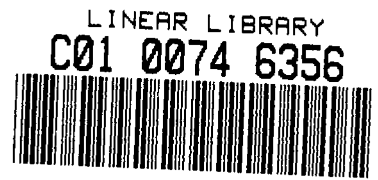
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# A STUDY IN LANGUAGE CONTACT

by

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**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language and Literature, University of Cape Town.**

**1999**

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## ABSTRACT

The objective of this thesis is to report on a research project investigating the language behaviour of Sotho-English bilingual students at the University of Cape Town (hereafter UCT). Sotho is used here as an umbrella term to refer to the Sotho group of languages; Sesotho (Southern Sotho), Sepedi (Northern Sotho) and Setswana. UCT is a multilingual institution in the sense that the students, and to some extent the lecturers, are proficient in a number of languages including English, Afrikaans, and a wide range of African languages from within and outside South Africa. At the time of the study in 1997 UCT was multiracial with a majority of white students and a minority of African students.

At a general level the concept of language contact is the superordinate linguistic and philosophical category underpinning the thesis. At a more specific level, the thesis examines three related concepts; code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing. It is based on theoretically and empirically founded distinctions between code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing.

Empirically the data was collected surreptitiously. The ethical questions about who researches what and whom are acknowledged. Permission to use the covertly collected data was sought after the recording from all informants and was granted. The data from the covert recordings was triangulated with interviews with the informants.

Theoretically the thesis uses a number of approaches to describe and explain language contact: structuralist, interactionist and psycho-social approaches although the dominant framework is a structuralist one. Sociologically the thesis demonstrates that code-switching constitutes a variety in which speakers exhibit differing degrees of skilled abilities and may be unmarked or marked depending on the extent which it reinforces or violates community norms. The linguistic varieties must be understood in terms of individual repertoires and community speech economies. Code-switching may represent a normal, routine way of use or could be said to violate the expectations of how one should behave.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **Acknowledgements** | | iv |
| **Abbreviations** | | v |
| **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION** | | |
| 1.0 | Introduction | 1 |
| 1.1 | Rationale | 1-3 |
| 1.2 | Context | 3 |
| 1.3 | Thesis Outline | 3-4 |
| **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW** | | |
| 2.0 | Introduction | 5 |
| 2.1 | Bilingualism | 5-6 |
| 2.1.1 | Bilingualism and Negative Transfer | 6-7 |
| 2.1.2 | Bilingualism and Positive Transfer | 7 |
| 2.1.3 | Approaches to Bilingualism | 8-9 |
| 2.1.4 | Bilingual Categories | 9-10 |
| 2.2 | Multilingualism | 11-13 |
| 2.3 | Diglossia | 13-14 |
| 2.3.1 | Diglossia in Multilingual Settings | 15-20 |
| 2.3.2 | Diglossia and Variation | 20 |
| 2.4 | Code-Switching | 20-23 |
| 2.5 | Code-Mixing | 23-24 |
| 2.6 | Borrowing | 25-27 |
| 2.6.1 | Transference: Borrowing as a process | 27-28 |
| 2.6.2 | Linguistic Integration | 28-29 |
| 2.7 | Style Shifting | 29-30 |
| 2.8 | Conclusion | 30-31 |

## CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE CONTACT


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 3.0 | Introduction | 32-33 |
| 3.1 | Myers-Scotton (1993) | 33-37 |
| 3.2 | Kamwangamalu (1994, 1997) | 37 |
| 3.3 | Poplack (1980) | 38 |
| 3.4 | Sankoff and Poplack (1981) | 38-39 |
| 3.5 | Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) | 39 |
| 3.6 | Bokamba (1988) | 40 |
| 3.7 | Myers-Scotton (1992) | 41-43 |
| 3.8 | Kachru (1978) | 44 |
| 3.9 | Blom and Gumperz (1972) | 44-45 |
| 3.10 | Janet Holmes (1992) | 45-47 |
| 3.11 | Giles and Smith (1979) | 48-49 |
| 3.12 | Conclusion | 49 |


## CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 4.0 | Introduction | 50 |
| 4.1 | Research Question | 50 |
| 4.2 | Pilot Study | 51-53 |
| 4.3 | Data Elicitation Procedures | 53 |
| 4.3.1 | Primary Data | 54 |
| 4.3.2 | Secondary Data | 54 |
| 4.3.3 | Identification of Research Subjects | 54-56 |
| 4.3.4 | Research Subjects | 56-57 |
| 4.3.5 | Audio-Recording and Issues about Ethics | 58-59 |
| 4.3.6 | Semi-Structured Interviews | 59-60 |
| 4.4 | Conclusion | 60 |

**CHAPTER 5: DATA ANALYSIS**


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 5.0 | Introduction | 61 |
| 5.1 | Linguistic Constraints on Code-Switching | 62 |
| 5.1.1 | The Matrix Language Frame model | 62-71 |
| 5.1.2 | The Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint | 72-77 |
| 5.1.3 | The Dual Structure Principle | 77-78 |
| 5.1.4 | Theoretical Discussion of the Matrix Language Frame model, Free Morpheme Constraint, Equivalence Constraint, Dual Structure Principle | 79-82 |
| 5.2 | Code-Mixing | 82-85 |
| 5.3 | Borrowing | 85-86 |
| 5.4 | Social Motivations of Code-Switching | 86 |
| 5.4.1 | The Markedness model | 86-93 |
| 5.4.2 | Theoretical Discussion of the Markedness model and Speech Accommodation Theory | 93-95 |
| 5.5 | Shibboleth | 95-96 |
| 5.6 | Conclusion | 96-97 |


**CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**


| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 6.0 | Introduction | 98 |
| 6.1 | Summary | 98-100 |
| 6.3 | Limitations of Current Research and Recommendations | 100-101 |

**BIBLIOGRAPHY** 102-109

**APPENDICES**

Appendix 1: Interview Schedule 110

Appendix 2: Audio-Recorded Conversations 111-118

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## ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| **adj** | Adjective |
| **adv** | Adverb |
| **AdvP** | Adverb Phrase |
| **comp** | Complement |
| **CM** | Code-Mixing |
| **CS** | Code-Switching |
| **det** | Determiner |
| **DSP** | Dual Structure Principle |
| **EC** | Equivalence constraint |
| **EL** | Embedded Language |
| **FMC** | Free Morpheme constraint |
| **L1** | First Language |
| **L2** | Second Language |
| **ML** | Matrix Language |
| **MLF** | Matrix Language Frame model |
| **n** | Noun |
| **NP** | Noun Phrase |
| **PP** | Preposition Phrase |
| **prep** | Preposition |
| **SVO** | Subject-Verb-Object |
| **UCT** | University of Cape Town |
| **VP** | Verb Phrase |

# CHAPTER 1

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.0 Introduction

In this chapter I contextualize the study, outline the problems and issues investigated in this thesis, and provide an overview of the chapters in the thesis.

## 1.1 Rationale

This thesis identifies and explains the nature of code-switching (CS) experiences at UCT by Sotho-English bilingual students, using the constructs of code-switching, code-mixing (CM) and borrowing as exploratory concepts. The thesis examines data obtained in natural contexts and from semi-structured interviews using a multi-focused approach. The data was analysed using a number of different theoretical frameworks such as Myers-Scotton's (1993) Matrix Language Frame model, Sankoff and Poplack's (1981) Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint, Myers-Scotton's (1992) Markedness model and Giles and Smith's (1979) Speech Accommodation Theory.

A long and robust tradition of research in language contact situations has evolved, particularly on CS. CS continues unrelentingly to capture the imagination of researchers as is apparent in a continued flow of recent publications, for example

"Afrikaans to English: a case study of language shift" by Vivian de Klerk and Barbara Bosch (1998) and "Competing communicative styles and crosstalk: a multi-feature analysis" by Jeff Connor-Linton (1999). Unfortunately, both articles were too late to be included in the thesis. CS has been reported to occur in a number of diverse communities all over the world: in North India (Gumperz 1958), Mexican American communities (Fishman 1972, Pfaff 1979), American-Israeli communities (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka 1987), Africa (Kamwangamalu 1994, McCormick 1989, Myers-Scotton 1992), to mention a few. The phenomenon of CS has been reported on for a variety of multilingual and/or multidialectal speech communities. There were powerful reasons to expect it to occur at UCT as well, permeating student conversational life.

The idea that CS is unsystematic is dated (see Weinreich 1953). In this thesis CS will be presented as a type of skilled performance occurring regularly and systematically in multilingual communities including UCT. The thesis will examine the linguistic and syntactic constraints on code-switching.

CS cuts across all social classes, languages, ages, gender etc and has communicative and sociological significance. The analysis will demonstrate how cognitive, social and cultural processes work in synergy in linguistic contexts. The thesis will also illustrate how CS can be used as a social strategy and as a powerful linguistic instrument. It is a social strategy used by speakers to define themselves as members of a community.

For purposes of this study a neutral definition on language codes will be used. The term linguistic variety is intended to accommodate different contact situations; CS, CM, languages, speech styles and borrowing.

## 1.2 Context

UCT is a historically white, western oriented, English medium university. The institution is unique because the nature of the student body is multilingual as well as multiracial. The conversation patterns manifested in this context are interesting because they define the nature of language use at this university. They portray the extent to which language contact influences everyday conversations depicting the nature of the relationship between language and the communities using it. Chick (1992) in his work about language use in two South African universities emphasises the importance of the relationship between interactions and the social structure. Conversations provide an insight into how speakers define the nature and extent of language use in societies because "there is a reflexive relationship between events taking place in the micro-interactional context and in the macro-context of the wider society" (Chick 1992:216).

## 1.3 Thesis Outline

This thesis has six chapters. Chapter 1 establishes the theoretical framework for my research.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature on language contact. The chapter describes and explains various concepts useful in analysing contact situations, demonstrating the different and inconsistent ways in which the concepts are used in an increasingly large body of literature.

Chapter 3 gives a detailed description of theoretical approaches to CS focusing on Blom and Gumperz (1972), Giles and Smith (1979), Myers-Scotton (1992, 1993), Kamwangamalu (1994, 1997), Sankoff and Poplack (1981) and Sridhar and Sridhar (1980).

Chapter 4 describes the different methods used in data collection in the project forming the basis of the thesis. The chapter describes the problems and issues arising in the pilot study and how the main study tried to take into account those experiences in its design. A number of different research methods were used to enhance triangulation.

Chapter 5 focuses on data analysis. On the basis of the analysis the patterns of CS are reported. The analysis is based on a number of different modes, the linguistic approaches complemented and extended by functional approaches.

Chapter 6 is the last chapter in the thesis providing an opportunity to reflect on the strength and weaknesses of the thesis. It begins with a description of the key findings, and proceeds to outline the conceptual issues which future research might wish to follow.

# CHAPTER 2

# LITERATURE REVIEW

## 2.0 Introduction

In chapter one I outlined the objectives of the thesis. In Chapter two I review the literature on language contact. The chapter explains and categorises the different types of language contact situations.

Many concepts have been used to describe switching between two or more unrelated languages: code-alternation (Auer 1995), code-mixing (Sridhar and Sridhar 1980), code-switching (Myers-Scotton 1988), language crossing (Rampton 1995), language interference (Weinreich 1953) and style shifting (Gal 1979). In this chapter I will demonstrate the conflicting and inconsistent ways in which the concepts are used. The plethora of terms has not necessarily contributed towards conceptual clarity, and it is therefore important to describe quite clearly their stated and intended meanings wherever possible.

## 2.1 Bilingualism

In the following sections I am going to focus on proposed attitudes and approaches to bilingualism. I will illustrate the connections, which can be made between

bilingualism and a wide range of concepts used in academic research into language contact including diglossia and style shifting. Note that my discussion will focus on both individual and societal bilingualism.

Until recently, bilingualism has been treated as an exception rather than the norm. The use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode has attracted a great deal of attention over the years, most likely because "it violates a strong expectation that only one language will be used at any given time" (Heller 1988:1). Bilingualism is a fairly wide-spread phenomenon arising when two languages are in contact. Thus it is found in almost every country and estimates show that at least half of the world's population speak more than one language (Romaine 1989:25).

Some traditional views about bilingualism tend to regard it as detrimental to the intellectual development of a child, particularly in the early stages of learning (Fishman 1968:3). Traditional studies in linguistics, psychology and sociology have often approached bilingual language use not as the norm but as some strange, at worst discouraged, at best tolerated, behaviour. In the past linguists have often viewed bilingualism as an act of interference between any two "pure" languages (Weinreich 1953:9-11).

### 2.1.1 Bilingualism and Negative Transfer

In those situations in which the presence of two or more languages has been acknowledged, the belief has been that the presence of an additional language

interferes with the successful use of another language. Thus a first language was to be avoided rather than actively used as a basis for second language learning. Ellis (1994) in his "The Study of Second Language Acquisition" summarises early studies which adopted such a negative perspective.

Studies based on notions of additive bilingualism adopt an opposite view about the role of a first language – arguing instead that a first language is a template on which second language learning could be based (see Alexander 1992, 1995 for a detailed discussion).

### 2.1.2 Bilingualism and Positive Transfer

Bilingualism is construed as a linguistic resource available to speakers. "It is part of processes of social action and interaction, part of the ways in which people do things, get things, influence others and so on" (Heller 1995:159).

Current studies on the role of the first language learning adopt a much more sophisticated view about the relationship between a first and a second language and are neutral about the directionality of the influence. Through the concept of cross-linguistic influence academic researchers are beginning to accept that there is no single direction in the ways a first and a second language influence each other. A first language can also influence a second language in as much as a second language can influence a first language.

### 2.1.3 Approaches to Bilingualism

There has been a vast amount of literature on bilingualism but inspite of this there is no uniform conceptualisation of what bilingualism really constitutes. Bilingualism

has become a portmanteau in which many concepts are deposited. The following are some of the definitions being proposed.

According to Mackey (1968), "the concept of bilingualism has become broader and broader since the beginning of the century" (Mackey 1968, cited in Calteaux 1996:18). Following Bloomfield bilingualism has been defined as the "native-like control of two or more languages" (1933:56). The underlying assumption here seems to be an equal mastery of the languages in question. Unfortunately there has recently been a considerable controversy about what constitutes native like control of language. If the concept of a native speaker is fuzzy then the concept of bilingualism as proposed by Bloomfield becomes a difficult one to operationalise because we do not know who to include and who to exclude on the criteria of native speaker control.

The definition by McCollum (1981) shifts the focus from native speaker control to an alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual and the ability to produce meaningful and comprehensible sentences in a second language (cited in Brettenny and de Klerk 1995:41). My thesis adopts an approach comparable to that of McCollum in which emphasis is placed not on native speaker control but on an

alternate use of two or more languages. My research however goes further than McCollum's because I am interested not only in the alternate use of languages but also in the domains in which the various languages are used. Conceptually my analysis takes the discussion further because I not only talk about alternate

languages but also about the linguistic varieties, deliberately drawing an analogy between an alternate use of different languages and an alternate use of different styles. In the next section I describe bilingual categories.

### 2.1.4 Bilingual Categories

Weinreich (1953) identifies three types of bilingualism: co-ordinate, compound and subordinate.

The co-ordinate bilingual speaker is seen as one who functions as two monolinguals. Compound bilingualism refers to the merging of the two languages at conceptual levels. Subordinate bilingualism occurs in situations in which there is a clear distinction between the dominant and dominated languages. Words in the dominated language are interpreted through the semantics of the dominant language. (For a detailed discussion see Appel and Muysken 1987:75)

The distinctions proposed above were not productive and ran into theoretical and methodological problems. Theoretically they assume that languages are stable, unaffected commodities. They overlook the degrees of flux between languages.

Thus MacNamara (1970) reports that words in two languages do not necessarily have completely overlapping meanings or semantic content, a view which has vast theoretical implications on language contact (cited in Appel and Muysken 1987:77). In Chapter 6 on reflections about language in code-switching, I will illustrate that the view of language as mutually separate codes is untenable (see Makoni 1998, Blommaert 1998).

Psycholinguistic approaches to bilingualism have been mostly concerned with the rate of articulation and the speed of accessing knowledge (Macnamara 1969 as cited in Appel and Muysken 1987:2). The rate of articulation of each of the bilingual languages is taken as the measure of the bilingual's control over other languages. The assumption, therefore, is that the more fluent or automatic a speaker's use of language, the higher the degree of proficiency.

Sociologists have usually interpreted bilingualism in terms of the relative frequencies of use in different settings (Nahirmy and Fishman 1966, quoted in Fishman 1972:111). Although a lot of data has been collected, these disciplines have not fully succeeded in explaining bilingualism. Psychological enquiry runs into the danger that the human mind is not open to direct inspection. Unfortunately methodological procedures used to tap information about the human mind, such as introspection, verbal reports, grammaticality and/or acceptability judgements, have had limited success.

