 99 and 100, the switch often occurs as a one-word switch within a longer Subject.

(99)

Some <b>blanca</b> guesser bitch	won	the Twix
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement

(white)

Aleida, season 1, episode 8

(100)

that skinny <b>puta</b>	was	pulling	some shit	
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	

(bitch)

Aleida, season 2, episode 13

There are three instances, where the whole Subject component is switched, two of them being examples 97 and 98 discussed above, where the Subject consisted of a one word only. The following example 101 shows the single occurrence of a whole Subject switch that included two parts – an article and a noun.

(101)

<b>La china</b>	found	it	on the bottom shelf	in the comissary
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Adjunct

(The chinese lady)

Aleida, season 3, episode 12

However, as noted in the overall results, there were instances where in a similar Subject with an article and a noun, only one of them was switched, as in this example 102.

(102)

the <b>roja</b>	could	eat
Subject	Finite	Predicator

(red woman)

Maria, season 2, episode 2

These examples show that CS in the Subject component is varied and does not imply explicit restrictions on switching within the component.

The switches in the Complement component behave similarly as in the Subject component, which can be expected, as the Complement is a component that could have also been chosen as a Subject. As is evident in the following utterances, there are occurrences of switches in the Complement that include an article and a noun or only the other, in examples 103 and 104, as well as a one-word switch within the component as in example 105.

(103)

My aunt	was	a <i>santera</i>
Subject	Finite	Complement

(witch doctor)

Gloria, season 1, episode 9

(104)

She	's	all about	like	upward mobility and <i>la raza</i>
Subject	Finite	Adjunct	Adjunct	Complement

(heritage)

Flaca, season 4, episode 4

(105)

I	'm	supposed to put on	that <i>feo</i> hair net
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

(ugly)

Flaca, season 3, episode 5

In the case of Adjuncts, the switches occurring in the data are part-switches in multi-word Adjunct components. The uniting aspect of all the Adjunct switches is that a single noun or a noun phrase is switched, as in examples 106 and 107, where a single noun at the end of the Adjunct is switched. The data doesn't include any switches in adverbial Adjuncts.

(106)

We all	think	about taking down these <i>cabrones</i>
Subject	Finite+Predicative	Adjunct

(bastards)

Gloria, season 5, episode 5

(107)

I	get	sticky between my <b>tetas</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Adjunct

(tits)

Ouija, season 4, episode 9

The Vocative component is the most prominent switch type in the data. The types of Vocatives occurring were positive or neutral terms, as in examples 108 and 109, as well as negative expressions such as those in examples 110 and 111.

(108)

I	miss	him	<b>mana</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Vocative

(friend)

Gloria, season 3, episode 10

(109)

Those	are	the breaks	<b>papa</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Vocative

(daddy)

Aleida, season 1, episode 10

(110)

It	's	called	grammar	<b>tonta</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Subject	Vocative

(idiot)

Flaca, season 2, episode 7

(111)

You	ain't	got	time	for jokes	<b>estúpida</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

(stupid)

Ouija, season 4, episode 9

There are only two occurrences of switched Expletives, or Expletives in general, in the data, presented in examples 112 and 113. Both of them are negative expressions that are considered curse words.

(112)

I	'm	his mother	<b>carajo</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Expletive

(damn it)

Gloria, season 5, episode 8

(113)

<b>Coño</b>	he	's	coming
Expletive	Subject	Finite	Predicator

(Fuck)

Blanca, season 5, episode 8

In this section I discussed the overall results of the analysis and presented examples from the data to demonstrate the different CS occurrences. The most prominent clause type in the data, the declarative, was discussed in more detail with examples from each component type from the interpersonal structures. In the following section I will consider the results in regard to the research question and my hypothesis, and link the possible findings to previous research and future research.

## 8 Discussion

In this section I will discuss the results of the analysis in more detail relating to the research question of the study and the hypotheses posed in the beginning of this thesis. The research question was what types of patterns emerge in the localization of codeswitches when clauses are inspected through the structures and components in the interpersonal metafunction? The results showed the following patterns in CS use: (1) majority of CS was localized outside the Mood element, (2) the only switches in the Mood were localized in the Subject component, (3) there were no switches in the individual Finite and Predicator components and (4) the Vocative component was the most frequently switched component. These patterns will be further discussed in this section, but first I will begin by discussing the hypothesis I made about the possible emerging patterns. My hypothesis was that the localization of CS occurrences would be more prominent in the Residue construction due to two reasons:

1. The Residue carries the “extra” information and thus switching within this construction will not interrupt the message.

2. The differences in the importance of the Mood construction in creating the meaning of the clause in English and Spanish inhibit CS in the Mood.

In addition to discussing the results from the point of view of my hypotheses and the patterns that came forth through the analysis, I will also discuss the limitations of the current study as well as its implications for further studies.

The overall results show that CS occurs in all constructions – the Mood, the Residue and the interpersonal components outside these constructions i.e. the Vocative and the Expletive. However, CS occurs more notably in the Residue construction as well as in components outside the Mood/Residue constructions. This could be considered evidence for the hypothesis that the localization of CS will focus on the Residue or at least not on the Mood. However, as there was a significant occurrence of CS in the Subject component, the findings do not support the suggestion that CS focuses on the Residue as not to disrupt the message of the clause (cf. hypothesis 1). Analyzing the localization from this point of view would be more fruitful in a context where the relationship between the speaker and the listener is clearer – the language skills of the interactants may affect where the switch is made. I would also suggest that analysis from the textual metafunction point-of-view would offer additional insight on how the localization of switches is related to carrying forth the message uninterrupted.

