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A META-ANALYSIS OF CODESWITCHING IN ASIAN LANGUAGES

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Abstract

This thesis explores the motivation for code-switching to English from Asian languages and compared this to the motivation for code-switching in Germanic languages. A meta-analysis is used in this thesis to analyse the motivations for code-switching in Asian languages. The results from this methodology reveals that code-switching in Asian languages is used as a linguistic resource as a pragmatic and discourse function. On the other hand, cognates induce code-switching in the Germanic languages. The meta-analysis of Asian languages will reveal that code-switching in Asian languages can be classified into a structural and functional analysis. The reasons for code-switching differ in Asian languages differ from the Germanic languages. The motivations for code-switching in Asian languages are sociolinguistic. Code-switching occurs under the influence of 1) the relationship between interlocutors 2) cultural values 3) discourse functions 4) practicality and language learning, and 5) self-image and prestige.

Keywords: code-switching, bilingualism, functional analysis, structural analysis, meta-analysis

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1. **Introduction**

Code-switching was previously considered to be a random process, or a process caused by the lack of language proficiency. However, studies have shown that code-switching is not a random process nor can this language behaviour solely be ascribed to the lack of language proficiency (e.g. Clyne, 1980). Researchers have shown that bilinguals use code-switching as a linguistic resource to carry out social and discourse functions (Gumperz, 1982, Myers-Scotton). Moreover, code-switching is not a random process, but a complex language behavior that is rule-governed by constraints (Poplack, 1980).

Typologically related language pairs are therefore languages in which code-switching is made possible due to their similarities, for example the language pairs Dutch-English and German English. Previous research that has been conducted on the code-switching of Dutch-English and German-English bilingual speakers, found that code-switching in these language pairs is triggered by the presence of a cognate (Clyne, 1980; Broersma, 2006; Broersma & de Bot, 2009). Dutch and German are cognate languages that are similar to English due to the overlapping cognates. These cognates are words that are similar in form or spelling in both languages (e.g. *bal-ball*) and induce code-switching as a result (Clyne, 1980). This hypothesis, first proposed by Michael Clyne (1967), has been tested with bilinguals whose L1 was Dutch and their L2 was English (e.g. Broersma 2009, Kootstra et al.,2012).

There are, however, languages that are not typologically similar language pairs in a general sense, for example Dutch-Turkish and Dutch-Moroccan Arabic bilinguals. But evidence has also been found for both inter- and intra-sentential code-switching present in these dissimilar language pairs that share no cognates (Boeschoten & Verhoeven 1987; Broersma & de Bot, 2006). This is opposed to the constraints proposed by Poplack (1980) which state that languages that do not a grammatical structure cannot generate intrasentential code-switching. This study, however, was based on Spanish-English bilingual children, and the studies conducted by Broersma and de Bot (2006) and Boeschoten et al. (1987) were based on Turkish-Dutch and Moroccan-Arabic-Dutch bilinguals which are languages that fall outside the linguistic classification of Indo-European languages. The studies show that code-switching is a cross-linguistic behaviour that occurs in language that are similar, and also in language pairs that are dissimilar. Therefore, this contradict with Poplack's (1980) constraints.

This thesis explores the motivations for code-switching to English from Asian Languages. The research question for this thesis will be as follows:

In what ways do the motivations for code-switching to English from Asian languages differ from the motivations from Germanic languages to English?

This topic and the research questions are relevant. First of all, because code-switching is a language behaviour that is a common practice in the bilingual and multilingual community, regardless of age, gender, location, and level of proficiency (e.g. Clyne,1980).

Secondly, code-switching in Germanic languages has been proven to occur due to cognates that trigger it (e.g. Clyne, 1980; Broersma, 2006). Boeschoten et al. (2012) argued that code-switching as language behaviour in typologically dissimilar languages should receive more investigation. This was the main reason for me to conduct a study code-switching between Asian languages and English. These languages seem typologically unrelated at first glance, but it has been shown that code-switching still occurs (e.g. Setiawan, 2016; Tay, 1989). However, the existing literature available on individual Asian languages seemed scarce which means that Asian languages are underrepresented in literature covering this topic.Therefore, my research will focus on the motivations for code-switching to English from Asian languages, as these languages do not share cognates. I will look at Asian languages as a group to explore potential similarities and discrepancies on code-switching between selected studies.

I will answer the research question by conducting a meta-analysis of selected articles with the subject of code-switching in Asian languages. By doing this, I will also present existing research done on code-switching. The selected languages are Mandarin, Vietnamese, Indonesian, Japanese, and Korean. The selected articles will be categorized into a structural and functional analysis. I will answer my research question based on what the motivations are for code-switching and to existing functional and structural patterns based on the theories by Gumperz (1982) and Myers-Scotton (1993) and Poplack (1980). Furthermore, my hypothesis will predict that code-switching in Asian languages are determined by sociolinguistic factors.

The first section of this thesis contains background information on the subject of code-switching and previous research that has been conducted subject. The analysis section will contain a synthesis of existing studies on code-switching in Asian languages. These findings have been collected and classified into a structural and functional analysis. The discussion section covers the findings of the analysis section and forms a comparison between studies that have been

conducted on Germanic languages and the findings of studies on Asian languages. This sections also contains the answer to the research question. The last section contains a summary of this thesis, with possible suggested recommendations for further research.