## 2.2 Multilingualism

The South African (SA) constitution officially passed by parliament in 1996 recognises 11 official languages. In addition to the 11, the constitution recognises 15 other languages and language groups under the category of heritage languages, such as Hindi, Portuguese and Greek, and places the responsibility of all those languages on the Pan South African Language Board (PANSLAB). Section 6(1), (2), (4) and (5) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) reads thus:

6. (1) The official languages of the Republic are Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda, Xitsonga, Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa and isiZulu.

   (2) Recognising the historically diminished use and status of the indigenous languages of our people, the state must take practical and positive measures to elevate the status and advance the use of these languages.

   (4) The national government and provincial governments, by legislative and other measures, must regulate and monitor their use of official languages. Without detracting from the provisions of subsection (2), all official languages must enjoy parity of esteem and must be treated equitably.

   (5) A Pan South African Language Board established by legislation must -

   (a) promote, and create conditions for, the development and use of -

   (i) all official languages;

   (ii) the Khoi, Nama and San languages; and

   (iii) sign language; and

(b) promote and ensure respect for –

(i) all languages commonly used by communities in South Africa, including German, Greek, Gujarati, Hindi, Portuguese, Tamil, Telegu and Urdu; and

(ii) Arabic, Hebrew, Sanskrit and other languages used for religious purposes in South Africa.

Recently there has been an increasing interest into the discourses of multilingualism spearheaded by Makoni (1998) and S. Ridge (1999). S. Ridge argues that the discourse of multilingualism in South Africa is apocalyptic. Although these trends are exciting they do not constitute the main thrust of this thesis.

Multilingualism is a common practice in SA although the notion of multilingualism in itself has come under severe criticism. Some scholars feel the SA version of multilingualism is inconsistent with what takes place in reality among language users. The main concern of such critics is the need to deconstruct the underlying assumptions focusing more on language as practice rather than as reified objects (Makoni 1998 and S. Ridge 1999). The main criticism of the multilingual perspective embodied in the South African constitution is the way it constructs language. Makoni (1998) argues that the South African version of multilingualism is seen largely through monolingual lenses and fails to propose proper distinctions between multilingualism and monolingualism. Makoni (1998) concludes that South African multilingualism is, in essence, plural monolingualism.

Multilingualism in this respect refers to an alternative use of three or more languages during the same conversational run allowing speakers to carry out activities. In the spirit of that approach Wardhaugh (1992) writes:

> We have no reason to assume that such situations as these are abnormal in any way. In many parts of the world people speak a number of languages and individuals may not be aware of how many different languages they speak. They speak them because they need to do so in order to live their lives: their knowledge is instrumental and pragmatic. In such situations language learning comes naturally and is quite unforced. Bilingualism or multilingualism is not at all remarkable.
>
> (Wardhaugh 1992:100)

From this last section, I now turn to a section attempting to explain relationships between languages by evoking the concept of diglossia. Note though that the UCT speech community I have studied does not fit in any of the following diglossic situations.

## 2.3 Diglossia

The notion of diglossia was introduced and largely popularised through the pioneering work of Ferguson (1959). His formulations of the concept provided a conceptual basis on which subsequent refinements were made. It is however possible that the concept was over refined to such an extent that it has been used to describe basically identical sociolinguistic contexts in different ways.

Ferguson (1959:339) studied Arabic, Haitian Creole, Swiss-German and modern Greek as examples, leading him to define diglossia as:

> A relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of a language (which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, heir of an earlier period or another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes, but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.

Ferguson defines diglossia as a stable situation of two functionally different varieties of the same language. It is clear from the above definition that varieties of a language and their attributed roles in a specific context are the most important aspects of that definition. He argues that each variety serves as a means of understanding a specific situation. The language varieties perform different functions. The **H** (high) variety, for instance, becomes the powerful variety and is socially prestigious relative to the **L** (low) variety with limited prestige. Ferguson proceeds to demonstrate how the usage of the **H** variety corresponds with formal speech situations and the usage of the **L** variety correspond with informal speech situations. The **H** variety is learnt in educational settings and as a medium for writing. The **L** variety is acquired as one's native language and, in a sense, is not subjected to any normative control. In other words the **L** variety is generally employed in oral communication and various types of intimate conversations (between friends, family, colleagues etc.). The **H** and **L** variety should be construed not as distinct but as complementary.

Ferguson's description of diglossia cannot, at least in its original conceptualisation, account for the globally pervasive phenomenon of bilingualism and multilingualism. His model also implies a higher degree of stability in language use and speech communities than is normally the case in most situations, at least in Africa. The crucial aspect is that diglossia in its original conceptualisation was restricted to varieties within the same language.

### 2.3.1 Diglossia in Multilingual Settings

The salient aspect is that diglossia in its original formulation was restricted to varieties within the same language. The relationship which Ferguson postulates to exist between different varieties of the same language, that is **H** and **L**, can also be said to obtain between different languages. It is in this light that the Fishman (1971a, 1971b) reinterpretation becomes crucial. Fishman has extended the concept to accommodate more diverse sociolinguistic contexts. Like Ferguson, he accepts that functional differentiation between speech forms is central to diglossia. Unlike Ferguson he insists, and quite rightly so, that functional differentiation (and complementation) also occurs between languages and is not confined within a single language.

Fishman (1971a, 1971b) identifies diglossia as an essential measure for classifying speech communities with more than one language. According to Fishman diglossia has to be understood as some form of coexistence of two (or more) linguistic

varieties or languages in which the values of social class and class-bound functions are complementary to one another:

> This separation was most often along the lines of an **H** (high) language, on the one hand, utilised in conjunction with religion, education, and other aspects of High Culture, and **L** (low) language, on the other hand, utilised in conjunction with everyday pursuits of hearth, home, and lower work sphere.
> (Fishman 1971a:74, Fishman 1971b:287)

In a further attempt to support his claim, Fishman (1972a) makes reference to bilingual speech communities in which various languages are functionally complementary. Bilingualism is distinguished from diglossia. The distinction is not so much characterised by the subjects having competence in two different languages or in two varieties of the same language, but rather by the notion that linguistic differences (of any kind) are intimately related to the institutionalised class distinctions: "Here we see...that bilingualism is essentially a characterisation of individual linguistic versatility whereas diglossia is a characterisation of the social allocation of functions to different languages or varieties" (Fishman 1971b:295).

Bilingualism is seen as a characterisation of the individual's linguistic behaviour and diglossia as characterising linguistic organisation at a socio-cultural level. The former could be understood as the ability to use more than one variety and the latter deals with the distribution of more than one language variety which facilitates different communicational intentions in a given society. Given the above, Fishman recommended recognition of diglossic situations with or without bilingualism and bilingualism with or without diglossia. Consequently, Fishman argues that:

> Diglossia exists not only in multilingual societies which officially recognise several "languages", and not only in societies that utilise vernacular and classical varieties, but also in societies which employ separate dialects, registers or functionally differentiated language varieties of whatever kind.
>
> (Fishman 1967:31)

For Fishman diglossia occurs in, for example, situations in which clear-cut differences between linguistic systems correlate strictly with social class and/or class-governed social divisions. The correlation is known and acknowledged by at least large sections of the society in question (1971a:75). However, like Ferguson, he insists that the **H** variety, which for Fishman is not only a variety but a language itself, is mainly a product of education at school rather than something that is normally acquired at home. Thus there is nobody who can claim to have the **H** as his or her mother tongue since it is only acquired at school or via education. In a sense, the **H** variety or language does not form part of the primary processes of language acquisition and socialisation.

Fishman provided a four-fold table to represent possible relationships between bilingualism and diglossia within a given society.

Figure 1: Relationships between bilingualism and diglossia

| *BILINGUALISM* | *DIGLOSSIA* + | *DIGLOSSIA* − |
|---|---|---|
| + | i Both diglossia and bilingualism | ii Bilingualism without diglossia |
| − | iii Diglossia without bilingualism | iv Neither diglossia nor bilingualism |

(Source: Fishman 1972a:93)

**(i) Both diglossia and bilingualism**

Large societies using more than one language can be said to be bilingual. The relationship between languages can be captured through diglossia. Fishman (1972a) describes interesting situations in which speakers engage in numerous but compartmentalised roles. Access to several roles is encouraged or facilitated by powerful social institutions and processes.

**(ii) Bilingualism without diglossia**

This notion describes a situation where bilingualism exists with diglossia being absent. There is an emphasis on the distinct nature and functions of the two

concepts. As pointed out earlier, one can talk of individuals who are bilingual and societies which are bilingual as well. Bilingualism in this respect can be summarised as languages used, in certain circumstances, between interlocutors and for particular purposes.

### (iii) Diglossia without bilingualism

Language communities in this case are characterised by diglossia minus bilingualism. The relationship between the **H** and the **L** is within the varieties of the same language. The social allocation of functions is such that there is a strict demarcation between the **H** and **L** varieties (or languages). Furthermore, this restricted separation of language varieties defines group boundaries, specific roles and linguistic access. One's membership of a particular language group automatically permits access to the practices, both social and linguistic, of that community. In a sense language use may be seen as congruent to intragroup behaviour. An outsider status severely disadvantages access to language and role practices. The emphasis is on ascribed rather than achieved status.

### (iv) Neither diglossia nor bilingualism

This type of situation in which there is neither diglossia nor bilingualism applies to isolated, undifferentiated speech communities that have minimal contact with the outside world. Although there is internal frequent interaction between members of the speech community, there seems to be no significant establishment of

differentiated registers or varieties. In Fishman's (1972a) words, such societies are rare and when found they are rapidly becoming extinct. Furthermore the perceived absence of linguistic differentiation may be more a problem with the analysts than the community members. The community members may see distinctions within their communities' use of language not readily observed by an outside observer.

### 2.3.2 Diglossia and Variation

Diglossia implies a form of linguistic variation. The variation ranges from stylistic variation within a single language to variation between separate structurally unrelated languages. In my research reported in this thesis in Chapter 5 I will demonstrate the variation which occurs in the speech patterns of Sotho-English bilinguals in spite of the typological differences between them. I am going to use Sotho for research in a way which is different from the way the languages are labelled in the South African constitution (see section 2.2). Sotho here is a superordinate term referring to a group of African languages while English is Indo-European.

## 2.4 Code-Switching

Two concepts which have been widely used in language contact studies but whose status and relationship remain extremely controversial are code-switching and code-mixing. In the following section I attempt to distinguish between code-switching (CS), code-mixing (CM) and borrowing.

Some scholars distinguish between CS and CM whereas others tend to treat them as different terms for the same phenomenon. Borrowing as well has often been treated as an example of CM. Following Bokamba (1988), Herbert (1994) and Kachru (1978) in my study I distinguish between CS and CM. As Poplack (1987) puts it:

> What is important is that this phenomenon [code-swithing] be clearly distinguished, first conceptually, then operationally as much as possible, from all other consequences of bilingualism which involve not alternate use, but the truly simultaneous use of elements from both codes... Not least important, all of these phenomena should be distinguished from speech errors which involve elements of both languages, and which may be properly considered "interference".
>
> (Poplack, cited in Gardner-Chloros 1995:75)

CS has been defined in various ways. Di Petro (1977:3) defines CS as "the use of more than one language by communicants in the execution of a speech act". Myers-Scotton proposes that CS is the "use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation or interaction without prominent phonological assimilation of one variety to the other" (1988:157). She further emphasises assimilation as a basic criterion of CS, but also makes reference to particular code-switched structures. Although an individual speaker's repertoire may be described, no account is given of the speech economy of the community in which speakers live (Blommaert 1992). She records single code-switched structures or even intra speaker code-switches, her arguments are not cogent, they fail to describe what Gal (1979) calls unreciprocal CS, that is exchanges in which different interlocutors consistently use different languages.

CS in this thesis will be used as a superordinate category accounting for shifts between two or more linguistic varieties between typologically unrelated languages. CS can occur within the same sentence as well as at sentence boundaries. This study therefore understands CS as both an intersentential and intrasentential phenomenon, manifesting itself in various forms, from single words to phrases or complete utterances. CM, on the other hand, refers to a situation in which morphemes from both languages are used within the same word. Borrowing refers to a situation where linguistic elements, typically words are absorbed into the host language. The borrowed words are adapted to the rules of the host language.

There is however no unanimity among researchers about the conceptual differences between CS and CM. For example, Gumperz (1982) and Holmes (1992) maintain that there is no significant operational difference between the two concepts. Gumperz and Holmes claim the above definitions are often too broad when trying to distinguish them from other language contact phenomena. Myers-Scotton (1988) insists that the distinction between CS and CM is not a clear one at all since some form of mixing is involved in both instances. Like Myers-Scotton, Gibbons (1987) points out that it is difficult to identify and maintain a consistent empirical distinction between CS and CM. Attempts to maintain a distinction are rendered even more difficult when two or more varieties are integrated. The use of the term "mixing" is unfortunate because it creates an impression that the phenomenon of CS is an "unprincipled chaos" (Myers-Scotton 1988:158), conjuring up an impression of disorder where systematicity prevails.

I accept that there is an overlap between CS and CM since they both involve a mix of two or more languages. I maintain, however, that the two should be treated separately. The major difference is that CS has to do with switching more than one language intersententially and intrasententially in sentences. CM involves intrasentential mixing within a word. I would like to illustrate the distinctions between CS and CM on the basis of my empirical data discussed fully in Chapter 5.

- **A Sotho-English bilingual speaking Tswana and switching (words in italics) to English**

Ry: *It's okay*, ke tla ja sengwe le sengwe se a tlang le sona. *It doesn't look like I have much choice* .
[...I'LL HAVE OR EAT ANYTHING SHE BRINGS.]

- **Mixing (words in italics)**

Cs: Re ya *party-ing* ya Jabu ka *di-seventeen*
[WE'RE ATTENDING JABU'S PARTY ON THE SEVENTEENTH.]

## 2.5 Code-Mixing

In the preceding section I focused on CM indirectly when distinguishing it from CS. In the following section I will focus directly on CM.

CM according to Kachru (1977:107) refers to a process of transferring language units from one language into another. McCormick's (1995) definition involves the

length and units of switched elements. She says that it is taken to refer to speech in which the alternation is of shorter elements, often just single words. Definitions provided indicate a pervasive common characteristic, that is, the frequent use of units belonging to the other language. However, it is not clear whether these small elements are words or phrases or clauses.

The definitions that come nearest to my work are those proposed by Bokamba (1988), Herbert (1994) and Kachru (1977). According to Bokamba, CM involves those grammatical features from both languages used within the same sentence. In Herbert's terms, the synchronic incorporation of lexical material is CM. Kachru on the other hand, sees CM as structural features and codes that are transferred within a sentence. It is in this perspective that CM will preferably be understood as the use of words and morphemes from one language in the sentence of another language. In other words, it is a mixture of two (or more) morphemes from more than one linguistic variety within the same word. For instance, in my corpus of spoken conversations of Sotho-English bilinguals intrasentential mixing occurs frequently in some of the following categories: nouns, verbs and adverbs.

- **Sotho prefix + English stem = mixed noun**

  di- seat = di-seat (seats)

- **English verb + Sotho verbal suffix = mixed verb**

  (Ke tla...) phone -la = phone-la (I'll phone)

## 2.6 Borrowing

Borrowing is the taking of materials from one language for use in another. Linguists are in general agreement about the conceptual significance of distinguishing borrowing from CM. However, some linguists treat borrowing as interchangeable with CM. Blom and Gumperz (1972), Fishman (1972b) and Holmes (1992) seem to see CM and borrowing as a unidirectional process. Consequently, no attempt is made to distinguish CS and CM. The assumption is that the two concepts are interrelated. Although Myers-Scotton (1988) argues that, although, the line between CS and CM is fuzzy and indeterminate, it is important to distinguish between CS and borrowing.

To a certain degree, the problem appears to be the outcome of the conceptual similarity between CS to language transference and borrowing. In addition various researchers have used CS in referring to specific sociolinguistic situations and objectives. For instance, Poplack has considered the use of tag switches and individual noun switches as authentic instances of CS. It is also clear from several studies that some items not morphologically and phonologically adapted to the first language (L1) are considered instances of borrowing. Elias-Olivares 1976 (cited in Khati 1992:182), for example, defines nouns in specialised domains such as business and education that are associated with the dominant English culture as Spanish lexicon. This means that in some cases, “it is not obvious whether we have an instance of codeswitching or some sort of lexicalization, i.e borrowing” (Gingras cited in Khati 1992:183).