The matter may also be influenced by the differing importance laid on the Mood construction in the two languages involved. As the Mood does not carry as much importance in the construction of the message of the clause in Spanish as it does in English, speakers may unconsciously avoid switching into Spanish in the Mood. However, even though switches occurring outside the Mood were the majority of CS occurrences, the Subject component was the second most common localization for a switch, after Vocatives. The switched Subjects include mostly emphatic Subjects, i.e. non-pronominal Subjects which wouldn't be conflated with the Finite or the Predicator in Spanish, but there is also an occurrence of a non-emphatic Subject switch, that was accompanied by a switch of the Finite+Predicator component as well. Considering this, the avoidance of CS in the Mood seems to be limited to the Finite. The language environment needs to be considered as well – as the Spanish CS occurs in English

sentences, where the importance of the Mood element is more substantial, speakers may avoid switching in Mood, but would the situation be the same if it were a Spanish language context with English CS? This is an intriguing question to pose in future research.

All different mood types are present in the data – declaratives, interrogatives and imperatives. However, declaratives were the clear majority of the clauses. In the case of imperatives, the results were not surprising – the CS was localized in the Residue, but this is due to the fact that imperative clauses usually do not comprise the Mood element at all. In the interrogative clauses, CS occurred in both the Mood and the Residue, although the CS in the Mood occurred in a WH-interrogative clause and the CS in the Residue occurred in yes/no-interrogative clauses. Due to sparse occurrence of interrogatives and imperatives in the data, the discussion of possible patterns of CS should focus on declarative clauses.

When looking more closely at only declarative clauses, the localization of CS remains mainly in the Residue and the components outside the Mood/Residue construction. The major pattern within the declarative, and in fact in all the data, is not what is switched but rather what is not – there are no occurrences of CS in the Finite or the Predicator. Only once was the hybrid component Finite+Predicator switched, and even then, the whole Mood, i.e. both the non-emphatic Subject and the Finite+Predicator, was switched, not only the verbal component. The most prominent explanation for the absence of CS in the Finite and the Predicator is the differing construction and function of the Mood element in the two languages. As explained in Section 5, in Spanish the Mood element is not used to express mood in the same way as in English clauses, nor is the Mood a separate functional element per se, because it often does not have an explicit separate Subject, but rather the Subject is conflated in the verb phrase, i.e. either the Finite or the Predicator. Since the verbal components Finite and Predicator are constructed differently in Spanish, speakers may avoid switching them in English speech, as the CS would not fit in the Mood element of English. This pattern is also supported by the fact that the only CS occurring in the construction of Finite+Predicator is accompanied by a switch of the Subject, thus the whole Mood is switched and made explicit, a marked characteristic of Spanish clauses.

In discussing the various constraints suggested for Spanish/English CS in section 3, I mentioned Poplack's (1981) propositions for permissible switch sites in Spanish/English CS, that base on similar grammatical structures in the languages. One of these switch sites was a switch between the auxiliary verb and the main verb, so according to Poplack (1981), CS between Finite and Predicator is permissible. However, as I noted, others have argued against this proposition and for example in the Toribio study (2001), also mentioned in section 3, the Spanish/English speakers didn't produce switches between auxiliaries and main verbs. The findings of the current thesis are similar to those of Toribio's (2001), since there were no switches in the separate Finite and Predicator components. Toribio suggests the Functional Head Constraint as a constraint that accounts for this phenomenon, but the constraint, like most of them, has been scrutinized for lack of empirical evidence, for example by MacSwan (2000). The motive behind the lack of CS in the Finite and Predicator components and especially between them may then be explained by the underlying differences in the interpersonal information the components carry, as revealed thorough the SFG breakdown of both languages.

The most prominent pattern uncovered in the localization on CS occurred outside the Mood-Residue structure, as Vocatives were the majority in the CS occurrences in the data. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, 159), Vocatives carry meaning in the interpersonal metafunction, and the results of the current study support this view. The Vocative switches in the data are both positive and negative, and the use of switches in them can be considered to reflect social association or distancing. The positive Vocative codeswitches are mostly endearing terms like 'honey' and 'darling' which show affection between the participants. The negative Vocatives are demeaning terms such as 'bitch' and 'stupid' which express aversion toward the other participant/s. The role of the Vocative is to call on the addressee, and through the choice of wording, i.e. being positive, negative or neutral, the speaker can create social distance or closeness between the interlocutors. A codeswitch in the Vocative component can add onto this distancing. Even though Vocatives are not included in the main structures of the interpersonal metafunction, their interpersonal role should not be overlooked.

As mentioned in section 5, there has not been much work conducted on CS from the SFG perspective, the beforementioned Vail's work (2006) being one of the

only studies to provide some insight on the matter. Even though Vail concludes, that he refrains from making generalizations based on his study and calls for more data gathering and analyzing to provide comparative evidence (2006, 160), and despite the fact that Vail's study does not go into such component-detailed analysis as the present thesis and handles a different type of data, it is still worth exploring whether there are any similarities between his findings and the current study. In his work on CS between Thai and Lao, Vail (2006) uncovered interpersonal meaning being created by the CS in pronouns and politeness markers, and the current study emphasizes the role of Vocatives. According to Vail, the language choice in the pronoun and politeness markers is affected by status, intimacy/formality i.e. marking social distance, and social status (2006, 151). Vocatives, then, are used to identify the addressee (Halliday and Matthiessen 2014, 159), and thus using CS in Vocatives may reflect on the speakers desire to either associate themselves with or disassociate themselves from the addressee/addressees. Some similarities in the choices affecting language switches in these components can be detected, although Vail speaks about interpersonal CS being used "to build solidarity among a group and potentially to exclude perceived outsiders (Gumperz, 1982)" (Vail 2006, 152) in more extended utterances i.e. in switches at clause boundaries and beyond.