CM suggests the process of mixing is "temporary or meant" perhaps because of incompetence at a certain specific occasion while borrowing implies a certain measure of permanency. The distinction between borrowing and CM may be a temporal one. CM may be, and is in most instances, a "synchronic process" of bilingualism and multilingualism. Borrowing could be identified as a "diachronic process". In borrowing, foreign items, mainly lexical elements belonging to the other language, are incorporated into the structural system of the host language. Borrowing is not restricted to bi/multilingual communities, it can also occur in monolingual societies.

Accordingly, Gumperz defines borrowing as:

> ...the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one variety [or language] into the other. The items in question are incorporated into the grammatical system of the borrowing language. They are treated as part of its lexicon, take its morphological characteristics and enter into its syntactic structure.
>
> (Gumperz 1982:66)

Borrowing is a term used to refer to a process of filling gaps in the host language reflecting a need for lexical expansion. This means people who are exposed to more than one language tend to borrow terms from their mother tongue (L1), when they do not have the term readily available in their second language (L2). This is not restricted to bilinguals because monolinguals borrow words from other languages as well.

Borrowing is the stable integration of elements from one language into another and the use of those terms in the host language. The key aspect is that, in spite of the presence of the borrowed words, the utterances remain identifiable as those of the host language. Borrowing can be construed not as a one-off event but as a process of adaptation in which the utterances obey the rules of the host language. Borrowed words retain identical meaning in the host language as they do in the source language. Furthermore, these words are pronounced and used grammatically as if they were part of the speaker's L1. The following examples, from my empirical data, illustrate how some of the English words are adopted in Sotho. The adopted words are made to behave in a manner consistent with Sotho rules.

| English | Borrowed words in Sotho |
|---|---|
| Department | dephatemente |
| Vote | vota |

A fuller discussion appears in the data analysis in Chapter 5.

### 2.6.1 Transference: Borrowing as a process

This section describes some of the processes occurring in borrowing such as integration and transference.

Language transference is a term broadly used to describe a relationship between languages. It is viewed as "the use of features belonging to one language while

speaking or writing another" (Mackey 1968, cited in Khati 1992:182) and "the adoption of any elements or features from the other language" (Clyne 1972, cited in Khati 1992:182). This means features belonging to one language are absorbed into the recipient language. Features of the source language are further comparable to those of the host language both morphologically and phonologically. Adopted elements are integrated and further treated as part of the grammatical system. The fact that foreign elements are allowed to enjoy a native status brings about the issue of frequency: that is, the extent to which particular elements are used in a language. It is important to understand language borrowing not only in terms of transference but also in terms of how it relates to situational factors. Besides grammatical and situational aspects, focus on borrowing needs to address two important characteristics - linguistic integration and social acceptability.

### 2.6.2 Linguistic Integration

Processes of integration are part of borrowing, hence my argument that borrowing is a process not a one-off event. Through the process of transference, features of one language get adopted and subsequently incorporated into the host language. This system of incorporation defines the relationship between language and attitudes. A word is likely to be socially accepted if it occurs frequently.

In chapter 5, I explore in more detail ways in which people's socialisation influences the attitudes they may hold towards borrowed words. Borrowed words are used in the host language like any other words in the host language. If speakers feel that

the borrowed word is an appropriate designation they are likely to use it even if its etymology is unknown. The fact that borrowed items are frequently used by large numbers of speakers suggests that, contrary to Gumperz (1982), borrowing is not a conscious process. To sum up this section, in this thesis I view borrowing as an unintentional process involving transference and integration while CS/CM involve inter and intra switching/mixing .

## 2.7 Style-shifting

Style shifting involves accommodating and adjusting to different addressees in different contexts. I am going to draw parallels between style-shifting and CS. Both CS and style-shifting take place when speakers want to achieve a specific objective. Speakers may choose a particular style to project themselves as communicatively competent, or perhaps even incompetent, members of a speech community. Within the language contact framework, style-shifting and language choice can be said to be functionally comparable. Both choices represent the same type of communicative intent that enables monolinguals to move from a colloquial to a formal style. The intention to move from an informal style to a formal one may involve a shift from one language to another among bilingual speakers. Style-shifting in such situations is occurring not within but across language boundaries.

Stylistic differences across languages are obviously easier to identify than those within the same language. It is however dangerous to take the arguments too far. Style-shifting among bilingual individuals may be much more complicated. A

bilingual individual can choose not only between different styles across languages, but different styles within the same language.

Marked and unmarked choices are possible with styles as well as languages. Contrary to the implicit view of internal linguistic homogeneity that has guided research in bilingualism, languages themselves are often internally heterogeneous and include styles or dialects demarcated by covariant rules (Gumperz and Wilson 1971). What is meant is that bilingual repertoires, besides their own special characteristics, have some features similar to monolingual ones. For instance, in addition to the relatively fixed occurrence rules separating languages, bilingual repertoires also have more flexible covariant rules. These rules serve the same purpose in monolingual repertoires of distinguishing styles.

## 2.8 Conclusion

In this chapter I have sought to describe the phenomenon of language contact. I have argued that CS, CM, borrowing, diglossia, bilingualism etc. are all instances and manifestations of a general phenomenon language contact. I have proceeded to describe in detail what, from my perspective, are the differences between CS, CM and borrowing. I have indicated the debates about whether the two concepts, that is CS and CM, should be treated as part of the same phenomenon or differently. Irrespective of the theoretical position one takes about the relationship between CS and CM, I have highlighted the differences between those two concepts and borrowing.

In chapter 3 I describe a number of key frameworks used to describe language contact such as for example Myers-Scotton (1992, 1993), Giles and Smith (1979), Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) and Kamwangamalu (1994, 1997).

# CHAPTER 3

# THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE CONTACT

## 3.0 Introduction

In this chapter I describe the models used in language contact research by a number of select local and international researchers. This chapter will examine different theoretical approaches used in a description of CS. Generally, this section gives an overview of a variety of studies to show the different language contexts or situations within which CS occurs. Furthermore it will demonstrate how researchers define CS and related phenomena such as CM, borrowing. The main objective of this chapter is to describe different theoretical approaches and models which have been used to explain the linguistic constraints and social functions motivating CS. The chapter is organised as follows: the first section defines linguistic constraints on CS. The second section describes the social motivations for CS. Because of the style of presentation some partial repetition is inescapable - a price I have to pay to increase clarity in presentation.

I am aware that the distinction between linguistic constraints and the socially motivating factors for CS is a simplification. I have adopted such an approach for case in exposition, and for clarity. The chapter as I will demonstrate later is directly relevant to my thesis since I am examining both the social motivations involving

switching and constraints restricted to switching. Because of the importance of Myers-Scotton's work to CS, I am going to explore in detail her work since it is germane to my topic.

## 3.1 MYERS-SCOTTON

### Matrix Language Frame model

The Matrix Language Frame model (MLF model) is concerned with how participants switch codes in the course of a single conversational discourse. The major objective of the MLF model is to identify the structural constraints placed upon code switches. It attempts to predict where and how in a sentence a speaker may code-switch. In terms of the MLF model, CS is defined as "the selection by bilingual or multilingual (speakers) of forms from embedded variety (or varieties) in utterances of a matrix variety during the same conversation" (1993:3). The MLF assumes the speaker has two or more languages at her disposal, and that there are points which facilitate or limit the possibilities of CS occurring.

Using the meta-language of the MLF two types of languages must be distinguished. The first one is the Matrix Language (ML) and the second the Embedded Language (EL). The ML plays a more dominant role while the EL is any other language used to a lesser extent than the ML. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1987:61) identified the former as "host" and the latter as "guest" languages. In other words, the EL utterances are framed in the ML, implying that "morphosyntactically the rules of the

embedded language must conform or give way to the corresponding rules of the matrix language" (Kamwangamalu, 1994:74).

Because of the centrality of the notion of the ML it is important that it be defined as clearly as possible. I therefore turn to Myers-Scotton's definition:

> Because the MLF model argues that the specialised syntactic procedures of the formulator which set the frame must come from the matrix language (ML), the ML's identification is obviously crucial. That is, ML assignment has major structural consequences for CS utterances. Therefore, to avoid circularity, the ML must be defined independently of this structural role it plays.
>
> (Myers-Scotton 1993:66)

A combination of pyscholinguistic and sociolinguistic criteria are used to define the ML. The ML is described as the "speaker's more dominant language in terms of proficiency and [...] for which community norms makes it the unmarked choice for the interaction in question" (Myers-Scotton 1992, cited in Mekacha 1993:148). Contrary to the above combination, I prefer to use a sociolinguistic criterion to identify and describe the ML in my thesis. As Myers-Scotton herself emphasises, it is difficult to find a method that measures proficiency objectively and accurately. Often, the speaker's mother tongue is considered to be the ML because of the assumption that speakers have a higher proficiency in their L1 than their L2. Makoni (personal communication) however has demonstrated that the reverse may actually be the case. Speakers can be proficient in any of the languages they are constantly exposed to, especially in multilingual settings. This study therefore understands the ML as any language that is dominant and unmarked for a number

of interactions. It must be noted that my definition is not restricted to single utterances, it refers to the entire discourse.

Languages in most multilingual communities constitute a hierarchy hence the relevance of a diglossia and bilingualism framework I reviewed in section 2.3.1. The hierarchy is not fixed. It may vary from one context to another and may change from time to time. In chapter 5 I explain in more detail the reasons for postulating that the Sotho group of languages should constitute the ML. According to Appel and Muysken (1987:121) the matrix language can be interpreted as the unmarked language in determining bilingual verbal behaviour. It is not surprising then that structural features in a discourse are drawn from the dominant language i.e the ML. The EL seems to be relinquished of any possible autonomy, implying that the dominant language determines the CS direction. It also determines the constitution of structural patterns and the question of which constituents of the dependent language should be code-switched and where and how they should be switched. In other words, the ML imposes constraints and by extension identifies the linguistic space within which CS may occur.

The MLF model is concerned with intrasentential code-switching only. The MLF draws a further distinction between system and content morphemes. The system morphemes govern the grammar of the language (inflexional affixes, possessive adjectives, quantifiers, determiners, tense, aspect, time adverbs), and the content morphemes carry the semantic content (nouns, descriptive adjectives, verb stems).

Morphemes may not necessarily be congruent in two languages. They may be content morphemes in one language but are system morphemes in another, further complicating the manner and direction in which CS may occur.

In this model, three types of code-switching constituents are identified governed by related constraints Matrix Language and Embedded Language (ML and EL) constituents, Matrix Language (ML) islands, and Embedded Language (EL) islands).

### (i) Matrix Language and Embedded Language Constituents

ML and EL consist of morphemes from both languages used within one word. Constituents consist of morphemes from both Sotho (ML) and English (EL) languages. English verbs and nouns (content morphemes) are mixed with Sotho affixes (system morphemes) within a single word, as illustrated in the following examples,

location-ng = location, di-students = students

### (ii) Matrix Language Islands

CS utterances consist of ML morphemes only, and the grammar of the ML is adhered to. For example,

Go robala thata ga go a siama tsala ya me.

[SLEEPING TOO MUCH IS NOT GOOD MY FRIEND.]

**(iii) Embedded Language Islands**

They are composed only of EL morphemes, follow the grammar of the EL, and show internal structural dependency relations. For example,

It was a good game.

In the following section I now turn to an analysis of the work of Kamwangamalu. I have paid special attention to Kamwangamalu because he has consistently explored issues about code switching using some of Myers-Scotton's frameworks in empirically grounded research in Southern Africa.

## 3.2 KAMWANGAMALU

Kamwangamalu (1994, 1997) CS research among siSwati-English bilinguals highlights Myers-Scotton's (1992) notion of matrix language and embedded language. Kamwangamalu (1994) proposed the Matrix Code Principle (MCP) as the basis for illustrating that the dominant language shapes the pattern of CS. The MCP has two complementary objectives. First, it distinguishes two types of languages, the ML and the EL. Second, the principle seeks to predict the morphosyntactic structure of switched utterances. Kamwangamalu (1997:46) presents the principle as follows:

> In every code-mixed discourse (D) involving language one (L1) and language two (L2), where L1 is identified as the matrix code (i.e. host code) and L2 as the embedded code (i.e. guest code), the grammar of the L2 must conform to the morphosyntactic structure rules of L1, the language of the discourse.

### 3.3 POPLACK

Poplack (1980:518-618) argues that CS is a three way phenomenon, but all three features are dependent on the degree to which they have been phonologically, morphologically and syntactically integrated into the other participating language. Three types of CS include inter and intra-sentential switching and emblematic or tag switches. Intersentential switching occurs between sentences and requires more "skill since a code-switched segment, and those around it, must conform to the underlying syntactic rules of two languages which bridge constituents and link them together grammatically" (1980:589). Emblematic or tag switches refer to the use of individual noun switches, idiomatic expressions and interjections from one language to another.

### 3.4 POPLACK AND SANKOFF

Sankoff and Poplack (1981) in their study of Spanish-English code-switching proposed that code-switching can be generated by a model of grammar that is governed by two universal constraints. That is the Free Morpheme Constraint (FMC) and the Equivalence Constraint (EC). The FMC stipulates that a switch may not occur between a bound morpheme and a lexical form unless the lexical form has been integrated phonologically into the language of the morpheme. The EC predicts that "CS will tend to occur at points where the structural integrity of both languages is preserved, that is, at points where the juxtaposition of the L1 and L2 elements does not violate the syntactic rule of either language" (Sankoff and

Poplack 1981 as quoted in Kamwangamalu 1994). This assumes that the languages in contact share similar syntactic categories such as the morpheme order. In Chapter 5 on the basis of my empirical evidence I will demonstrate the limitations of the so-called "universal constraints".

After a brief description of Sankoff and Poplack's work I now focus on Sridhar and Sridhar's work on CS in the Indian sub-continent.

### 3.5 SRIDHAR AND SRIDHAR

Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) looked at the syntax of bilingual code-mixing. In their study of English and Kannada code-mixing they proposed the Dual Structure Principle (DSP). The DSP postulates that "the internal structure of the guest constituent need not conform to the constituent structure rules of the host language, so long as its placement in the host obeys the rules of the host language" (Sridhar and Sridhar 1980). The key aspect in the DSP is the notion of the host language or the ML. Like Myers-Scotton (1993) and Kamwangamalu (1994, 1997), they are in agreement that any embedded constituents have to abide by the ML's syntactic rules. Because of the ML's status, it dictates the position mixed structures will be embedded in. Contrary to the EC, the DSP highlights the differential role and status of the languages in code-mixing.

## 3.6 BOKAMBA

At this stage it is timely to review Bokamba's (1988) work in language contact. Bokamba analyses the use of CM between Swahili and Lingala. He enumerates a number of workable definitions of communicative resources associated with CS. CS occurs when there's a complete switch across sentence boundaries. CS for him occurs intersententially. In the process the grammatical rules of languages are not applicable. CM on the one hand, allows grammatical constituents of languages involved within the same sentence. Code-mixed utterances are divided into two categories:

### (i) Lexical and phrasal insertions

These are emblematic or tag switches (see Poplack 1980). They also include the use of individual noun switches, idiomatic expressions and interjections from one language to another as illustrated in the following examples from my corpus.

Exclamations - oh, my God!

Discourse markers - okay, because, maybe, and, etc.

### (ii) Morphologically mixed utterances

The composition of words is such that both languages are represented in the switched forms. (See Myers-Scotton's MLF model, these utterances are referred to as ML and EL constituents).

A further distinction is made between CM and borrowing. Borrowed words or phrases are not autonomous. Phonologically, morphologically and syntactically, borrowed words are assimilated into the significant language while the code-mixed ones are not affected. Bokamba states that CM tends to take place in the speech of bilinguals and multilinguals, whilst borrowing can appear in the speech of monolingual, bilingual and multilingual speakers. It is clear from his study that code-mixing, code-switching and borrowing are distinct factors, a position which corroborate my experiences in data analysis.

I have described the frameworks attempting to address the linguistic constraints. In the following sections I now describe the frameworks about the motivations on CS.

### 3.7 MYERS-SCOTTON

#### Markedness model

Myers-Scotton (1992:167) explains the use of codes in terms of the "markedness model". The model is concerned with analysing the social functions of CS and is based on the assumption that speakers make marked and unmarked choices in particular situations. All linguistic choices can be seen as indexical of projected rights and obligation balance in interpersonal relations. The use of codes signifies negotiation between the speaker and addressee involving rights and obligation balance (RO balance). Speakers work out, using the norms of their community, what will be the expected RO balance or unmarked choice for specific participants in a given speech event.

Making such an unmarked choice is a speaker's way of affirming community norms. The unmarked choice is the one that is normal and expected for the situation. It is neutral and carries no extra social meaning. Marked choices, on the other hand, are deviations from expected norms and represent a marked RO balance for the exchange. Making a marked choice often (though not always) carries extra meaning. This means that the variety that the speaker chooses indicates that s/he is conveying a meta-message, more than just the semantic content of the word. In addition to the literal meanings, code choices are reflective of other types of information such as social standing, relationships, role and type of work.