Most CS occurring in the data were isolated one-word switches, i.e. they were the only switch in the clause. The matter may be affected by the fictive nature of the utterances, as the switches were perhaps included in the speech as a stylistic component by the writers. The fact that the main language of the series where the data comes from is English should also be considered – this factors in how much other languages are inserted in the English speech. Analysis on whether the switches comprised the whole component or not was conducted to reveal possible patterns within the components themselves, but as the data in the current thesis consisted mainly of one word or article plus a word switches, the results of this analysis were not surprising: in components which are more prone to be comprised of one or a couple of words, i.e. Finite+Predicator, Vocatives and Expletives, all switches except for one Vocative were fully switched, whereas in components which can and usually are comprised of more than one word, i.e. Subject, Complement and Adjunct, the CS occurred mostly in one part of the component. In addition to this part of the analysis possibly being more fruitful in studies with naturally occurring data, it may also be valid

in cases where the objective of a study is concentrated on a deeper level of analysis and considers what occurs within the components themselves. A surface look on the data reveals, for example, that switches in the Subject include two options – the article and the noun are both switched or only one of them is switched, and also that most of the switches occur in noun phrases in all of the components that can include nominal parts. The variation for example in switches in determiner plus noun combinations suggests that switch sites are affected by what is allowed in the languages in question (i.e. determiners precede their nouns in both languages). Another aspect to consider is that switch sites are affected by the larger language components they are included in – switching between certain word classes within the Subject component may be freer than switches between components.

The fictive nature of the data poses limitations on the study, most prominently that the results cannot be generalized and that the results may be affected by factors which have nothing to do with speakers' conscious and subconscious choices regarding language use. However, as the data source was known to include a fair amount of data to be collected, and some of the data had already been studied from a CS point of view and found to behave in many ways the same way as naturally occurring CS, it validated the use of this data for an experimental study such as the current study. Even though it could be argued that it would be more insightful to consider the ratio between all speech and what was codeswitched to reveal possible patterns, the unnaturalness of the data combined with the issues with the data collection, for example no available transcripts of what is said in languages other than English, makes this type of analysis difficult to carry out at this level. Thus, I chose to work only with the clauses that included CS, consider the patterns revealed, which then could be taken into consideration in further studies.

The data explored in the current thesis is restricted to clauses which can be considered English clauses with switches to Spanish. As explained in section 6, this was due to the restrictions of the data in regard to Spanish utterances. Another reason for this was that the SFG framework, or at least the impact of certain elements on the meaning of the clauses especially in the interpersonal metafunction, is different in the two languages. Using Halliday and Matthiessen's (2014) explanations of SFG to analyse mainly Spanish utterances would be inconsequential. As speakers using CS can use it in their utterances both ways, comprehensive patterns are revealed when

analyzing all speech with CS regardless of the main language of the utterance. However, this means that for future research on CS using SFG, there needs to be a framework that takes into consideration the differences the languages entail when it comes to constructions of SFG. Further studies may also reveal differing patterns in CS between two languages dependent on the main language of utterances. As is evident from the current thesis, languages can have major differences regarding the structures of SFG, and these language specific characteristics affect the way the two languages need to be observed through SFG. These differences may well affect the CS patterns present in speech.

The current thesis explores CS through SFG in a broad sense without a specific speech or text context. The unifying context for the utterances is that they are produced by bilinguals who are fluent in both English and Spanish. The results from the analysis are meant to provide suggestions on overall patterns in localization of CS and to shine light on different aspects that need to be taken into consideration in future research on CS through SFG. As SFG is designed to be used on analysis of speech and text in certain contexts, i.e. political speech, language in advertisement etc., a natural next step would be to explore CS and its role in meaning making in certain textual contexts. Analysis of this kind may reveal interesting patterns especially from an interpersonal perspective, as CS may be used in certain ways to express familiarity, status or social distancing, for example, as was suggested in Vail's (2006) research.

## **9 Conclusion**

In this thesis I set out to implement the SFG framework in studying CS with the goal of uncovering possible patterns in how CS occurs in bilingual speech from an interpersonal perspective. I made a hypothesis based on the SFG framework and the SFG suggestions for both English and Spanish: the CS will be concentrated in the Residue (1) as not to disrupt the message and (2) because the Mood carries different value in the two languages. The first suggestion was realized to be difficult to discuss when only considering the interpersonal metafunction in the analysis, thus attesting to the fact that implementing SFG requires the consideration of more than one metafunction. It was also evident that discussing the localization from this point of view would require a more specific context.

The analysis revealed that the localization of CS within the structures of the interpersonal metafunction did in fact focus on the Residue and the interpersonal component Vocative which is not a part of the Mood-Residue construction. However, about one fifth of the CS occurring in the data was located in the Mood but were all switches in the Subject component. Thus, the absence of CS in the Mood structure was limited to the verbal Finite component. This finding may be related to the difference of the importance placed on the Mood structure in the two languages – the Finite component can carry more varying interpersonal information in Spanish than it does in English and the Mood is not used to express the mood choice of the utterance. Because of these differences, speakers may avoid using CS in the Mood, more specifically in the Finite. There were two other major localization patterns revealed through the analysis: the lack of switches in the verbal components Finite and Predicative (as discussed above), and the vast occurrence of switches in the Vocative. The frequent switches in the Vocative solidify the importance of the Vocative component in interpersonal SFG analysis, even though it falls outside the Mood-Residue construction.

The lack of consensus on the grammatical characteristics and behavior of CS inspired the use of SFG in the analysis, as it offers a more functional way of examining CS. Implementing SFG on CS research, especially in the structure-detailed way used in this thesis, has only little groundwork. Thus, the thesis also discussed what needs to be considered when carrying out SFG analysis on CS. It was pointed out that SFG framework has been used on multiple languages, and there can be differences in them that affect analysis. For the current thesis the suggested SFG for English by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) was used, as the limitations of the data made it relevant to only consider clear cases of Spanish CS inserted into an otherwise English setting. However, the SFG suggested for Spanish was also discussed, and it is evident that differences in how the two languages work in regard to the structures in SFG revealed motivations for patterns that were uncovered in the analysis. This suggests that for comprehensive SFG research on CS, it is required that the SFG characteristics of each language are to be considered. Combining the SFGs of multiple languages into a framework for CS research also calls for the need to inspect all languages through the SFG framework.