Four social functions of CS are provided:

### (i) Code-switching to Present Sequential Unmarked Choice

CS is, to a large extent, a context bound phenomenon. The speaker shifts from one unmarked code to another as the situation changes. Blom and Gumperz (1972:423) refer to change in linguistic codes motivated by situation as "situational switching". Myers-Scotton (1992:170) refers to such CS as speaker motivated but I prefer to view it as driven by a situation in which the speaker is part. Situational switching involves a number of features. The primary features are setting and participants. The speaker has to make the appropriate selections depending on the situation at hand and the nature of the interpersonal relationships.

### (ii) Codeswitching Itself as the Unmarked Choice

CS signifies the social meaning and tries to capture identities individuals are projecting. Makoni (1998) argues that individuals have a repertoire of identities which they bring along, but only one or more are brought about in any specific interaction. Extending his argument one could say that CS provides an opportunity for bringing about one of the identities.

### (iii) Codeswitching to Make a Marked Choice

A marked choice is a deviation from participants' social expectations (norms). The deviation enables the speaker to pass a meta-message which in itself is a commentary on the prevailing situation. A marked choice distances the individual from his/her usual roles and functions and, by extension, enables him/her to change in his/her conversational roles.

### (iv) Codeswitching to make an Exploratory Choice

CS is momentary as strangers explore code choices within new and uncertain situations. Speakers try to discover what code will eventually serve as the conversational norm and "size each other up" as it were. The temporariness of CS enables people who are non-acquaintances to explore possible norms. The markedness model provides fascinating theoretical possibilities. In Chapter 5 I test the empirical validity of CS in a setting in which the subjects are acquaintances.

### 3.8 KACHRU

Like Myers-Scotton, Kachru's (1977:107-124) research deals with the social motivations of CS, but he goes further to cover the structural motivations between

English and Indian languages as well. CS and CM are argued to be separate entities, distinguishing the two as separate communicative strategies. CS as I illustrated in this thesis in section 2.4 is a complete switch from one language to another determined by the setting, the participants and the function. Kachru's position is comparable to Blom and Gumperz's (1972) "situational code-switching" and Myers-Scotton's (1992) "sequence of unmarked choices". CM involves structural constituents and codes are transferred within sentences.

### 3.9 BLOM AND GUMPERZ

Blom and Gumperz (1972) and Holmes (1992), consider the importance of the dynamic nature of code-switching and how different language varieties are

associated with different contexts, domains, or social institutions. Blom and Gumperz 's current interest in CS emanate from their study of CS between dialects in a Norwegian fishing village. With time the passage of their interest developed further into studies of CS between different languages rather than different dialects. The previous model by Myers-Scotton focuses on formal properties of language, the following model focuses on interactional features.

- **Interactional Model**

Blom and Gumperz's interpretation of CS is based on the proposed "interactional model". The premise of the model is that all code choices depend on either the situational or metaphoric factors. A theoretical distinction is made between situational switching and metaphoric switching. Metaphoric switching refers to the type of language behaviour involving participants, what is happening and the setting. Situational switching is a process whereby participants redefine the social event in which their conversation occurs. It involves a switch in a variety that accompanies a change in situation. As Blom and Gumperz (1972:424) write "the notion of situational switching assumes a direct relationship between language and the social situation".

Metaphoric switching occurs when the code choices are not heavily constrained by the socio-situational context involving a switch to change the emphasis of the topic. Switching implies that the presentation of the self in relation to the topic and to other participants changes. Metaphorical switching is when the topic is changed and as such the speech situation is not redefined.

## 3.10 JANET HOLMES

The interactional model by Blom and Gumperz is elaborated further by Holmes (1992) who argues for the importance of social situation in understanding the context in which CS and CM occur. Blom and Gumperz also identify parameters

around a social situation in which interaction is embedded. In an attempt to intensify language use as context motivated, Blom and Gumperz say if an understanding is to be achieved at all, the settings, social situations and social events in which switching take place have to be described. They feel that this is representative of "an attempt to explain the natives' conception of their behavioural environment in terms of an ordered set of constraints which operate to transform alternate lines of behaviour into particular social meanings" (Blom and Gumperz 1972:433).

- **A Description of Social Factors in Code-switching**

The main significance of Holmes' contribution to the debates on switching is that she elaborates on social factors facilitating CS. She expands on metaphorical and situational switching. In that sense her work is an extension of the interaction model by Blom and Gumperz but is discernably different from Myers-Scotton who focuses on syntactic constraints facilitating CS and, by extension, retaining CS.

Social situations can be salient in accounting for the language variety that the speaker chooses. Three social factors, namely participants, setting and topic, influence any selection of a code or variety. In addition, social distance, status, formality of the situation, and the goal or function of the interaction are also salient factors affecting code choices. Holmes re-introduces the term metaphorical switching, defining it as rapid switching between codes where there are no obvious explanatory factors for the specific switches. The speaker draws on the

associations of both languages whereby each language or code represents a set of social meanings. She states that this is a distinctive conversational style used among bilinguals and multilinguals whereby the speakers can convey meaning as well as information by switching between two or more codes. Borrowed words tend to be adapted to the speaker's mother tongue and are pronounced and used grammatically according to the rules of the speaker's first language.

The context within which the communication exchange takes place assumes a pivotal role in defining a participant's solidarity with, or differentiation from, a community. It enables the speaker to select a code accordingly and further establish the necessary relationship with the hearer. In this manner, both participants will communicate and take part in the propositional topic effectively. The social situation assumes an important role, but it needs to be looked at in a larger perspective. Blom and Gumperz and Holmes have identical ideas in this respect. They argue that the social institution has to be treated as a broader phenomenon, encompassing both the social factors (participants, setting, topic) and the socio-economic attributes (gender, age, status, social distance). By contrast, Myers-Scotton (1992, 1993) defines the context in terms of community norms.

After a discussion about community norms, I now turn to the work by Giles and Smith (1979) which explores the adjustments to contextual norms.

### 3.11 GILES and SMITH

**Code-Switching and Speech Accommodation**

Speech Accommodation Theory pays particular attention to a speaker's linguistic behaviour. The speaker's relationship to the addressee is crucial in determining appropriate modes of speaking. Social relationships could simply be understood as the relative social distance or solidarity between speaker and addressee. The degree of social distance or solidarity among people is influenced by numerous factors, the key ones being - age, sex, social roles, education and ethnicity.

Giles and Smith (1979) differentiate speech convergence from speech divergence. Speech convergence involves the speaker adjusting his/her speech to the perceived norms of the addressee. Speech divergence is the opposite, it involves the speaker distancing her/himself from the addressee's norms. Acting in a co-operative manner means that the speaker wishes to accommodate the speech of the person spoken to. In speech convergence, the speaker's speech becomes more like that of the addressee. Depending on social factors, respondents may intentionally deviate from the speech style, and even the language, of the person addressing them. Therefore, deliberate choice of a particular mode of speaking not used by one's immediate addressee provides a clear incident of speech divergence. The exact parts which convergence and divergence play in each interactional context differ and are subject to a large number of factors including institutional constraints (Makoni 1998).

In a home environment for instance, a more relaxed and informal language is used with acquaintances. Situations like business meetings, academic lectures, courts of law, are largely symbolised by formal language and the social roles people assume. There is a clear line of demarcation when we talk to babies, adolescents, adults and old folks or people from other social backgrounds. Different accents, languages, dialects and code choices may be used in an attempt to accommodate, adapt or even distance our language from that of the audience.

### 3.12 Conclusion

Chapter 3 has focussed on some of the dominant theoretical frameworks used in an analysis of CS and CM. I have also commented on a number of theoretical approaches and models used to describe CS, ranging from linguistic constraints and social motivations to situational descriptions. The chapter has examined the MLF model and how it has been empirically extended through the work of Kamwangamalu. I have also looked at Giles and Smith's Speech Accommodation Theory and have argued that such a framework is comparable to an interactionalist perspective (Blom and Gumperz) which takes into account speech adjustments.

In chapter 4 I now turn to issues about methodology.

# CHAPTER 4

# RESEARCH DESIGN

## 4.0 Introduction

The first three chapters so far have explored the concept of language contact and the theoretical approaches used to explain the phenomena. In this chapter I now turn to a description of the research design which formed the basis on which the empirical study was based. The following are the main sections of the chapter:

(i) The research question

(ii) A pilot study to explore the research question

(iii) Data elicitation procedures

(iv) Research subjects

## 4.1 Research Question

- Are there any linguistic factors either constraining or facilitating CS among Sotho-English bilinguals at UCT?
- Are there any social or psychological factors facilitating switching and if so what is their social significance?

### 4.2 Pilot Study

In this section I formulated the rationale and administration of the pilot study. The pilot study was conducted in 1997. I conducted the pilot study because I was primarily concerned with the conceptualisation of the research problem. The process of piloting was quite lengthy and demanding because it involved designing, trying out questions and procedures. Oppenheim (1992) eloquently puts it "we should realise from the beginning that pilot work is expensive and time-consuming, but avoiding or skipping pilot work is likely to prove more costly still" (1992:47).

I used the pilot study to try and gain insight into how the main study would take place. In the pilot study I "experimented" using my acquaintances as subjects. The acquaintances-as-subjects strategy was not very productive. They often seemed confused as to how to approach me. Reactions such as "how do you want us to speak" became common place.

The speech recorded was therefore not as spontaneous as I initially had desired. In other words, the subjects were not talking in a manner they would have done naturally but, were talking in a way which they felt was appropriate to the "beliefs" about the research project. Furthermore, my presence, or rather conscious observation, seemed somehow to inhibit the natural flow of speech. I concluded then that subjects were merely acting out to the audience. That is, they presented what they thought I would like to hear as opposed to how they would have behaved in an unobserved situation. I

was confronted with a problem about theatricality as opposed to natural performance (Makoni 1996). In short, a "genuine" attitude to help a friend was equally threatening the purpose of the research.

The option left to me was to record the conversations covertly. Such recordings were confronted with technical problems. The covert recording of conversations at times were unintelligible. The tape-recorder was always hidden so the quality of data obtained in some recordings suffered as a result of noisy backgrounds. In other instances subjects would not allow me to use their conversations, especially those containing saucy gossip. The process took an inordinate amount of time.

Questionnaires were to obtain subjects' biographical details such as age, first language within the Sotho group and place of origin. I also tried to probe the informants to see if they were aware of any reasons behind their switching. I asked the informants questions such as "why do you think you mix/switch languages when you speak?" (see Appendix 1). My aim in asking these questions was to try to uncover facts from the insider's perspective. Most of the questionnaires I sent to informants never came back and those that reached me were sometimes incomplete. Because of the poor return of questionnaires, I experimented with focus group discussions. Milroy states that "the presence of a primary group impels the speaker, to varying degrees [depending partly on its capacity to impose normative consensus], to speak as he normally would in their presence" (1980:25). Contrary to Milroy, I found it impossible to probe and follow-up on a particular theme. Challenges and corroborations would come from all directions,

making the interviewees unable to direct their ideas accordingly. Although interesting points were raised, interruptions made it difficult to obtain systematically developed ideas. The focus group method was not very successful so I finally resorted to individual interviews.

My pilot work is the basis for the various methods that I later used in collecting data for the main study. The problems and difficulties experienced at the pilot stage helped me to refine the data collection techniques. Furthermore, they assisted me in reshaping my study. Such experience proved invaluable by highlighting the fact that anything and everything in any research should be piloted. Accordingly, Oppenheim (1992) says:

> In principle, almost anything about a social survey can and should be piloted, from a detailed method of drawing the sample to the type of paper on which the interviewers will have to write..., for almost anything that can go wrong, will go wrong! It is dangerous to assume that we know in advance how respondents or fieldworkers will react... When in doubt – and especially when *not* in doubt! – do a pilot run.
>
> (Oppenheim 1992:48)

**4.3 Data Elicitation Procedures**

In the light of my experiences in the pilot study I finally opted for different elicitation procedures consequently distinguishing between primary and secondary data.

### 4.3.1 Primary Data

The primary data was obtained through audio-recordings of conversations among acquaintances in various settings.

### 4.3.2 Secondary Data

Primary data was supplemented by secondary data taken from individual interviews. As mentioned earlier, interviews were mainly a way of understanding who the subjects were.

Various methods were used in an attempt to achieve triangulation. Each method has its own advantages and limitations. The advantage of using many methods is that the various methods offset each other's limitations. The aim of such an approach was to enhance the validity and reliability of my findings.

### 4.3.3 Identification of Research Subjects

In the following section I outline how I identified the subjects who were to take part in the main study. I also describe some of the characteristics of the subjects such as age and gender.

Direct observation enabled the process of noting and selecting subjects suitable for this study. One of the crucial aspects of this research into the speech patterns of Sotho-English bilinguals was to identify correctly which students fell into this category. The identification of Sotho-English bilinguals could be potentially problematic because of the large number of students speaking different African languages at UCT.

In order to verify whether the students were Sotho-English bilinguals I sat at strategic points in different social places such as the dining hall and the cafeteria. I surreptitiously audio-recorded their conversations in order to verify that they were Sotho-English bilinguals from their actual speech. After the recording I approached the subjects to request their agreement to take part in the project and to secure their consent to let me use data which I had recorded without their prior consent.

Direct observation has been used as a mode of research in a number of investigative projects notably in the work of Labov (1972). Researchers such as Milroy (1980) and McCormick (1989), on the one hand, have used participant observation. McCormick's (1984) District Six study, for instance, applied participant observation as one prime approach of investigation. McCormick's ethnographic research sought to explore District Six's linguistic repertoire and attitudes of members of that community towards the use of linguistic codes and their deployment in certain domains. Participant observation is widely used among anthropologically inclined linguists because it enables researchers to perceive issues from an insider's perspective.

Myers-Scotton (1992), on the other hand, has successfully implemented direct observation in examining the social functions of code selection. Like Myers-Scotton, I used direct observation in order to record real situations about language contact.

### 4.3.4 Research Subjects

I limited my subjects to 24. This relatively small number enabled me to focus in detail on the sociolinguistic characteristics motivating CS. The subjects came from different geographical areas in South Africa and varied in terms of gender and age. The common factor was that they were speakers of Sotho languages.

The following table characterises the defining features of the group in terms of age, gender, geographical origin and first language within the Sotho group.

**Table 1: Description of Subjects**

| | |
|---|---|
| Gender | 11 Men<br>13 Women |
| First Language | 5 Sepedi<br>7 Sesotho<br>12 Setswana |
| Age | 14 in the 18-24 category<br>10 in the 25-30 category |
| Place of Origin (Provinces) | 4 Northern Province<br>4 Free State<br>4 North West<br>12 Gauteng |

All the subjects, as pointed out in Chapter One were UCT students bilingual in one of the Sotho group of languages (L1) and English (L2).

The composition of subjects was extended to students I could contact. Because of my experiences in the pilot phase the subjects were selected from outside my personal circle.

### 4.3.5 Audio-Recording and Issues about Ethics

A set of naturally occurring everyday conversations amongst university students was audio recorded and subsequently transcribed. The corpus forming the basis of my study comprises 10 conversations ranging from 7-20 minutes in which Sotho is the Matrix language and English is the Embedded language (see Chapter 3 for a definition of the theoretical concepts).

The conversations were multi-party involving interactions between acquaintances in different settings at UCT: library, cafeterias, corridors, student centres, dining halls etc. In order to maximise the naturalness of conversations the subjects were not aware that they were being recorded. Although the recording provided naturally occurring data, the price was that I violated ethical norms since I recorded the subjects prior to gaining their permission.

I, however, requested permission from the subjects to use their conversations. The permission was invariably granted. One reason why I opted for covert recording arose from the problems which earlier researchers like Labov (1972) had experienced in their work. I was attempting to resolve what Labov (1972) felicitously referred to as the Observer's Parodox.

> The observer's paradox, which springs from the effect of direct observation upon language, can be characterised as follows: the vernacular is the focus of the linguist's interest, and large volumes of high-quality recordings of speech are needed to describe it. However, since speakers will tend to shift away from their vernaculars in situations where they are being tape-recorded by a stranger, the very act of recording is likely to distort the object of observation.
>
> (Labov 1972, cited in Milroy 1987:59)

My knowledge of the UCT community was useful in assisting me to conduct the analysis which I report on in Chapter 5. Natural data may not only be affected by audio-recording but by the nature of the social network amongst interactants. I was obviously powerless to control the effect or social networks on the subjects since most of the group was self-selected.