It would be too early to generalize the suggestions offered by the current study due to the limitations of the study brought about by the fictive nature of the data and the fact that the data consisted of short utterances by various speakers. It also needs to be acknowledged that the patterns discussed in the thesis pertain only to English to Spanish CS. However, as the current study is an experimental work in a yet quite unexplored area of CS research, the analysis and the discussion of the patterns revealed, and the methods used, offer interesting insight into the matter at hand. As mentioned, the results of the study suggest that considering both languages individually through the SFG framework is essential in revealing patterns, as well as the consideration of all three metafunctions. The results of the current study also suggest that delving deeper into the components of SFG and how CS behaves in and between these components may offer new insight on the grammatical characteristics of CS. Studying CS through SFG in certain contexts, eg. political speech, advertisement, casual conversations, to reveal the role of CS in the meaning-making process of the clause would be a natural next step for future SFG-CS research. Previous research on the grammar of CS and the discord on universal aspects of it suggests that the field requires an approach that considers the characteristics of both the languages in the interaction, as well as a review of underlying patterns of meaning in language use. The Systemic Functional Grammar approach offers a useful and comprehensive tool for this type of research.

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# Appendices

## Appendix 1 The analysed data

1. (Vote for Flaca)

<b>puta</b>	's	full of <b>caca</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement

(bitch) (shit)

Declarative CS: Subject & Complement Maritza, season 1, episode 6

2.

Sometimes	<b>yo</b>	<b>necesito</b>	two pillows	for ergonomics
Adjunct	Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

(I need)

Declarative CS: Subject & Finite+Predicator Maria, season 1, episode 7

3.

That <b>maricón</b>	wouldn't	know	labor	(if that baby popped out and slapped him in the f*cking face.)
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	

(wimp)

Declarative CS: Subject Aleida, season 1, episode 8

4.

Just	keep	walking	<b>mami</b>
Adjunct	Finite	Predicator	Vocative

(honey)

Imperative CS: Vocative Aleida, season 1, episode 8

5.

	Had to	haggle	with <b>las</b>	(, but I got it.)
(Subject omitted)	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct	

(the black women)

Declarative CS: Adjunct Maritza, season 1, episode 8

6. (You know, for my son)

they	told	me	to play	with my <b>chichitas.</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicative	Complement	Predicator	Adjunct

(nipples)

Declarative CS: Adjunct Gloria, season 1, episode 8

7. 

Some <b>blanca</b> guesser bitch	won	the Twix
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement

  
 (white)

Declarative CS: Subject Aleida, season 1, episode 8

8. 

My aunt	was	a <b>santera</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement

  
 (witch doctor)

Declarative CS: Complement Gloria, season 1, episode 9

9. 

I	'm	sorry you feeling like shit	<b>chica</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Vocative

  
 (girl)

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 1, episode 9

10. 

Don't	worry	<b>nená</b>
Finite	Predicator	Vocative

  
 (darling)

Imperative CS: Vocative Aleida, season 1, episode 9

11. 

Those	are	the breaks	<b>papa</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Vocative

  
 (daddy)

Declarative CS: Vocative Aleida, season 1, episode 10

12. 

My daughter	's	with my cousin	at some <b>marimacha</b> collective she's part of
Subject	Finite	Adjunct	Adjunct

  
 (lesbian)

Declarative CS: Adjunct Maritza, season 1, episode 13

13. 

Drink up	<i>mami</i>
Predicator	Vocative

  
(honey)

Imperative      CS: Vocative      Gloria, season 2, episode 2

14. 

I	didn't	get	me	a belly full of stretch marks	to be no fucking <i>tía</i>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Comp	Complement	Adjunct

  
(aunt)

Declarative      CS: Adjunct      Aleida, season 2, episode 2

15. (A few weeks ago Gloria said) 

the <i>roja</i>	could	eat
Subject	Finite	Predicator

 (, but she just never came in 'till now)  
(red woman)

Declarative      CS: Subject      Maria, season 2, episode 2

16. 

Two boys	are	with their <i>tía</i>
Subject	Finite	Adjunct

  
(aunt)

Declarative      CS: Adjunct      Gloria, season 2, episode 2

17. (Look) 

my <i>tía</i>	says
Subject	Finite+Predicator

 (it doesn't matter if you're praying to a giant cross or to a itty bitty stick, it's the faith that you put in it that counts.)  
(aunt)

Declarative      CS: Subject      Gloria, season 2, episode 2

18. 

<i>Mamita</i>	can	you	get	me	another bag of flour
Vocative	Finite	Subject	Predicator	Complement	Complement

  
(sweetheart)

Yes/no interrogative      CS: Vocative      Aleida, season 2, episode 6

19. 

It	's	called	grammar	<b>tonta</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Subject	Vocative

  
 (idiot)

Declarative      CS: Vocative      Flaca, season 2, episode 7

20. 

You	've	got	<b>tres días</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

  
 (three days)

Declarative      CS: Complement      Gloria, season 2, episode 8

21. (I knew) 

that skinny <b>puta</b>	was	pulling	some shit
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

  
 (bitch)

Declarative      CS: Subject      Aleida, season 2, episode 13

22. 

You	're	gonna have to learn	these	soon	<b>hermano</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

  
 (brother)

Declarative      CS: Vocative      Cesar, season 3, episode 1

23. 

I	'm	sorry	<b>papí</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Vocative

  
 (man)

Declarative      CS: Vocative      Gloria, season 3, episode 1

24. 

You	have	the prettiest <b>becicita</b>	here	after mine
Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct	Adjunct

  
 (little baby girl)

Declarative      CS: Complement      Maria, season 3, episode 1

25. 

<i>Ay</i>	<b>chica</b>	you	got	a little something	on your shirt there
Expletive	Vocative	Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

  
 (girl)

Declarative CS: Vocative Maria, season 3, episode 1

26. 

Eat	your french fries	<b>puto</b>
Predicator	Complement	Vocative

  
 (bitch)

Imperative CS: Vocative Cesar, season 3, episode 2

27. (so they won't get all, like, PC, and) 

(Subject ellipsed)	give	it	to the fat <b>mayate</b>
	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

 (so she don't get all sad)  
 (black woman)

Declarative CS: Adjunct Flaca, season 3, episode 5

28. 

I	'm	supposed to put on	that <b>feo</b> hair net
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

  
 (and scurb pots and pans everyday because it's gelling?)  
 (ugly)

Declarative CS: Complement Flaca, season 3, episode 5

29. 

Sometimes	love	ain't	stronger than <b>débil</b>
Adjunct	Subject	Finite	Complement

  
 (weakness)

Declarative CS: Complement Cesar, season 3, episode 5

30. 

<b>La Red</b>	says
Subject	Finite+Predicative

 (it's in the back)

Declarative CS: Subject Maritza, season 3, episode 6

31. 

<b>tonta</b>	your mother	never	taught	you	how to reheat dinner rolls?
Vocative	Subject	Adjunct	Finite+Predicative	Complement	Complement

  
 (idiot)

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 3, episode 7

32. 

I	miss	him	<b>mana</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Vocative

  
 (friend)

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 3, episode 10

33. 

I	know	<b>mami</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicative	Vocative

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 3, episode 12

34. 

<b>La china</b>	found	it	on the bottom shelf	in the commissary
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Adjunct

  
 (The chinese lady)

Declarative CS: Subject Aleida, season 3, episode 12

35. 

You	're	doing	good	<b>mami</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Adjunct	Vocative

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 3, episode 12

36. 

Think	of all that sweet <b>potorro</b> tang	(I'm wasting)
Predicator	Adjunct	

  
 (pussy)

Imperative CS: Adjunct Flaca, season 3, episode 13

37. 

Who	's	<b>la jefa?</b>
Complement	Finite	Subject

  
(the boss)

WH-interrogative CS: Subject

Ouija, season 4, episode 1

38. 

These <b>cundangos</b>	think	(they're gonna run our city)
Subject	Finite+Predicator	

  
(faggots)

Declarative CS: Subject

Maria's father, season 4, episode 2

39. 

These <b>cocolos</b>		all over	the ball	like it's a free sandwich
Subject	(Finite/predicator omitted)	Adjunct	Complement	Adjunct

  
(black people)

Declarative CS: Subject

Ouija, season 4, episode 2

40. (I bet) 

you	got	cousins darker than they are	<b>pana</b>
Subject	Finite +Predicator	Complement	Vocative

  
(friend)

Declarative CS: Vocative

Maria, season 4, episode 2

41. 

It	's	that Mexican <b>papí chulo</b> that hangs out next to school
Subject	Finite	Subject

  
(handsome daddy)

Declarative CS: Subject

Maria's friend, season 4, episode 2

42. ... and 

the only Mexicans	are	<b>campesinos</b>	from Fresno
Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct

  
(farm people)

Declarative CS: Complement

Flaca, season 4, episode 2

43. 

There	's	more of us	everyday	fucking <b>pendeja</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

  
(bitch)

Declarative CS: Vocative Blanca, season 4, episode 2

44. 

Is	that	what that <b>cabrón</b> is telling you?
Finite	Subject	Complement

  
(asshole)

Yes/no interrogative CS: Complement Maria's father, season 4, episode 2

45. 

My baby girl	is	taking	<b>cholo</b> dick
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

  
(halfbreed)

Declarative CS: Complement Maria's father, season 4, episode 2

46. 

I	know	what it is	<b>pendeja</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Vocative

  
(bitch)

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 4, episode 3

47. 

	You	gonna roll over	like a <b>pendeja</b>
(Finite omitted)	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct

  
(bitch)

Yes/no interrogative CS: Adjunct Gloria, season 4, episode 4

48. (... 'cause) 

She	's	all about	like	upward mobility and <b>la raza</b>
Subject	Finite	Adjunct	Adjunct	Complement

  
(heritage)

Declarative CS: Complement Flaca, season 4, episode 4

49. (... or)

I	get	sticky between my <b>tetas</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Adjunct

(tits)

Declarative CS: Adjunct Ouija, season 4, episode 9

50.

You	ain't	got	time	for jokes	<b>estúpida</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

(stupid)

Declarative CS: Vocative Ouija, season 4, episode 12

51.

Girl	you	wanna	be	the <b>jefa</b> in charge	(you can't be napping)
Vocative	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	

(boss)

Declarative CS: Complement Maria, season 5, episode 1

52.

We	got	no power	<b>pendeja</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicator	Complement	Vocative

(bitch)

Declarative CS: Vocative Ouija, season 5, episode 2

53.

We all	think	about taking down these <b>cabrones</b>
Subject	Finite+Predicative	Adjunct

(bastards)

Declarative CS: Adjunct Gloria, season 5, episode 5

54.

Say	hi	<b>chiquita</b>
Predicative		Vocative

(kid)

Imperative CS: Vocative Flaca, season 5, episode 5

55. 

Fucking <b>quera</b>		trying to steal	our people	with this arty bullshit
Subject	(Finite omitted)	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

  
 (bitch)

Declarative CS: Subject Maria, season 5, episode 7

56. 

I	'm	his mother	<b>carajo</b>
Subject	Finite	Complement	Expletive

  
 (damn it)

Declarative CS: Expletive Gloria, season 5, episode 8

57. 

That <b>blanquita</b>	is	bland
Subject	Finite	Complement

  
 (whitey)

Declarative CS: Subject Aleida, season 5, episode 8

58. 

She	ain't	gonna get	no <b>boricua</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement

  
 (Puerto Rican)

Declarative CS: Complement Aleida, season 5, episode 8

59. 

<b>Coño</b>	he	's	coming
Expletive	Subject	Finite	Predicator

  
 (Fuck)

Declarative CS: Expletive Blanca, season 5, episode 8

60. 