In addition to the audio recording my analysis relied heavily on the detailed field notes which I took during the recording. The audio recording and field notes were complemented with semi-structured interviews. The purpose was to capture the subjects' own views and perceptions about their code-switching and code-mixing behaviour.

### 4.3.6 Semi-Structured Interviews

Direct observation and audio-recording, where I noted and recorded the speech patterns of bilinguals, served as the basis for the development of an interview. However, administering these interviews required some sensitivity for them to succeed.

Saville-Troike (1982:113) warns about the need to be sensitive towards those being researched, and further stresses the need not to report material or even make publication of information which could be harmful to those it concerned. Thus, a researcher's attitude towards members of the community under investigation had to, at least, be presented in an acceptable manner. Although permission was only sought and granted after the recording the subjects were told that the information would be used for research purposes only.

## 4.4 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter is to report on the methodological procedures used in the data collection. I describe the characteristics of the subjects in terms of age, gender and social origin. I also justify the advantages and ethical problems of covert recording and indicate the extent to which naturally occurring data is inevitably compromised by social networks. In the following chapter I analyse Sotho-English bilingual conversations.

# CHAPTER 5

# DATA ANALYSIS

## 5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, using empirical evidence from my data I assess the extent to which the different theoretical frameworks adequately account for the data. The data will be analysed using both grammatical and pragmatic approaches to language contact. The different modes of analysis, although focussing at different levels, complement each other and may contribute towards a more comprehensive analysis (Romaine 1989:111).

The models and theories used in my analysis fall into two distinct categories differing in their orientation and levels of analysis. The first set of models address the linguistic constraints on CS. My analysis will devote more time to Myers-Scotton's (1993) Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model because it is the most sophisticated and widely used framework in code-switching and code-mixing. Sankoff and Poplack's (1981) Equivalence constraint (EC) and Free Morpheme constraint (FMC) and Sridhar and Sridhar's (1980) Dual Structure Principle (DSP) will be used as way of analysing structural rules governing the morpheme order in CS. The second set focuses on the social motivations of CS. I will use Myers-Scotton's (1992) Markedness model and Giles and Smith's (1979) Speech Accommodation Theory to address the social functions of these linguistic varieties.

Examples from the Sotho languages; Sesotho, Sepedi and Setswana and also from English with a majority drawn from Setswana, will be used to illustrate my analysis.

## 5.1 LINGUISTIC CONSTRAINTS ON CODE-SWITCHING

### 5.1.1 Matrix Language Frame model

The MLF is primarily concerned with identifying linguistic constraints governing intrasentential switching. The MLF model is founded on the assumption that code-switched sentences have one matrix language. There is an asymmetrical relation between the structures of two languages involved in CS situations, the matrix language (ML) and the embedded language (EL) in code-switched structures. The ML plays a dominant role whilst the EL converges to the morphosyntactic procedures dictated by the ML. The MLF model incorporates two specific hypotheses for combining languages, the Morpheme order principle and the System morpheme principle. These principles attempt to identify and describe structural constraints of the ML + EL constituents. Intrasentential switching in the MLF model is involved in three types of constituents:

- Matrix Language Islands (ML islands)
- Embedded Language Islands (EL islands)
- Matrix Language + Embedded Language Constituents (ML + EL constituents)

In the following sections I turn to the ML islands, EL islands and ML + EL constituents.

### (i) Matrix Language Islands

The relation between the ML and the EL provides the framework for intrasentential switching. Because Sotho has a large number of morphemes throughout the discourse, Sotho is the ML language. English is the EL because it has a relatively limited number of morphemes. The ML islands consist entirely of the ML morphemes as illustrated in the following extract:

Extract 1

The subjects were male Sepedi language speakers. Both speakers were from the Northern province. The conversation took place in the lounge (in one of the residences) at UCT. The two met immediately after the Easter vacation. Dd had been home for the vacation and he was telling Cs about the latest developments there.

Dd: A o a itse gore ke ne ke ile gae?
[DO YOU KNOW THAT I WENT HOME?]

Cs: O mpoditše gore o ka sepela
[YOU TOLD ME THAT YOU MAY LEAVE.]

Dd: Wena o ne o tsamaile?
[DID YOU GO HOME?]

Cs: Nyaa. O tlile leng?
[NO. WHEN DID YOU COME BACK?]

Dd: Maloba
[THE DAY BEFORE YESTERDAY]

Extract 2

Bi was a Setswana language speaker and Br was a Sesotho language speaker. Both speakers are females. Bi came from the North West Province and Br was from Gauteng province. The speakers were in the dining hall. In the conversation Bi talked about her dissatisfaction with Br's sleeping behaviour.

Bi: Wena o rata boroko, tatsi lengwe o tla fitlhela re ile gae o santse o robetse. Go robala thata ga go a siama tsala ya me.
[YOU LIKE SLEEPING. ONE DAY YOU'LL FIND EVERYONE GONE. SLEEPING TOO MUCH IS NOT GOOD MY FRIEND.]

Br: Utlwang ho bua mang. Nna le wena re a tshwana. Ha o bona batho o iketsa motho.
[LOOK WHO'S TALKING. YOU AND ME ARE THE SAME. WHEN YOU SEE PEOPLE YOU MAKE IT LOOK LIKE YOU ARE BETTER.]

Bi: O bua maaka. Ke gopola sentle. Ke robetse go fitlha ka ura ya bobedi ka Sontaga feela. Matsatsi a mang a o buang ka one ga ke a itse. O a itse mo pelong ya gago gore o bua maaka.
[YOU ARE LYING. I REMEMBER VERY WELL. I ONLY SLEPT UNTIL TWO ON SUNDAY. I CAN'T RECALL THE OTHER DAYS YOU ARE REFERING TO. YOU KNOW DEEP DOWN IN YOU HEART THAT YOU ARE LYING.]

The utterances are formed in accordance with the Sotho (ML) grammar and further reflect internal structural dependency. Internal structural dependency should be construed to refer to utterances constructed in a manner inconsistent with the morpheme order (SVO) of the ML.

### (ii) Embedded Language Islands

Myers-Scotton (1993) posits that EL islands are parallel to ML islands. Like the ML islands, EL islands consist entirely of EL morphemes and meet the requirements of English (EL) grammar. Extract 3 shows utterances containing EL morphemes. The utterances are organised according to the well-formedness of the EL grammar. The morpheme order (SVO) of the EL in these utterances is upheld. Independent utterances as in extract 3 are extremely rare in my data. Some EL utterances noted in my data appear in the midst of Sotho (ML) islands.

Extract 3

Th and Mi were male Sesotho language speakers. Both speakers came from the Free State province. The conversation took place in the students' residence lounge at UCT. The conversation was about the soccer game between two soccer clubs Kaizer Chiefs and Real Rovers.

Th: Chiefs e hlotse Rovers. Doctor Khumalo o ne a etse dintho tse a tumileng ka tsona. Rovers e ne e sa bapale hantle. **Rovers' defense was very weak.**
[CHIEFS WON THE GAME AGAINST ROVERS. DOCTOR KHUMALO WAS PLAYING HIS BEST. ROVERS WAS NOT PLAYING WELL...]

Mi: Pollen Ndlaya le yena o ne a bapala hantle. **It was a good game.** Thabang Lebese nkabe a le teng, re ne re tlo ja Rovers 5-0. Re setse ka Pirates jwaanong.
[POLLEN NDLANYA WAS PLAYING WELL AS WELL... IF THABANG LEBESE WAS THERE, WE COULD HAVE BEATEN ROVERS 5-0. WE ARE ONLY LEFT WITH THE GAME AGAINST PIRATES.]

Although EL islands are embedded within the course of ML islands, they still reflect some features characteristic of internal structural dependency. Generally EL islands are dominated by the frequency of ML morphemes, except in a few cases where they are autonomous. EL islands manifest themselves in different forms. In some cases EL islands present themselves as complete utterances (see Extract 3). EL islands frequently manifest themselves as lexical, phrasal and idiomatic forms as illustrated in Extract 4(a) – (e). Lexical, phrasal and idiomatic forms of EL islands are peripheral to conversation and are usually formulaic. As Myers-Scotton (1993:144) puts it, the more formulaic a structure is, the more likely it is to appear as an EL island. Although these bare forms, idioms and set expressions are forms of EL islands, they cannot be regarded as instances of code-switching. The bare forms are generally content words from the EL. These bare forms are usually nouns, adjectives or verbs. The grammatical function of these constituents is of secondary importance to the discourse. They do not have comparable semantic roles analogous to code-switches, code-mixes and borrowing.

In the following extract I illustrate the lexical, phrasal and idiomatic forms using my empirical data. The following examples are excerpts from different conversations.

Extract 4

(a) Discourse markers

Pg: **I don't think so.**

Je: **By the way,** e tla bo e le neng?
[BY THE WAY WHEN IS IT?]

Dd: ... **that is why.** O rekile seven series.
[...HE BOUGHT A SEVEN SERIES (BMW).]

Js:...**I wish** rre wa me e ne e le Sol Kerzner...
[...I WISH MY FATHER WAS SOL KERZNER...]

Ce: **I hope** ke tla fetsa ka nako e tshwanetseng.
[ I HOPE I WILL FINISH IN TIME.]

(b) Adverb of time, place and location

Re: Ka **Friday** o o tlang.
[NEXT FRIDAY.]

Cs: A ke re nna ka **December** a ka bona motho. Ke ile gae for **a week or two.**
[I DIDN'T MANAGE TO SEE EVERYONE IN DECEMBER. I WENT HOME FOR A WEEK OR TWO.]

Dd: Selby o rile a ka tla **Cape Town.**
[SELBY SAID HE MAY COME TO CAPE TOWN.]

So: Ga ke a ja ka **lunch**.
[I DID NOT HAVE LUNCH.]

(c) Exclamation

Ru: **Oh my God!** O tsile go boa leng?
[...WHEN IS SHE COMING BACK?]

So: **Oh! this sounds nice**...

(d) Set expressions or phrases

Ce: **Not yet.**

Ru: **It is okay,** ke tla ja sengwe le sengwe se a tlang le sona...
[...,I'LL HAVE/EAT ANYTHING SHE BRINGS...]

Je:...**First things first.**

Nk: **You are a real star.**

(e) Terms of address

Di: ...**my dear**...

Na: **Good girl**...

Ju: **My good friend...**

Lexical forms, idioms and phrases are easily used at many points within bilingual utterances without undermining the syntactic rules of the superordinate language, the ML. They are subject to minimal syntactic restrictions. For instance, discourse markers like "I think", "but", "maybe", "by the way", and "anyway", function primarily as linkages between stretches of discourse. In other words they play a cohesive role. EL islands such as terms of address, question forms and time phrases, can be construed as secondary to the discourse, an argument consistent with Myers-Scotton's EL description that "the evidence is overwhelming that functionally

peripheral elements are most favoured for EL islandhood ...Many of these are almost formulaic" (Myers-Scotton 1993:145).

### (iii) Matrix Language + Embedded Language Constituents

The ML+EL constituents typically consist of morphemes from both participating languages in intrasentential switching. Morphemes from the ML and the EL are coupled either within the same word or same sentence. Myers-Scotton (1993) advances the ML hypothesis and its related principles; the Morpheme order principle and the System morpheme principle. These two principles help to analyse ML+EL constituents. The ML hypothesis suggests that the ML provides the morphosyntactic frame of the ML+EL constituents. In other words, the ML hypothesis highlights that "those grammatical procedures in the formulator (the central structure in the language production system) which account for the surface structure of ML+EL constituents are only ML based procedures" Myers-Scotton (1993:83). The following extract shows the ML + EL constituents with single EL morphemes.

Extract 5

Bi, So and Ma were Setswana language speakers. Dd was a Sepedi speaker and Pg was a Sesotho speaker. Bi, Ma and Pg were females whilst So and Dd were both males. Ma, Pg and So came from Gauteng province, and both Bi and Dd came from the Northern province. The following excerpts are drawn from different conversations.

(a) Bi: O a itse gore ke go bona kwa **dininghall** fela.
[I ONLY SEE YOU IN THE DININGHALL.]

(b) So: Re ja eng ka **supper**?
[WHAT ARE WE HAVING/EATING FOR SUPPER?]

(c) Ma: Re na le **influence** e ntsi tota go tswa kwa merafeng le tsone dinaga tse dingwe.
[WE HAVE A LOT OF INFLUENCE FROM OTHER NATIONS AS WELL AS COUNTRIES.]

(d) Dd: Ga o ye gae ka **June**?
[ARE YOU GOING HOME IN JUNE?]

(e) Pg: Ke bona e kare re tle qhetella re le e **sick society**.
[IT LOOKS AS THOUGH WE WILL END UP BEING A SICK SOCIETY.]

As is the case in the above examples, Sotho sets the morpheme order because it has more morphemes than English. The Morpheme order principle states that in ML+EL constituents made up of single EL lexemes and a number of ML morphemes, the surface morphemes order (reflecting surface syntactic relations) will be those of the ML (Myers-Scotton 1993:83). The EL morphemes are inserted at strategic points typically occupied by Sotho forms. The EL morphemes found in ML+EL constituents correspond with EL islands because they are mainly adverbs and nouns.

The dominant status of Sotho allows it to provide system morphemes such as affixes, tenses and adverbs. English plays a subordinate role and only supplies the ML+EL constituents with content morphemes such as nouns, descriptive adjectives and verb stems. Sotho provides morphemes governing the entire grammar of the ML+EL constituents whilst the English morphemes only carry the semantic content. Myers-Scotton's (1993) System morpheme principle emphasises that in ML+EL constituents, all the system morphemes are from only one of the languages participating in CS, the ML. The following extract reflects the ML+EL constituents within the same word.

Extract 6

Ke was a female Sepedi language speaker from Mpumalanga Province and Lo was a female Setswana speaker from Gauteng province.

(a) Ke: Moferefere wa **di-election** o feletse kae?
[WHAT HAPPENED TO THE ELECTIONS?]

(b) Ke: Ba **decide-ile** jwang ka Lebowa le Mpumalanga.
[WHAT DID THEY DECIDE ABOUT LEBOWA AND MPUMALANGA.]

(c) Lo: Go na le motshameko wa kgwele ya dinao kwa **university-ng** ya bona.
[THERE'S A SOCCER GAME AT THEIR UNIVERSITY.]

In extract 6(a), the prefix "di-" from the ML is used to reflect the plural form of the EL noun. The ML suffix "–ile" is attached to the EL verb stem to show the past tense. In 6(b) the ML locative suffix "–ng" is attached to the noun, making it an adverb.

### 5.1.2 Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint

Sankoff and Poplack (1981) proposed two universal constraints, the Free Morpheme constraint (FMC) and the equivalence constraint (EC). The FMC rules out switching between a bound morpheme and a free morpheme. Evidence in extract 7 shows that the universality of Sankoff and Poplack's claim needs to be "retested". The FMC further argues that no switching will occur between a bound morpheme and a free morpheme "unless one of the morphemes has been integrated phonologically into the language of the other" (Poplack 1980 as quoted in Berk-Seligson 1986:314-315). The EC assumes that languages involved in switching have the same order of linguistic elements. The EC thus highlights the fact that switching is only possible at points where the syntactic rules of both participating languages is preserved. The FMC particularly describes CS at morpheme level whilst the EC concentrates on CS at phrasal or clausal level, for example the noun phrase (NP), verb phrase (VP), preposition phrase (PP) etc. In the following section I now examine the Free Morpheme Constraint.

#### (i) Free Morpheme Constraint

Evidence from my Sotho-English corpus below shows violations of the FMC involving the affixation of different types of bound morphemes. The English morphemes such as nouns, verbs and adverbs are inflected with Sotho bound affixes, as illustrated in the following extract.

Extract 7

All four speakers came from Gauteng Province. Lo, Pg and Re were female and Je was male. Lo and Je were Setswana speakers, Pg was a Sesotho speaker and Re was a Sepedi speaker. The following examples are excerpts from different conversations.

(a) Lo: Ba rekisa le **di-snacks**...
[THEY ALSO SELL SNACKS...]

(b) Pg: **Ba-stop-ile** ho bua.
[THEY HAVE STOPPED TALKING.]

(c) Re: O iketsa **bookworm-nyana.**
[YOU BEHAVE LIKE SOME BOOKWORM.]

(d) Je: Ke batla go ya kwa **videoshop-ng** ya Rondebosch.
[I WANT TO GO TO THE VIDEO SHOP IN RONDEBOSCH.]