You	've	been fucking up	her life	for 23 years	<b>querida</b>
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct	Vocative

  
 (dear)

Declarative CS: Vocative Gloria, season 5, episode 9

## Appendix 2 Finnish summary

### Johdanto

*Koodinvahtoa*, eli eri kielten käyttämistä samassa keskustelussa, on tutkittu pitkään muun muassa sen funktioiden osalta (katso mm. Auer 2013; Bhatia ja Ritchie 2004; Altarriba ja Heredia 2001) ja sille on myös esitetty monia eri kieliopillisia ominaisuuksia ja rajoittimia (katso mm. Belazi, Rubin ja Toribio 1994; Di Sciullo, Muysken ja Singh 1986; Sankoff ja Poplack 1981; Pfaff 1979). Tässä tutkimuksessa koodinvaihtoa tutkitaan varsin kartoittamattomasta kieliopillisesta lähtökohdasta, Hallidayn ja Matthiessenin (2014) *systemis-funktionaalisen kielioppiteorian* (SFK) näkökulmasta. SFK näkee kielen merkityssysteeminä, jossa merkitykset luodaan kieleen iskostetuilla rakenteilla. Tämä tutkielma pyrkii perehtymään koodinvaihdon rooliin SFK:n merkityssysteemissä analysoimalla kielenvaihtojen sijaintia SFK:n teoriakehyksestä löytyvässä intersoonallisessa kieliopillisessa rakenteessa.

Vail (2006) on toiminut pioneerinä koodinvaihdon tutkimiseen systemis-funktionaalisen teorian kautta ja toteaakin, että teoria ei ole vielä tarttunut koodinvaihdon tutkimiseen merkitystä rakentavana kielellisenä resurssina (Vail 2006,134). Tutkimukseni pyrkii tarttumaan tähän tutkimuskohdistuksen puutteeseen. SFK:n teoriakehyksen pohjana ovat kolme kielen tehtävää, jotka muodostavat kehyksessä kolme metafunktiota: *ideationaalinen metafunktio* (kokemuksista kommunikointi), *intersoonainen metafunktio* (sosiaalisten suhteiden ilmaiseminen) ja *tekstuaalinen metafunktio* (diskurssisekvenssien järjestäminen) (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014). Tämä tutkielma keskittyy intersoonaiseen metafunktioon, jonka kautta tutkitaan lauseen luomia merkityksiä sosiaaliseen kanssakäymiseen liittyen ja lausetta pidetään vaihtokauppana. Kyseinen fokus perustuu koodinvaihdon intersoonaiseen luonteeseen sekä aikaisempaan tutkimukseen aiheesta.

SFK (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014) keskittyy lauseeseen ja sen sisältä löytyviin merkityksiä muodostaviin rakenteisiin. Intersoonaisessa metafunktiossa merkityksiä ilmaisevat kaksi funktionaalista rakennetta, *Moodi* (eng. the Mood) ja *Jäämä* (eng. the Residue), jotka sisältävät erilaisia komponentteja. Moodi-rakenne vie lauseen sanomaa eteenpäin vuorovaikutuksessa, sillä se sisältää komponentit, jotka ilmaisevat, mistä/kenestä lauseessa on kyse sekä liittävät ilmaisun puhehetken kontekstiin. Jäämä taas koostuu komponenteista, jotka antavat lisäinfoa lauseen

tarkoitukseen liittyen. Lisäksi tutkielma ottaa huomioon kaksi interpersoonaista komponenttia, *Vokatiivi* (Vocative) ja *Ekspletiivi* (Expletive), jotka esiintyvät Mood-Jäämä rakenteen ulkopuolella. Koodinvaihtojen esiintyminen näissä rakenteissa analysoidaan mahdollisten käyttömallien paljastamiseksi.

Tutkielman aineisto koostuu englanninkielisistä lauseista, joissa esiintyy espanjankielistä koodinvaihtoa. Aineisto on kerätty Netflix-sarjan *Orange Is the New Black* latinohahmojen dialogista. Vaikka fiktiivinen aineisto tuo omat haasteensa, olen kandidattutkielmassani (Hyrsky 2015) tutkinut samaa aineistoa, ja löytänyt dialogista koodinvaihtoa, joka käyttäytyy samankaltaisesti kuin luonnollisesti esiintyvä koodinvaihto. Täten koen, että kyseinen aineisto soveltuu myös nykyiseen tutkimukseen.

Tutkielma pyrkii vastaamaan seuraavaan tutkimuskysymykseen: millaisia käyttömalleja koodinvaihdon sijainnissa ilmenee, kun lauseita tarkastellaan interpersoonaisen metafunktion rakenteiden ja komponenttien kautta? Hypoteesini on, että koodinvaihto keskittyy Jäämä-rakenteeseen kahdesta syystä: (1) Jäämä ilmaisee lauseen 'ekstra' informaatiota ja siellä vaihdon tekeminen ei keskeytä lauseen viestiä ja (2) ero Moodi-rakenteen tärkeydessä lauseen merkityksen rakentamisessa englannin ja espanjan välillä rajoittaa koodinvaihdon käyttöä Moodissa. Tutkielma käsittelee myös mitä tulee ottaa huomioon, kun SF-teoriaa sovelletaan koodinvaihdon tutkimukseen.

### **Teoreettinen viitekehys**

Tutkielman teoreettinen osio sisältää katsauksen yleisesti koodinvaihdosta sekä tarkemmin englanti/espanja koodinvaihdosta ja sen tutkimuksesta. Lisäksi esitellään tutkimuksessa käytetty teoreettinen viitekehys eli SFK ja sen sisältämät rakenteet ja komponentit, joita aineistosta tunnistetaan. Viimeisenä käydään läpi vielä millaisia aspekteja tulee ottaa huomioon SFK:n soveltamisessa englanti/espanja koodinvaihdon tutkimukseen.