The Sotho-English utterances reflect the following with regard to the FMC: in 8(a) the Sotho plural "di-" is prefixed to the English plural noun "snacks". In 8(b) the Sotho plural prefix "ba-" for humans and the past tense marker "–ile" are both affixed to the English verb stem "stop". The suffix "–nyana" in 8(c) is a derogatory constituent in Sotho affixed to the noun "bookworm". The Sotho "–ng" is a locative constituent affixed to the English modifier and noun "video shop". It is clear that all the English free morphemes are inflected with the Sotho bound morphemes. Contrary to Sankoff and Poplack's (1981) claim, switching is possible between a bound morpheme and a free morpheme, for example between a Sotho prefix and an English stem.

In all the above examples, the English morphemes "snacks", "stop", "bookworm", "video" and "shop" in extract 7 have neither been phonologically integrated into Sotho, nor have the Sotho morphemes di-, ba-, -nyana and -ng been integrated into English. According to Sankoff and Poplack (1981) morphemes from the Sotho-English data cannot be bound together because they would yield unacceptable lexical items or morphemes in both languages. However, as is the case in Sotho-English data, morphemes from both languages freely blend together although they are neither grammatically nor phonologically integrated. As is evident in extract 8, the morphemes from these languages are hybridised, keeping the phonology of their respective languages.

**(ii) Equivalence Constraint**

Sotho and English share the same word order subject-verb-object (SVO), although they typologically belong to different language families. As it appears in my Sotho-English data there is no apparent categorical equivalence at phrasal level. This means that rules governing phrases such as noun phrases and adverbial phrases are not the same in both languages. I will discuss the nature of the order of morphemes within these phrases. The following examples illustrate the points at which CS takes place.

Extract 8

The subjects were Setswana language speakers. Ru and Ce were females and Js was male. Ru and Js came from Gauteng Province and Ce came from North West province. The following examples are excerpts taken from different conversations.

(a) Ru: Nka se ye kwa lebenkeleng leo, le too **far.**
[I CANNNOT GO TO THAT SHOP,IT'S TOO FAR.]

(b) Js: Re tla fetsa go kwala essay **in the morning.**
[WE WILL FINISH WRITING THE ESSAY IN THE MORNING.]

(c) Ce: **The tall girl** o ke ratang go tsamaya le ena.
[THE TALL GIRL I AM USUALLY WITH.]

Sotho and English do not share the same order of elements within the AdvP, PP, NP as Sankoff and Poplack have suggested. In the following cases I use examples from Setswana to illustrate my point. For instance unlike English, in Setswana

- the noun precedes its qualifying adjective in the (NP)

| The | tall | girl | = | Mosetsana | o | moleele |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ↓ | ↓ | ↓ | | ↓ | ↓ | ↓ |
| (det) | (adj) | (n) | | (n) | (det) | (adj) |

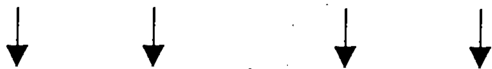
- there is an absence of articles or determiners in the (PP)

in the morning = fa mosong

(prep) (det) (n) (prep) (n)

- the adverb precedes the complement in the (AdvP) whereas in English this is the reverse

too far = kgakala thata



(comp) (adv) (adv) (comp)

As illustrated above the order of elements in the (NP),(PP) and (AdvP) is not the same for both Sotho and English. This is a violation of the EC principle since it postulates that the structural integrity of constituents is preserved. That is, it assumes that there is a linear sequence of elements in CS. There is not a substantial correspondence between grammars because the rules governing phrases in English and Sotho are different. Thus Sotho and English do not have one basic order for all types of phrases (see NP, PP, AdvP examples above).

Generally, my data does not lend support to the structural integrity principle. It challenges the assumption that two stable syntactic systems are in contact. Sotho and English have identical word order (SVO) but exhibit different phrase structure rules for (NP), (PP), (AdvP). Kamwangamalu's (1994:73) study in siSwati-English highlights the fact that two languages need not have parallel grammatical categories for them to allow CS at phrasal level. He further argues that siSwati and English have different phrase structure rules for NP. However, switching inside NP is allowed on the basis that the syntactic integrity of siSwati, and not both siSwati and English are preserved.

### 5.1.3 The Dual Structure Principle

Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) proposed the Dual Structure Principle (DSP) as an attempt to account for surface syntactic restrictions on switching. Contrary to the equivalence constraint, the DSP postulates that "the internal structure of the guest language need not conform to the constituent structure of the host language, as long as its placement in the host sentence obeys the rules of the host language" (Sridhar and Sridhar 1980:412). DSP has two main characteristics: First, the morpheme constituent from the guest language occurs in the position dictated by host language syntax. Second, the morpheme or constituent of the guest language will appear as a sub-constituent inside the major host language constituent structure.

The Sotho-English data demonstrate that only the main language determines the points at which switching will occur. In extract 9, I identify and explain the placement of code-switched phrases within the discourse.

Extract 9

Both subjects were Setswana speakers from Gauteng Province. Na was female and So was male.

(a) So: Re ja eng ka **supper**?
[WHAT ARE WE EATING/HAVING FOR SUPPER?]

(b) Na: I **eat** sengwe le sengwe se se jewang.
[I EAT ANYTHING EDIBLE.]

Phrases in extract 9 occur as they would if the entire sentence were in Sotho, meaning that the placement of these phrases corresponds with the sentence structure of Sotho. For instance, the adverbial phrase (AdvP) in (a) and (VP) in (b) are situated in the same place where the equivalent Sotho phrase would have been found, clearly illustrating the dominant effect Sotho has in positioning English constituents. The salient factor is that the English embedded phrases meet the conditions put in place by Sotho. In other words, the English constituents still obey the Sotho syntax. Contrary to the Equivalence constraint, my Sotho-English data rules out the notion that switching is only possible where the order of linguistic elements is entirely the same.

### 5.1.4 Theoretical Discussion of the Matrix Language Frame model, Free Morpheme Constraint and Equivalence Constraint and Dual Structure Principle

This section of the chapter compares linguistic frameworks on the basis of empirical data from my corpus. The empirical evidence from my data indicates that frameworks suggested by Myers-Scotton (1993) and Sridhar and Sridhar (1980) can be applied.

The Sotho-English data generally show that there is an asymmetrical relation between Sotho and English in CS. There is enough evidence from several studies to conclude that the distinction between the ML and EL does indeed exist even in my own data. Kamwangamalu and Li (1991) as quoted in Myers-Scotton (1993) tested the ML hypothesis among Chinese-English speakers. In their study they found out that the ML is the language "that licenses the "mixability" of linguistic elements of the other language, the embedded language" (Kamwangamalu and Li as quoted in Myers-Scotton 1993:70). This notion is also emphasised by Myers-Scotton's MLF and Sridhar and Sridhar's DSP. All agree that the morphosyntactic structure in CS is controlled by the ML only. The EL, on the other hand, assumes a more passive role.

Sankoff and Poplack (1981) in their "universal" equivalence constraint refute the notion of asymmetry between any language-pair. They argue that the two standard languages in contact can be described in terms of standard norms. It is clear that the equivalence constraint only applies itself with interlingual equivalence of

grammatical categories. It is formulated exclusively in terms of linear sequence rather than structural relations. Evidence from the Sotho-English data therefore implies that the universal validity of the EC has to be empirically questioned. As is the case in my thesis, there is no structural equivalence between Sotho and English. The syntax adhered to and maintained is that of Sotho rather than that of the two language systems. Sotho can therefore be defined as the unmarked language since its pivotal character determines the bilingual verbal behaviour. It is not surprising then that the structural features are drawn from Sotho, whereas English is no longer autonomous, implying that Sotho determines the direction CS would possibly take. Sotho further influences the form of the constitution of structural patterns and which constituents of the dependent language should be code-switched where and how.

Language switches occur at sentence boundaries as well as mid-sentence within a smooth stream of speech. The overall pattern of conversations seems to display the various quantities and forms CS encompasses. CS is composed of small and large English switches; from single words and morphemes to complete utterances. The code-switched structures occur both intersententially and intrasententially. These different forms of switching fulfil a variety of functions, depending on the category they are located. Single words, morphemes and phrases operate at a lower level in order to satisfy a lexical need. For purposes of this study they will be construed as switching for lexical purposes on the basis of Bokamba's (1988) "lexical and phrasal insertions" switching definitions. Bokamba's lexical and phrasal insertions coincide with what Myers-Scotton (1993) has termed EL islands and Poplack's (1980) emblematic or tag switches. Though Bokamba does not recognise these insertions

as CS, my thesis celebrates the status as well as the peripheral functions they serve as switches.

In my thesis I further define switching within a word as switching for lexical purposes. This type of switching coincides with Myers-Scotton's ML+EL constituents and Bokamba's morphologically mixed utterances. Sankoff and Poplack's (1981) free morpheme constraint rule out switching between two morphemes from two language systems, something empirically possible in my thesis. My empirical evidence does not support the existence of the free morpheme constraint, but rather suggests that complete utterances operate at a higher level, serving basic conversational functions. Complete utterances are often at the core of the semantic meaning of the conversation. In other words, these complete utterances go beyond lexical need; that is, code-mixes, lexical and phrasal insertions and borrowings. This type of switching involves changes in phonology, morphology and syntax for a specific period of the discourse as in extract 10.

Extract 10

Di was a female Setswana language speaker from North West Province. This conversation took place in the residents TV room at UCT.

Di: A ke re ba re **they are moving with the times**. Re tla reng ga e se gone go ba tlogela gore ba dire se ba se ratang.
[THEY ARE SAYING THEY ARE MOVING WITH THE TIMES. THERE IS NOTHING WE CAN DO ABOUT IT.]

As is the case in Sotho-English switching, both languages produce complete utterances. The ML and EL islands in the MLF model clearly portray this. Such utterances can be formally generated and interpreted even though they may or may not involve the use of two grammars simultaneously. The ML islands are explicitly governed by Sotho whilst EL islands are afforded some flexibility. This means that the EL islands not only present themselves as single words but also as complete utterances as in extract 10. In the case where the EL generates complete utterances, it may be argued that the two grammars are used simultaneously. The notion of simultaneous use of two grammars implies an equivalence between a language-pair. However this study wishes to highlight that Sotho is the dominant language in all the discourses recorded, with English having limited power. Because of its EL status, there is an explicit morphosyntactic convergence toward Sotho. EL islands are inserted in small quantities so it is practically impossible for English to assert its autonomy. Hence "any linguistic element can be switched provided the morphosyntactic integrity of the matrix language, and not of the language-pair involved, is preserved" Kamwangamalu 1994:71).

## 5.2 Code-Mixing

Code-mixing (CM) can be observed in a majority of the utterances in my corpus. CM refers to mixing within a word. Singly occurring English content morphemes are phonologically and morphologically blended with the Sotho system morphemes. The English content morphemes blend easily with the Sotho system morphemes without

any formal integration. CM occurs at intrasentential level only. CM mainly involves lexical items and is subject to minimal constraints.

The corpus of spoken conversations shows that CM cannot only be subjected to being a frequent phenomenon among bilinguals but also involves a consistent morphological pattern in some of the following grammatical categories: nouns, verbs, locatives and adverbs of time. In code-mixes, English and Sotho remain the EL and ML respectively. Morphemes from both languages are merged together within one word. Participants tend to mix the EL's content morphemes (verbs and nouns) with the ML's system morphemes (affixes), as in the following examples from my corpus:

Extract 11 (a)

Sotho prefix + English noun stem = Mixed Noun

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| di- | seat | di-seat (seats) |
| di- | poster | di-poster (posters) |
| di- | test | di-test (tests) |
| di- | style | di-style (different styles) |
| di- | election | di-eletion (elections) |

The prefix "di-" is the plural form basically referring to quantity. In extract 11(a) the Sotho plural "di-" is prefixed to the English nouns, forming plural mixed nouns. In extract 11(b) below, the English nouns are, however, in the plural form because of the suffix "–s". In addition to the English plural, a Sotho prefix "di-" is attached,

forming what Myers-Scotton (1993) calls double morphology. The following extract illustrates how plural affixes from both languages are used to form double morphology.

Extract 11 (b)

Sotho prefix + English noun stem + English suffix = Mixed Noun

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| di- | detail | -s | di-detail-s (details) |
| di- | doughnut | -s | di-doughnut-s (doughnuts) |
| di- | holiday | -s | di-holiday-s (holidays) |
| di- | student | -s | di-student-s (students) |
| di- | snack | -s | di-snack-s (snacks) |

I now turn to mixing in verbs.

Extract 12

English verb + Sotho verbal suffix = Mixed verb

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| (a) | propose | -a | propo-sa (propose) |
| | check | -a | check-a (check) |
| | invite | -a | invite-a (invite) |
| | support | -a | support-a (support) |
| (b) [Ke tla...] | phone | -la | phone-la (I will phone...) |
| (c) [A re...] | reserve | -le | reserve-le ( He will reserve...) |
| (d) [Ba...] | stop | -ile | stop-ile (they've stopped...) |
| [Ba...] | decide | -ile | decide-ile (they've decided...) |

As illustrated above, the mixed morphological structures are largely accomplished through affixation. The English verb stems are coupled with the Sotho verbal suffixes to form mixed verbs. The Sotho verbal suffixes in mixed verbs represent

different time aspects. The verbal suffix "-a" in extract 12 (a) indicates the present tense, the "-la", "-le" in example (b) and (c) represent the future time, and the "–ile" in example (d) show that the verb is in the past tense. I now turn to mixing in adverbs.

Extract 13

English noun + Sotho locative suffix = Mixed adverb

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| lecture | -ng | lecture-ng | (at lectures) |
| party | -ng | party-ng | (at the party) |
| location | -ng | location-ng | (at the location) |
| campus | -ng | campus-ng | (on campus) |
| show | -ng | show-ng | (at the show) |

The Sotho locative suffix "–ng" in this case is attached to the English noun stems so as to form the mixed adverbs. In the following section I turn to borrowing.

### 5.3 Borrowing

Borrowing, in my thesis, is used to refer to structurally incorporating words with English origins into Sotho and to using the Sotho phonological system at the same time. The following examples illustrate instances of borrowing.

Extract 14

| English | Sotho-ised Words |
|---|---|
| Bank | banka |
| Dance | dansa |
| Department | dephatemente |
| Fashion | fešhene |
| Library | laeborari |
| Principal | prinsipala |
| Rice | raese |
| Television | telefišhione |
| Transport | transpoto |
| Vote | vota |

## 5.4 Social Motivations of Code-Switching

### 5.4.1 Markedness model

The Markedness model is concerned with analysing the social functions of intrasentential switching. According to Myers-Scotton (1992) intrasentential switching refers to a negotiation between the speaker and addressee involving the RO (rights and obligation) balance. The premise of the Markedness model is that speakers select a marked and an unmarked choice in any given situation. A marked choice is a deviation from the expected norms and represents a marked RO balance. Making an unmarked choice is a speaker's way of affirming the community's norms. Myers-Scotton proposes four social functions of code-switching:

- Code-Switching to present sequential unmarked choices
- Code-Switching itself as the unmarked choice

- Code-Switching to make a marked choice
- Code-Switching to make an exploratory choice

### (i) Code-switching to present sequential unmarked choices

Extract 15 exhibits a series of unmarked choices made within the same conversational interaction. Code-switching in this case demonstrates how unmarked choices are made.

Extract 15

Js and Ce were both Setswana speakers. Js was a male coming from Gauteng province and Ce was a female from North West province. The two share the same first year course. They met at the student learning centre. They discussed the problems they experienced in trying to write the Psychology assignment.

Js: That Psychology essay is difficult. I cannot bring myself to writing it. It's such a frustrating thing. Have you started yours?

Ce: Not yet. But ke ikemiseditse go e simolola bosigo. Fa o batla, o ka nna wa tla go dira le nna bosigo.

[NOT YET. BUT I INTEND TO START WORKING ON IT TONIGHT. IF YOU ARE INTERESTED YOU CAN COME AND WORK WITH ME TONIGHT.]

Js: Thanks. Ke tla tla go dira le wena. Fa ke le nosi ke a palelwa.

[...I'LL JOIN YOU BECAUSE I FIND IT DIFFICULT TO WORK ALONE.]

Ce: Go siame. O ye go lebelela dibuka kwa laeborari. Ke bone na le tse dingwe kwa go nna.

[O'KAY. YOU MUST GO AND CHECK IF YOU CAN'T FIND SOME HELPFUL BOOKS IN THE LIBRARY. I HAVE SOME AT MY PLACE.]

Js: Ke tla di check-a pele ke tsamaya. Ke tle ka nako mang?

[I'LL CHECK THE BOOKS BEFORE I LEAVE CAMPUS. WHAT TIME SHOULD I COME?]

The speaker begins the conversation in English and later switches to Setswana. During the interaction the speaker notes that the addressee converses in Setswana thus changes to Setswana. In other words, the speaker and addressee discover that they share the same native language. As a result Setswana is subsequently used with English assuming a subordinate role, consequently redefining the relationships between them and the situation, although the topic remains the same.

English and Setswana are therefore unmarked choices in this situation because the speaker and the addressee are familiar with both languages. Based on the demands of this speech event the speaker and addressee work out an appropriate RO balance. Switching from English to Setswana therefore presents an unmarked

choice for the unmarked RO balance. The speaker acts upon the demands of the situation by meeting the addressee halfway with language (see Finlayson and Slabbert 1997). This means that

> in the mind of the code switcher, one language may be more appropriate than the other for expressing a particular idea; one language may be intimate and personal than the other; one may show more authority and the other, more solidarity.
>
> (Sebba 1997:12)

Switching in my study further highlights an act of solidarity as well as a shared African ethnic identity. Myers-Scotton (1992) refers to such switching as "speaker motivated". Contrary to Myers-Scotton, my thesis emphasises that switching in this

case is situation motivated. The speaker's choice to switch from one unmarked code to another is largely determined by the situation in which the speaker is taking part, lending support to Blom and Gumperz's (1972) "situational switching". Primary features involved in situational switching are setting and participants. The speaker makes an appropriate linguistic choice depending on the situation prevailing and the nature of the interpersonal relationships.

### (ii) Code-switching itself as the unmarked choice

Switching in such a situation is an unmarked choice indexing the unmarked RO balance between speaker and addressee. The overall pattern of code-switching rather than the individual switches carries the social meaning and is used to indicate two identities. CS itself is a linguistic variety or a badge of identity and this badge carries different meanings subject to context (Kieswetter 1995:16). Extract 11 demonstrates a situation where CS itself is the unmarked choice to index the unmarked RO balance in that speech event.

Extract 16

Conversation between three women acquaintances in a television lounge in a student residence at UCT. All three were Setswana speakers from Gauteng province. The three acquaintances were worried about the other friend, Si, who seems to have taken rather long at the Supermarket.

Ru: O kae Seipati?
[WHERE IS SEIPATI?]

Nm: She went to Shoprite. O ile go reka some dougnuts.
[...SHE WENT TO BUY SOME DOUGNUTS.]

Ru: Modimo wa me! Why a sa mpolelela. Le nna ke a di batla.
[OH MY GOD! WHY DIDN'T SHE TELL ME. I WANT THEM AS WELL.]

Na: Se tshwenyege. O tla reka tse enough.
[DON'T WORRY, SHE WILL BUY ENOUGH.]

Ru: Nna ke rata di-cream dougnuts fela.
[I LIKE THE CREAM DOUGHNUTS ONLY.]

Na: In that case, o tla tshwanela ke gore o ye go batla Si, gore a tle a itse.
[IN THAT CASE YOU'LL HAVE TO GO AND TELL SI.]

The above extract shows that the switches are mainly lexical and phrasal insertions. The extract above represents a common way of speaking among African students at UCT. In addition to their respective native languages, African students are also conversant in English.

The overall pattern of CS has social significance illustrating the range of identities speakers can select. Myers-Scotton's (1992) study in Swahili-English bilingual peers highlights that switching in peer conversations is an everyday phenomenon. She interprets this as a wish to have more than one identity, although usually one is ethnically based. Switching between Setswana and English symbolises bilingualism and group membership as well as revealing ethnic identity. As Le Page and Taboure-Keller (1985) state,

> linguistic items are not just attributes of groups or communities, they are themselves the means by which individuals both identify themselves and identify with others; hence the existential locus of *homo*, be it individual or groups, is in language itself.
>
> (cited in Slabbert and Finlayson 1995:134)

The element of similiarity between these speakers is the basis of an RO balance. Speakers work out an RO balance that is appropriate to their conversation. The RO balance is unmarked because speakers share common elements such as group identities and ethnicity. The overall pattern of CS is therefore needed to index what the speakers regard as an unmarked RO balance. Extract 16 shows an unmarked RO balance in this case, hence switching itself becomes an unmarked choice suggestive of an unmarked RO balance among speakers.

From this section I now turn to situations in which CS constitutes a marked choice.

**(iii) Code-switching to make a marked choice**

My empirical data does not affirm the notion of making marked choices (see extract 10 and 11). A marked choice is defined as a deviation from the expected or the unmarked choice. The speaker changes some aspect of the RO balance within a particular situation in an attempt to pass a meta-message. According to Myers-Scotton (1992:172)

> it is a negotiation against identifying with the unmarked RO balance in the exchange in that the speaker making a switch is calling for another RO balance for which his/her code switch is the unmarked choice.

However, as is the case in my data, CS is a representation of the unmarked choices. Unlike Myers-Scotton, switching to English in my data does not necessarily imply a negotiation of power relations because it is a common language practice among students at UCT. She notes that individuals holding positions of power and prestige often speak English in Kenya. Switching to English therefore implies the authority associated with speakers of that language.

**(iv) Code-switching to make an exploratory choice**

I do not have evidence of CS to make an exploratory choice in my corpus (see extracts 15 and 16). Making an exploratory choice assumes that speakers are strangers exploring code choices within new and uncertain situations.

> Such a case occurs either in a relatively non-conventional exchange or when speakers do not have sufficient information about the other participants even though they know which situational factors are salient for such an exchange. When this happens a possible strategy is to try first one code, assess the addressee's reaction, then try another code, and then decide which receives the more favourable response.
>
> Myers-Scotton (1992:176)

Speakers share common elements such as ethnic identity. Speakers are often familiar with the norms that apply in a particular conversation. This means that they often know what the RO balance for themselves and other speakers would be. By switching between languages Sotho-English speakers are not showing their

uncertainty about the situation, they are merely portraying who they are, and the manner in which they speak at that moment, in their speaking careers.

### 5.4.2 Theoretical Discussion of the Markedness Model and Speech Accommodation Theory

This section interprets the markedness model in relation to Giles and Smith's (1979) Accommodation Theory. The premise of the Speech Accommodation Theory is that speakers may or may not conform to certain community norms. Giles and Smith (1979) differentiate between speech convergence and speech divergence. Convergence refers to a situation whereby individuals shift their speech styles to become more like those they are interacting with. Divergence occurs when individuals' speech shifts away from the interlocutors style.

The Markedness model is comparable to the Speech Accommodation Theory in key respects. As in the Markedness model, the Accommodation Theory gives the speaker the initiative to conform or not to conform to societal norms. In Finlayson and Slabbert's (1997) words:

> The negotiation principle underlying the markedness model follows directly on from the speech accommodation theory and comprises the following: all code choices can be explained in terms of the speaker's intention/motivation to indicate the set of rights and obligation (RO) that he/she wishes to be in force during the exchange.
>
> (Finylayson and Slabbert 1997:390)

Speech convergence can therefore be used to refer to unmarked choices and speech divergence to marked choices. As illustrated in extracts 15 and 16 above, my empirical data shows that Sotho-English speakers often make unmarked choices rather than marked ones meaning that speakers switch languages in order to affirm unmarked rights and obligations (RO). In terms of the Theory of Accommodation making unmarked choices implies speech convergence. As is the case in the Sotho-English data, "when two people meet, there is a tendency for them to become more alike in their language..." Giles and Smith (1979:46). Speech convergence is way in which interaction minimises possible further discrepancies between speakers. In other words, the speaker is trying to accommodate the other individuals he/she is interacting with. "The assumption then is that in such situations, the speaker and the listener have shared a common set of interpretative procedures which allow the speaker's intentions to be (i) encoded by the speaker, and (ii) correctly interpreted by the listener" Giles and Smith (1979:46-47).

Myers-Scotton (1992) argues that marked choices often have referential meaning, which Tannen (1985) refers to as the "meta-message" and Gumperz (1982) "contextualisation cues". To the contrary my empirical data shows that unmarked choices have social significance. Sotho-English speakers do not need to diverge their speech styles to signal a meta-message. Unmarked choices often, though not always, carry extra social meaning. As is the case in my data, speech convergence is also an expression of group identity.

> Group identity can even be maintained by minor differences in linguistic patterns and by style of gesture. There are a wide variety of ways in which language patterning fluency or lack of fluency in a second language is related to identity maintenance. Changing patterns within groups are related to the sanctioning positively or negatively of specific dialects...
>
> (De Vos 1975, cited in Turner and Giles1981:205)

The overall pattern of CS is a communicative resource which enables speakers to accomplish a range of social and discourse related objectives. In addition to rendering meaning about the direction of a conversation, information relating to the nature of relationships between speakers is also implied.

## 5.5 Shibboleth

The general tendency to date in most research has been to focus on switching between languages which are typologically distinct, rarely has attention been drawn to switching within languages from the same group. In the following section I provide empirical evidence of switching within the same language family.

Extract 17

Two of four acquaintances were sitting at the cafeteria discussing their plans to attend the Brenda Fassie music concert at the Good Hope Centre. Re was a female Sepedi speaker and Je was a male Sesotho speaker. Both speakers were from Gauteng province.

**(Sepedi)**

Re: Nna ga ke itse gore why Jake a rata go nna impossible. Ga se la ntlha a dira seno. Ke mang yo o itseng, gongwe o na le appointment-e le girlfriend ya gagwe.

[I DON'T UNDERSTAND WHY JAKE LIKES BEING IMPOSSIBLE. THIS IS NOT THE FIRST TIME HE REFUSES TO JOIN US. WHO KNOWS, MAYBE HE HAS AN APPOINTMENT WITH HIS GIRLFRIEND.]

**(Sesotho)**

Jk: Ke tla inahana. If ke se na mosebetsi o mongata ke tla tsamaya le lona.

[I'LL THINK ABOUT IT. IF I DON'T HAVE A LOT OF WORK, I'LL JOIN YOU.]

**(Utterances in italics show Sesotho and those in normal font are Sepedi)**

Re: *O iketsa bookworm-nyana. Ke tsebile fela hore o tla re o na mosebetsi wa sekolo as if rona ha re na ona. Ha o qhetile ho nahana o re jwetse.* Ke a itse gore seo se bolela gore ga o tsamaye le rona. Re botše morwarra.

[YOU BEHAVE LIKE SOME BOOKWORM. I KNEW YOU WOULD MENTION SOMETHING ABOUT YOUR SCHOOLWORK, AS IF WE DON'T HAVE ANY WORK TO DO. WHEN YOU'VE MADE YOUR DECISION YOU SHOULD TELL US. I KNOW THIS MEANS THAT YOU NOT COMING WITH US.]

The speakers switch between Sepedi and Sesotho. There are instances where speakers use lexical items from the English language but they are not as significant. Re's L1 is Sepedi and Je's L1 is Sesotho. This example above seems to suggest that Re is a multilingual speaker using Sepedi-Sesotho-English simultaneaously whereas Je uses Sesotho and English only.

## 5.6 Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to describe the linguistic constraints and the social motivations on CS. My analysis demonstrates that CS is constrained by certain

rules. I used three linguistic approaches in my analysis: Myer-Scotton's MLF model, Sankoff and Poplack's FMC and EC, Sridhar and Sridhar's DSP. The strength of the MLF model and the DSP lies in the fact that they provide a more satisfactory explanation of my data. My analysis demonstrates the differential roles between Sotho languages (ML) and English (EL). Generally, the ML determines the direction and the position of code-switched structures. Sotho and English are typologically different hence my analysis does not lend support to the structural integrity principle in the FMC and EC.

I used Myers-Scotton's Markedness model and the Giles and Smith Speech Accommodation Theory to describe the social motivations in CS. Speakers use CS for a variety of social reasons: to denote group and individual identities and also to negotiate and accommodate other speakers with whom they are interacting.

In the last chapter I will provide a detailed discussion about the findings of my study.

# CHAPTER 6

# SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

## 6.0 Introduction

In the final chapter I summarise the key issues raised in the thesis and evaluate their contribution to knowledge. I will use the final chapter as a basis to outline subsequent research.

## 6.1 Summary

The literature review is divided into two sections. The first section of the literature review defines the different terms and concepts used in language contact research. The second section outlines in detail theoretical approaches and some of the models used in the language contact research.

There are a number of different terms used in language contact research and unfortunately the same terms are in some cases are used inconsistently and conflictually. One of the major objectives was to try and come with a standardised terminology for purposes of this research. I have also examined the different theoretical approaches in the language contact field and "tested" the extent to which they could adequately describe patterns in the data.

I used a multi-method approach research design based on audio-recorded conversations and semi-structured interviews. Audio-recordings were done surreptitiously to capture naturally occurring conversations among students. Because of ethical problems of surreptitious recordings, consent to use the recordings was sought and granted after the recording process.

Analytically, the study examined the linguistic constraints and social factors motivating code-switching. The study used different models such as the Matrix Language Frame model, Dual Structure Principle and Free Morpheme constraint and Equivalence constraint in the analysis of linguistic constraints. Furthermore, I used the Markedness model and the Speech Accommodation Theory to define the social motivations on CS.

CS is variously treated by researchers as a haphazard mixture of languages, as interference (Weinreich 1953), as linguistic decay (Appel and Muysken 1987) or simply as a lack of proficiency (Kgomoeswana 1993, Malimabe 1990 cited in Calteaux 1996). Contrary to these purist views, my analysis demonstrates that CS is a type of skilled performance occurring regularly and systematically, albeit subject to linguistic constraints.

My analysis further shows that there an asymmetrical relationship with Sotho as the matrix language (ML) and English as the embedded language (EL). As a result of the unequal status, the ML imposes linguistic constraints. The ML is the dominant

language framing the morpho-syntactic structure in which the EL morphemes and phrases occur. Thus the syntactic or grammatical integrity maintained is that of Sotho rather than of the language-pair.

Code-switching is not only used for discourse purposes but also has social significance. My empirical data illustrates that CS serves a communicative function and also serves as a social strategy appropriate in the maintenance of ethnic group boundaries and personal relationships.

## 6.2 Limitations of Current Research and Recommendations

The patterns in this study shed light into the nature of language behaviour in a historically white institution. Given the fact that my data was collected from a very specific locality, the findings may not be applicable in other contexts. The study therefore needs to be extended to other institutions of learning to see if the same patterns emerge.

The thesis has demonstrated the difficulty of language labelling, a problem severely underestimated in academic language research where the categories are taken as self-evident. I used Sotho as an umbrella term for all languages in the Sotho group. It was difficult in some cases to know when to use the umbrella term or the name of a specific language such as Sesotho, Setswana and Sepedi. For example, the use of the umbrella term may have limited the analysis of specific instances of code-

switching within the Sotho language group. Use of the labels in South African linguistics is in itself an area worthy of exploring.

The tradition in language contact studies, particularly in CS, has often implied that contact only takes place between two languages. The thesis demonstrates that switching is not restricted to typologically different languages but may occur within typologically comparable languages. Switching in typologically comparable languages still has to receive systematic attention in South African research. Future research in South Africa needs to explore switching within and across language groups such as Sotho languages and Nguni languages.

Future research also needs to examine in detail the social and conversational factors in code-switching. The explanatory models for CS should include a broader range of factors which have been demonstrated to have an effect on language use such as gender, age, degree programme being pursued such as education, economics and science.

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# APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Section A

1. What is your age? (Which of these categories describe your age?)

(a) 17-22

(b) 23-28

(c) 29-34

(d) 35-40

2. What is your gender?

(a) Male

(b) Female

3. What is your mother tongue/first language?

(a) Setswana

(b) Sepedi (Northern Sotho)

(c) Sesotho (Southern Sotho)

(d) Zulu

(e) Xhosa

(f) Other...

4. Place of origin

(a) Eastern Cape Province

(b) Free Sate Province

(c) Gauteng Province

(d) Northern Cape Province

(e) Northern Province

(f) North West Province

(g) Western Cape Province

(h) Mpumalanga

(i) Other...

Section B

Why do you think you mix/switch languages when you speak?

## APPENDIX 2: AUDIO-RECORDED CONVERSATIONS

Conversation 1

Conversation between three women acquaintances in a television lounge in a student residence at UCT. All three were Setswana speakers from Gauteng province. The three acquaintances were worried about the other friend, Si, who seems to have taken rather long at the supermarket.