Koodinvaihtoa on tutkittu vuosien ajan eri näkökulmista. Kolme päälähestymistapaa koodinvaihdon tutkimuksessa ovat rakenteellinen tutkimus, psykolingvistinen tutkimus ja sosiolingvistinen tutkimus (Bullock ja Toribio 2009, 14). Tämän tutkielman lähestymistapa yhdistää rakenteellisen ja sosiolingvistisen lähestymistavan, sillä vaikka koodinvaihtoa tutkitaan rakenteellisessa mielessä, SFK:n

suhtautuminen kielen rakenteisiin ja merkityksiin on yhteydessä interpersoonallisiin eli sosiaalisiin merkityksiin ja vaikutuksiin. Tutkielma keskittyy *lauseensisäiseen* (eng. intrasentential) koodinvaihtoon, jonka on todettu olevan kytköksissä kieliopillisiin sääntöihin (Ritchie ja Bhatia 1996, 629) ja jonka koetaan olevan merkki kaksikielisten henkilöiden korkeasta kielitaidosta (Ritchie ja Bhatia 1996, 636). Englanti/espanja koodinvaihtoa on tutkittu koodinvaihdon kieliopin urauurtavissa tutkimuksissa, ja kyseisten tutkimusten pohjalta ehdotetut koodinvaihdon kieliopilliset rajoittimet toimivatkin pohjana tämän tutkielman hypoteeseille. Rajoittimet liittyvät siihen, millaisten kieliopillisten rakenteiden välillä koodinvaihtoa voi käyttää, esimerkiksi substantiivifraasin ja verbifraasin välissä, tai apuverbin ja verbifraasin välissä. Monet rajoittimet liittyvät siihen, että koodinvaihtoa voi tapahtua vain niiden rakenteiden välillä, jotka toimivat samalla tavalla kussakin kielessä (katso mm. Poplack 1980, 1981; Pfaff 1979). Rajoittimet ovat saaneet osakseen paljon kritiikkiä, ja on myös ehdotettu lähestymistapaa koodinvaihdon rajoituksiin, jossa ajatuksena on, ettei vaihtoja rajoita mikään muu kuin se, mikä rajoittaa koodinvaihdossa mukana olevien kielten kielioppia (MacSwan 2000, 43). Koska SFK:n lähestymistapa kieleen ja kielioppiin on merkityslähtöisempää ja funktionalisempaa, se voi tuoda uusia näkökulmia koodinvaihdon rakenteelliseen tutkimukseen.

Tutkielmassa käytetty SFK viitekehys (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014) keskittyy interpersoonaiseen metafunktion ja sen sisältämiin merkityksiä ilmentäviin rakenteisiin. Tärkeimpänä erotteluna interpersoonaisissa rakenteissa on ero Moodin ja Jäämän välillä. Moodi on *Subjektin* (eng. Subject) ja *Finiitin* (eng. Finite) muodostama rakenne, joka elementtinä vie dialogia eteenpäin (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014, 193). Jäämä on rakenne, joka täydentää lauseen merkitystä, ja se voi sisältää *Predikaattorin* (eng. Predicator), *Komplementin* (eng. Complement) ja *Adjunktin* (eng. Adjunct) (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014, 151). Lisäksi viitekehukseen kuuluvat myös kaksi interpersoonaista merkitystä luovaa komponenttia, jotka ovat Mood-Jäämä rakenteen ulkopuolella: Vokatiivi ja Ekspletiivi (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014, 159). SFK:ssa tärkeänä osana on myös lauseiden *modus* (eng. mood), jonka pohjalta lauseet erotellaan *indikatiiveihin* ja *imperatiiveihin* (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014, 97), indikatiivi-modukset jakautuvat vielä *deklaratiiveihin* ja *interrogatiiveihin*. Modus määräytyy englannin kielessä lauseen tarkoitusperän ja Moodin komponenttien järjestyksen mukaisesti (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014, 143). Vaikka monet

komponentit saavat esiintyä samoilla termeillä tai rakentua samankaltaisella tyyllillä kuin perinteisessä kieliopissa, tulee muistaa, että SFK:lla on funktionalisempi lähtökohta kielioppiin, ja täten komponenttien suhteet toisiinsa saavat toimia eri tavalla SFK:n näkökulmasta, jos verrataan perinteiseen kielioppiin. Koodinvaihdon tutkiminen SFK:n kautta saattaa paljastaa piileviä funktionaalisia rakenne-eroja, jotka selittävät koodinvaihdon käyttömalleja.

SFK:n soveltaminen koodinvaihdon tutkimukseen on ollut vähäistä, ja tutkimuksen yksi pioneereista on Vail (2006), joka tutki Thain ja Laon kielten välistä koodinvaihtoa Pohjois-Thaimaassa. Vailin tutkimus paljasti, että koodinvaihto toimi välineenä tekstuaalisen koheesion ja interpersoonaisen merkitysten luomisessa (Vail 2006, 159). Vail ei kuitenkaan tutkimuksessaan tehnyt nykyisen tutkielman tapaista yksityiskohtaista komponenttianalyysiä, ja tutkimuksen kielet ovat monilta muilta osin paitsi leksikaalisesti todella samanlaisia (Vail 2006, 146), mutta tutkimuksen tulokset oikeuttavat tämän tutkielman interpersoonaisen fokuksen. SFK viitekehys, jota tässä tutkielmassa käytetään (Halliday ja Matthiessen 2014) soveltuu englannin kielen analysointiin, ja onkin tärkeää muistaa, että muita kieliä on myös tutkittu SFK:n näkökulmasta (katso mm. Banks 2017; Lavid, Arús ja Zamorano-Mansilla 2010; Li 2007), ja kielten välillä on huomattu olevan eroja. Tätä tutkielmaa varten myös espanjan kielen SFK on otettu huomioon, ja vaikka Englanti ja Espanja ovat monilta osin kieliopillisten rakenteiden osalta samankaltaisia, SFK:n interpersoonallisissa rakenteissa on eroja. Suurimpana erona on Moodi-rakenteen merkitys lauseen moduksen ja merkityksen rakentamisessa – Mood ei espanjan kielessä määritä yksin modusta, eikä se ole samalla tavalla selkeästi yhtenäinen funktionaalinen yksikkö (Lavid, Arús ja Zamorano-Mansilla 2010, 261).