Ru: O kae Seipati?
**[Where is Seipati?]**
Nm: She went to Shoprite. O ile go reka some doughnuts.
**[...She went to buy some doughnuts.]**
Ru: Modimo wa me! Why a sa mpolelela. Le nna ke a di batla.
**[Oh my God! Why didn't she tell me. I also want them.]**
Na: Se tshwenyege, o tla reka tse enough.
**[Don't worry, she will buy enough.]**
Ru: Nna ke rata di-cream doughnuts fela.
**[I like cream doughnuts.]**
Na:In that case, o tla tshwanela gore o ye go batla Si gore a tle a itse.
**[In that case, you have to go and tell her.]**
Ru: Nka se ye kwa lebenkeleng leo, le too far.
**[I cannot go to that supermarket, it is too far]**
Nm: If e le gore o batla tse specific-i, o tla tshwanela gore o tsamaye my good friend.
**[If you want for specific doughnuts, you have to go my good friend.]**
Ru: It is okay, ke tla ja sengwe le sengwe se a tlang le sone. It does not look like I have much choice.
**[It is okay, I'll have anything she brings...]**
Na: Good girl. O tlogele go tlhopa, o tla swa ke tlala. Nna ga ke tshwenye ope, ke ja sengwe le sengwe.
**[Good girl. You must stop being choosy, otherwise you will starve. Some of us take** everything. As long as it is edible.]
Ru: Oh my God! O tsile go boa leng?
**[...when is she coming back?]**
Na: Who?
Ru: Si
Na: O tla boa ka bonako
**[Soon]**

Conversation 2

Both speakers came from Gauteng province. So was a male Setswana speaker and Tb was a male Sesotho speaker. The conversation took place in the lounge in a student residence at UCT. So wanted to know what the menu for supper was.

So: Re ja eng ka supper?
**[What are we having/eating for supper?]**
Tb: Ha ke tsebe mare e kare ke raese le nama ya nku. Mutton stew.
**[I'm not sure but it seems it is rice and mutton stew.]**
So: Oh this sounds nice. Ga ke a ja ka lunch.Ke setse ke tshwerwe ke tlala. Se monate thata, especially fa o tshela some hot chutney.
**[... I did not have lunch. I am hungry. Stew and rice is nice especially if you put some hot chutney.]**
Tb: Ha ke rate ho ja dintho tse botshe ho tshwana le chutney.
**[I do not like eating sweet things like chutney.]**
Sello: Maybe le wena o tshela too much.
**[Maybe you put too much.]**

Conversation 3

Coversation between three women acquaintances in the student centre at UCT. Pg and Ma came from Gauteng province and Di came from North West province. Pg was a Sesotho speaker and both Ma and Di were Setswana speakers. In the conversation, the three women talked about the type of clothes people wear.

Ma: Diaparo tse aparwang malatsi a, di a gakgamatsa. Batho ba gone ba lebega e kete ga ba apara selo.
**[The clothes that people wear these days are disgusting/amazing. People look naked in these clothes.]**
Di: Ke fešhene my dear, ga go na sepe se re ka se dirang.
**[It is fashion my dear, we can't do anything about it.]**
Pg: I do not think so. Batho ba tshwanetse ho respect-a culture ya bona. Ha ho hlokahale hore ba apare jwalo. Le batho ba baholo ba apara fela these days. I wonder hore ba a nahana hore ba tshwanetse ho ba di-role model. Ke bona e kare re tla qhetella re le e sick society.
**[...People should learn to respect their culture. There is no need to clothe like that. Adults clothe in this disgusting manner as well. I wonder if they are aware that they should act as our role models. It looks like we will end up with a sick society.]**
Di: A ke re ba re they are moving with the times. Re tla reng ga e se gone go ba tlogela gore ba dire se ba se ratang.
**[They say that they are moving with the times. There is nothing we can do about it.]**
Pg: I wish hore ba ka stop-a. Ha o sheba hantle, o a bona hore batho ba rona ba lahlile meetlo ya bona. Re na le influence e ngata ya merafe e meng.
**[I wish these can stop this. If you really come to think of it, we have lost our culture. We have a lot of influence from other nations.]**
Ma: Ja, that is true.Re na le influence e ntsi tota go tswa kwa merafeng le tsone dinga tse dingwe. Re latlhegile thata.
**[Yes, that is true. We have o lot of influence from other nations and countries.We are lost.]**

Conversation 4

Th and Mi were male Sesotho language speakers. Both speakers came from the Free State province. Lo was a female Sesotho speaker from gauteng province. The conversation took place in the students' residence lounge at UCT. The conversation was about the soccer game between two soccer clubs Kaizer Chiefs and Real Rovers.

Lo: Go na le metshameko wa kgwele ya dinao kwa universty-ng ya bona. E start-ile ka Labobedi. Go tsena go cheap, ke diranta di le sometlhano fela. Ba rekisa le di-snacks.
**[They have soccer games at their university. The games started on Tuesday. The entrance fee is cheap. It is only R15. They also sell snacks.]**
Th: Hobaneng Mpumi a sa re invite-a. Nna ke batla ho bona bolo. Ke tlo bina le hona ho dansa boiho kaofela.
**[Why didn't Mpumi invite us. I want to watch the soccer games. I am going to sing and dance for the whole night.]**
Lo: Ke tla mo phone-la gore a re neele di-details. If go kgonega, ke tla mo kopa gore a re reserve-le di-seat.
**[I will phone him so that he can give us the necessary details. If possible, I will ask him to reserve some seats for us.]**
Mi: Ha re lo šheba telefišhione. Maybe ho na le bolo.
**[Let us go and watch the television, maybe there is a soccer game.]**
Th:Chiefs e hlotse Rovers. Doctor Khumalo o ne a etse dintho tse a tumileng ka tsona. Rovers e ne e sa bapale hantle. Rovers' defense was very weak.
**[Chiefs won the game against rovers. Doctor Khumalo was playing his best. Rovers was not playing well...]**
Mi: Pollen Ndlaya le yena o ne a bapala hantle. It was a good game. Thabang Lebese nkabe a le teng, re ne re tlo ja Rovers 5-0. Re setse ka Pirates jwaanong.
**[Pollen Ndlanya was playing well as well...if Thabang Lebese was there, we could have beaten rovers 5-0. We are only left with the game against Pirates.]**

Conversation 5

Tu an Ob came from the Free State province. Tu was a male Sesotho speaker and Ob was a male Setswana speaker. The conversation took place in the cafeteria at UCT. The conversation was about the linguistic behaviour of some students at UCT. The speakers were concerned about the use of English by African students.

Tu: Di-students di a makatsa. Ha ba le mo UCT ba bua English and then ko hae ba bua dipuo tsa bona. Ba iketsa e kare ha ba tsebe puo tsa bona except segoa.
**[Students are amazing. When they are at UCT they speak English and then at home they speak their mother tongue. When they are here (at UCT) they pretend they do not know any other language except English.]**
Ob: Ba a itlhakanya tlhogo because ba imitate-a magoa. Ba a lebala gore bone ba tswa kwa location-ng and ga go na nako ya makgaga.
**[They are confusing themselves because they imitate white people. They forget that they are from the locations and there is no time for this kind of behaviour.]**

Tu: Batho ba ba ngata ha ba understand-e English. You are forced hore o bue hantle.
**[People at home do not understand English. You are forced to speak accordingly/your mother tongue language.]**
Ob: Batho ba tla go tlhoya fa o tla ka di-style tse snaaks kwa location-ng. Fela ke ka ntlha ya eng ba bua sekgoa se se kima jaana fela ba fail-a di-test .
**[People will hate you if you put up some funny accent. But why do they fail tests when they can speak such good English.]**
Tu: Ba tla ho bolella hore UCT ya ho hlantsha. O tsamaile maobane and all of a sudden ha o sa tseba ho bua le batho hantle.
**[They will tell you that UCT is driving you crazy. You left here yesterday and all of a sudden you do not know how to speak properly.]**

Conversation 6

Js and Ce were both Setswana speakers. Js was a male coming from Gauteng province and Ce was a female from North West province. The two share the same first year course. They met at the student learning centre. They discussed the problems they experienced in trying to write the Psychology assignment.

Js: That Psychology essay is difficult. I cannot bring myself to writing it. It is such a frustrating thing. Have you started yours?
Ce: Not yet. But ke ikemiseditse go e simolola bosigo. Fa o batla, o ka nna wa tla go dira le nna bosigo. I hope gore ke tla fetsa ka nako e e tshwanetseng.
**[Not yet. But I intend to start working on it tonight. If you are interested you can come and work with me tonight. I hope I will finish in time.]**
Js: Thanks. Ke tla tla go dira le wena. Fa ke le nosi ke a palelwa. I wish rre wa me e ne e le Sol Kerzner. Ke ne ke tla tlogela sekolo.
**[Thanks. I will join you because I find it difficult to work alone. I wish my father was Sol Kerzner, I would leave studying.]**
Ce: Go siame. O ye go lebelela dibuka kwa laeborari. Ke na le tse dingwe kwa go nna. Dephatemente ya rona e na le dibuka tse dingwe.
**[O'kay. You must check in the library if you can't find some helpful books in the library. I have some at my place.]**
Js: Ke tla di check-a pele ke tsamaya mo campus-ng. Ka tle ka nako mang? Re tla fetsa go kwala essay in the morning.
**[I will check the books before I leave campus. What time should I come? We will finish the essay in the morning.]**

Conversation 7

The subjects were male Sepedi language speakers. Both speakers were from the Northern province. The conversation took place in the lounge (in one of the residences) at UCT. The two met immediately after the Easter vacation. Dd had been home for the vacation and he was telling Cs about the latest developments there.

Cs: O tlile leng?
**[When did you come?]**
Dd: Ke tlile ka three.
**[I arrived at three.]**
Cs: Ka transpoto e feng?
**[Which transport did you use?]**
Dd: Ka terene.
**[Train.]**
Cs: Ke bone batho ka di-holidays.
**[I saw lots o people during the holidays.]**
Dd:A o a itse gore ke ne ke ile gae ?
**[Do you know that I went home?]**
Cs: O mpoditše gore o ka sepela.
**[You told me that you might leave.]**
David: Wena o ne o ile gae?
**[Did you go home?]**
Cs: Nyaa. O tlile leng?
**[No. When did you come back?]**
Dd: Maloba.
**[The day before yesterday.]**
Cs: Re ya party-ng ya Jabu ka di-seventeen.
**[We are atttending Jabu's party on the seventeenth.]**
Dd: He didn't tell me.
Cs: Nna o mpoditše maloba. O tlhakane le nna ke ya sekolong.
**[He told me a day before yesterday. He met me while I was on my way to school.]**
Dd: Nna nka se ba bone.
**[I will not be able to see him.]**
Cs: Why, ga o ye gae ka June.
**[Why? Are you not going home in June.]**
Dd: A ke tsebe. Ga ke ise ke decide-e.
**[I'm not sure, I have not decided yet.]**
Cs: Selby o rile a ka tla Cape Town. O rekile koloi, ke go boditše?
**[Selby said he might come to Cape Town. Did I tell you that he bought a car?]**
Dd: O bereka kae Selby na?
**[Where does he work?]**
Cs: Ko Reserview.
**[At Reserview.]**
O rekile Kadett.
**[He bought a Kadett.]**
Dd: Ke ne ke ile ka December ka se mo ke reye. Ba re o ile somewhere. What colour is his car.
**[I went to check him in December and I was told that he went somewhere...]**
Cs: Silvergrey. But ga ke ise ke e bone. Nna ke boleletswe ke Lawrence. O ne a phone-ile just before ke tsamaya. Le Eddy o rekile koloi. O a mo itse mos.
**[It is silvergrey. I have not seen it. Lawrence told me, he called just before I left. Eddy bought a car as well. Do you know him?]**
Cs: Ja
**[Yes]**

Dd: Ba re ga a itse go e drive-a.
**[They say he does not know how to drive it.]**
Cs: Ke utlwa bare le Allen le yena o rekile BMW or something.
**[I am told that Allen bought a BMW or something.]**
Dd: Ja ya Allen ke e bone. Why o sa e bona?
**[Yes, I have seen Allen's. How come you never saw it.]**
Cs: A ke re nna ka December a ka bona motho. Ke ile daar for a week or two. **[I did not manage to see everyone in December. I only went home for a week or two.]**
Dd: Oh! that is why. O rekile seven series.
**[He bought a seven series.]**

Conversation 8

Ju and Je were male speakers. Re and Nk were female speakers. Re, Nk and Je came from Gauteng province and Ju came from North West province. Re was a Sepedi speaker, Je was a Sesotho speaker and both Nk and Ju were Setswana speakers. The four acquaintances were sitting at the cafeteria discussing their plans to attend the Brenda Fassie music concert at the Good Hope Centre.

Refilwe: Le kwele košana e mfsa ya Brenda Fassie. Ke e bone mo telefišhioneng. Monate wa yone o tswa ka ditsebe. Why re sa organise-e transpoto ya go kwa show-ng.
**[ Did you hear Brenda Fassie's latest album. They showed it on the television.It is extremely nice. Why don't we organise transport to attend her show.]**
Nk: You are a real star. Ka gonne ke wena o tlileng ka this idea, ke propose-a gore o dire dithulaganyo tse di tshwanetseng. Lona le nagana jang or le batla go vota?
**[Since you are the one who proposed this idea, I think you should do the necessary preparations. What do you think, or do you want to vote?]**
Ju: My good friend, ke ya go support-a. Re tla be re lapile tota morago ga assignment ya Psychology. So, ga ke bone gore why re ka se attende-e show e.
**[Yes, I support the idea. We will be very tired after the psychology assignment. I do not see the why we cannot attend the show.]**
Je: By the way, e tla be e le neng?
**[By the way, when is this show?]**
Re: Ka Friday o o tlang.
**[Next week Friday.]**
Re: Not this one, next week.
Je: Nna ha ke tsamaye le lona. Ke batla ho ya videoshop-ng ya Rondebosch. Banka e butswe na?
**[I am not attending the show. I want to go to the video shop in Rondebosch. Is the bank open?]]**
Re: Nna ga ke itse gore why Je a rata go nna impossible. Ga se ga ntlha o dira seno. Nna mokgwa o wa gago o ntapisitse. Ke mang yo o itseng, gongwe o na le appointment-e le girlfriend ya gagwe.
**[I do not understand why Je likes being impossible. This is not the first time. I am tired of this behaviour. Who knows, maybe you have an appointment with your girlfriend.]**

Je: Ke tla inahana. If ke sena mosebetsi o mongata ke tla tsamaya le lona. First things first.
**[I will think about it, If I don't have a lot of work I will join you...]**
Re: O iketsa bookworm-nyana. O kare o prinsipala. Ke tsebile fela hore o tla re o na le mosebetsi wa sekolo as if rona ha re na ona. O lapisa tota wena. Ke a itse gore seo se bolela gore ga o tsamaye le rona. Re botše fela morwarra.
**[You behave like some bookworm. You behave like a principal. I knew that you would mention your schoolwork as if we do not have any work to do. I know this means that you are not coming with us. Just tell us.]**

Conversation 9

Bi was a Setswana language speaker and Br was a Sesotho language speaker. Both speakers are females. Bi came from the North West Province and Br was from Gauteng province. The speakers were in the dining hall. In the conversation Bi talked about her dissatisfaction with Br's sleeping behaviour.

Bi: Wena o rata boroko, tatsi lengwe o tla fitlhela re ile gae o santse o robetse. Go robala thata ga go a siama tsala ya me.
**[You like sleeping. one day you'll find everyone gone. Sleeping too much is not good my friend.]**
Br: Utlwang ho bua mang. Nna le wena re a tshwana. Ha o bona batho o iketsa motho.
**[Look who's talking. you and me are the same. when you see people you make it look like you are better.]**
Bi: O bua maaka. Ke gopola sentle. Ke robetse go fitlha ka ura ya bobedi ka Sontaga feela. Matsatsi a mang a o buang ka one ga ke a itse. O a itse mo pelong ya gago gore o bua maaka.
**[You are lying. i remember very well. I only slept until two on Sunday. I can't recall the other days you are referring to. you know deep down in you heart that you are lying.]**
Br: Okay, ke tla ho hopotsa ke letsatsi le ke ho tshwarang ka lona. O nahana hore o clever haholo.
**[O'kay, I will remind you the day I catch you. You think you are too clever.]**
Bi: O a itse gore ke go bona kwa dining hall fela.
**[You know I only see you in the dining hall.]**

Conversation 10

Ky and Jn were female Sepedi speakers. Both Ky and Jn came from the Northern province. The conversation was about the elections that took place at the province regarding the status of Mpumalanga province.

Ky: Moferefere wa di-election o feletse kae. Ba decide-ile eng ka Lebowa le Mpumalanga.
**[What happened to the elections. What did they decide about the Northern province and Mpumalanga.]**

Jn: Kgale go decide-lwe ka March. Le nna ga ke itse gore ba ntse ba dirang jaanong.
**[A decision was taken in March. I don't know what they are doing now.]**
Ky: I understand batho ba ne ba bitsa meeting go discuss-a.
**[I understand people called a meeting to discuss the matter.]**
Jn: Ja. Meeting o ne o le teng le di-director general. Batho bona ba ne ba di blaim-a.
**[Yes. There was a meeting with the directors. People were blaming them.]**