### **Tutkimuksen aineisto ja metodit**

Tutkimuksen aineistolähteenä on Netflix striimauspalvelun alkuperäissarjan *Orange Is the New Black* latinohahmojen dialogi. Sarjasta oli datankeräyshetkellä julkaistu viisi 13-jaksoista kautta. Sarja on draamakomedia, joka kertoo elämästä fiktiivisessä naistenvankilassa Litchfieldissä Yhdysvalloissa. Dataan otettiin mukaan 13 latinohahmon dialogi. Hahmojen kuultiin puhuvan Englantia ja Espanjaa sujuvasti sarjan aikana, joten he ovat kaikki sujuvia kaksikielisiä puhujia. Koska sarjan käsikirjoituksia ei ole saatavilla, datan keräys tapahtui katsomalla jokainen jakso alusta

loppuun, kirjaten ylös kuullut koodinvaihdot englanninkielisiä tekstityksiä hyväksikäyttäen. Yhteensä materiaalia oli katsottavana 64 tuntia. Koska espanjankielisiä tekstityksiä ei ole saatavilla, ja osa kohdista, joissa hahmot puhuivat espanjaa, jossa he käyttivät englantikoodinvaihtoa, olivat vaikea ymmärtää, keskitettiin data sisältämään englanninkielisiä lauseita, joissa on koodinvaihtoa espanjaksi. Dataa täsmennettiin myös sisältämään vain itsenäisiä lauseita, sillä ne sisältävät Moodi-Jäämä rakenteen. Vaikka data sisältää yksittäisiä lauseita eri puhujilta, yhteinen muuttuja datassa on, että lauseet ovat sujuvien kaksikielisten puhujien tuottamia.

Aineistosta tunnistettiin Hallidayn ja Matthiessenin (2014) SFK:n mukaisten selostusten perusteella lauseiden modus, Moodin ja Jäämän komponentit sekä Vokatiiivi ja Ekspletiivi. Koodinvaihto paikannettiin tiettyyn komponenttiin/komponentteihin. Tuloksista jaoteltiin lauseiden modus, koodinvaihdon komponenttiesiintyvyys, mikäli koodinvaihto käsitti koko komponentin vai esiintyikö se vain osassa komponenttia, ja yleinen komponenttien esiintyvyys kerätyssä aineistossa. Lisäksi tarkasteltiin tarkemmin koodinvaihdon esiintyvyyden jakaumaa Moodi-Jäämä rakenteessa deklaraatiivilauseissa, joita oli huomattava enemmistö aineistossa.

### **Keskeisimmät tutkimustulokset**

Tutkimuksen analyysin tuloksena tutkimuskysymykseen, millaisia käyttömalleja koodinvaihdon sijainnissa ilmenee intersoonaisissa rakenteissa, saatiin seuraavat päätelmät: (1) suurin osa koodinvaihdosta sijaitsee Moodin ulkopuolella, (2) ainoat koodinvaihdot Moodissa olivat Subjekti komponentissa, (3) yksittäisissä Finiitti ja Predikaattori komponenteissa ei ollut lainkaan koodinvaihtoa ja (4) Vokatiiivi oli yleisin sijainti koodinvaihdolle. Hypoteesi koodinvaihdon keskittymisestä Jäämä elementtiin osoittautui osittain pitäväksi, sillä noin 40% vaihdoista sijoittui Jäämään, mutta lähes yhtä suuri prosenttimäärä koodinvaihdosta sijoittui Moodi-Jäämä rakenteen ulkopuolelle, eli Vokatiiiviin ja Ekspletiiviin. Huomioitava on myös se, että myös Moodissa esiintyi koodinvaihtoa, joskin kaikki vaihdot sijoituivat Subjekti komponenttiin. Selityksenä Moodin vähäisemmälle koodinvaihtoesiintymälle saattaa olla hypoteesin toinen perustelu, eli Moodin eriarvoinen asema englannin ja espanjan kielissä. Moodissa koodinvaihto keskittyi Subjektiin, eikä vaihdettuja Finiittejä esiintynyt datassa yhtäkään. Tutkimustulokset eivät pysty tukemaan hypoteesin

ensimmäistä perustelua, sillä toistuva koodinvaihto Subjektissa, noin 20% vaihdoista, ei kieli siitä, että koodinvaihtoa Moodissa vältettäisiin viestin selkeyden säilyttämiseksi.

Yksi erottuvimmista käyttömalleista tutkimustuloksissa oli verbikomponenttien koodinvaihtojen puuttuminen – vain yksi Finiitti+Predikaattori komponentti oli vaihdettu, ja kyseisessä tapauksessa koko Moodi, eli myös Subjekti, olivat espanjaksi. Tulos kieli siitä, että Moodin ja etenkin Finiitin erilaisen interpersoonaisen tiedonkanto kummassakin kielessä rajoittaa koodinvaihtoa Moodissa. Toinen erottuva käyttömalli oli yleinen Vokatiiveissa esiintyvä koodinvaihto. Vokatiivin tarkoitus on kohdentaa puhe puhuteltavalle, ja koodinvaihto Vokatiivissa voi luoda etäisyyttä tai läheisyyttä puhetilanteeseen osallistujien välille ja sävyttää sanottua joko negatiivisesti tai positiivisesti. Tutkimustulokset vahvistavat Vokatiivin interpersoonaista tärkeyttä siitä huolimatta, että se ei kuulu metafunktiossa esiintyvään Moodi-Jäämä rakenteeseen.

Tutkimustuloksia on liian aikaista yleistää, etenkin johtuen aineiston fiktiivisestä luonteesta ja sen rajallisuudesta. Tulokset kuitenkin antavat suuntaa sille, mitä tulee ottaa huomioon, kun SFK:a sovelletaan koodinvaihdon tutkimuksessa ja millaisia käyttömalleja ja tarkoituksia koodinvaihdolla saattaa ilmetä kielten rakenteiden erojen vuoksi. Jotta koodinvaihdon tutkimus SFK:n avulla antaisi kattavia tuloksia, tulisi molempien kielten SFK:n kautta todetut ominaisuudet ottaa huomioon. Seuraava askel SFK-koodinvaihto tutkimuksessa olisi koodinvaihdon tutkiminen kaikissa metafunktioissa tietyissä konteksteissa, esimerkiksi mainoskielen tai poliittisen kielen konteksteissa, ottaen huomioon erilaiset muuttujat kuten puhujien iän tai sosiaalisen statuksen.