2. Background

2.1. Introduction

There definition for code-switching differs from researcher to researcher. Poplack (1980) and Myers-Scotton (1988) refer to code switching as language alternation within a single utterance. Gumperz (1982) agreed with this definition but adds to this definition that no syntactic rules can be violated. Code-switching or language-mixing, is the use of words and phrases from one language into the other language. This thesis will use the terms code-switching and language mixing interchangeably. Consider the following example, "Dit is een *device* om blikken te openen" ("This is a *device* to open tin cans). In this sentence the Dutch word *apparaat* is replaced by the English word *device*. A speaker might choose the English word over the Dutch word despite there being a Dutch equivalent of the word. This phenomenon is common in the bilingual and multilingual community and has been researched in different disciplines, such as linguistics (e.g. Clyne 1980), psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics (e.g. Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1988). Code-switching is not random a random practice and involves underlying grammatical patterns that are processed in the mental lexicon of speakers. Michael Clyne's (1980) research, based on Dutch-English and German English bilinguals, led him to observe that code-switching is a linguistic linguistic behaviour that is not bound to gender, age, location and levels language proficiency. Heredia (2001) suggested that code-switching takes place when there is a lack of language proficiency and the speaker is unable to retrieve the correct word. Speakers do not frequently use the word and therefore are not able to retrieve the correct word from their memory. Thus, language proficiency and word frequency are important factors to consider when investigating code-switching. However, Heredia (2001) believed that language proficiency as a term itself is blurred. The issue is that there is no clear consensus on which language skill deserves more priority over the other when determining one's language proficiency. Heredia gave the example of Spanish-English bilinguals in the United States that have access to both Spanish and English. The bilinguals receive education in English, but use Spanish or a mixture of Spanish and English for interpersonal interaction with their peers. This leads to the issue that their reading skills and writing skills are more developed in English and underdeveloped in Spanish. Macnamara and Kushnir (1971) explain this with a *two switch mechanism* which proposes that the mental lexicon of one language will be turned off when the other language is activated. When one language is selected through the input (e.g. English) that language will trigger the lexicon of the language input. As a result, the mental lexicon of the other

language (Spanish) will be deactivated as the two languages cannot operate simultaneously. The speakers processes the least active language at a slower rate than the language activated. When considering one's language proficiency it is important to consider circumstances like word frequency that influence the bilingual's language skills. Furthermore, Heredia and Altarriba (2000) showed that Spanish-English bilinguals relied less on their first language (Spanish) than on their second language (English). An experiment showed that these bilinguals had quicker access to English target words than Spanish ones when asked to name words that were related to a critical word (e.g. 'war' or 'guerra'). This can be explained due to *language dominance,* which is determined by language activity. The language that receives increased activity in the mental lexicon becomes the more dominant language and therefore the language with easier accessibility. The Spanish-English bilinguals have become more accustomed to the second language and experience fewer intrusions of their first language. Although, language proficiency is a factor that determines the presence of code-switching, it is not clear which language skill receives more priority over the other. In addition, word frequency is another factor that is important when considering code-switching.

2.2. Structural Approach

A common linguistic structural approach that appeared in studies on code-switching consisted of the *free morpheme constraint* and the *equivalence constraint* that were proposed by Poplack (1980).

1) The *free morpheme constraint* states that bound morphemes cannot be switched in both languages.
2) The *equivalent constraint,* states that the grammatical structures of both languages should be congruous in order for a grammatical switch to occur.

Poplack (1980) proposed that on the basis of a bilingual's language proficiency, three types of switches can occur. *Inter-sentential* switches occur at sentence boundaries, therefore, present in language pairs that do not share a grammatical structure as well as languages that do. Poplack (1980) argued that *intra-sentential* switches, on the other hand, can only occur when the two language share overlapping grammar. Typologically related language pairs will therefore generate more possibilities for code-switching. This, however, does not mean that code-switching does not occur in language pairs that are unrelated which Broersma and de Bot (2006) and Boeschoten and

Verhoeven (1987) have proven in their studies on Dutch-Moroccan-Arabic bilinguals and Turkish-Dutch bilinguals.

Boeschoten and Verhoeven (1987) conducted a study where they tested the code-switching of Dutch-Turkish bilinguals. The goal of their research was to test how and to which extent the models and constraints that have been developed on code-switching applied to the code-switching behaviour of Dutch-Turkish bilinguals in the Netherlands. Unrelated language pairs were chosen to provide evidence for the generalizability of these cross-linguistic constraints. The informants of these study were second generation bilingual children, who were second generation immigrant from rural areas in Turkey who moved to the Netherlands. These children were forced to adapt to a completely new environment with new impressions and had learn a foreign language. Therefore, these children of the ages 4 to 7 were in the early stages of language contact.

Boeschoten and Verhoeven (1987) performed an analysis of the functional and structural properties of code-switching instances of the Dutch-Turkish bilingual children. Poplack's (1980) constraint theories were applied in order to test the validity of these constraints and the generalizability. Boeschoten and Verhoeven (1987) corroborated that these constraints developed by Poplack (1980) were unable to describe the code-switching behaviour of the Dutch-Turkish children and ascribed this to the typological differences. On top of that, the researchers found that the *free morpheme constraint* was not applicable to Dutch-Turkish codeswitching and was therefore not universal. Broersma and the Bot (2006) agreed with Boeschoten and Verhoeven (1987). Broersma and de Bot (2006) also found that code-switching occurred in the speech of Dutch-Moroccan-Arabic bilinguals who were second generation immigrants as well. This test group also showed instances of code-switching, despite the two languages being unrelated.

The last type of code-switching that Poplack (1980) proposed, consisted of tag switching, which consist of discourse markers. In this thesis, however, the focus lies on the distinction between inter- and intra-sentential code-switching.

Myers Scotton (1988) posited the *Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF)*. With the MLF model, Myers-Scotton suggested that the speech of a bilingual consists of a matrix language, or the dominant language (L1), and an embedded language (L2). The MLF refers to the insertions of words and phrases from one language into a the context of another language (intra-sentential code-switching). This framework model determines the matrix language on the basis of content and functional morphemes. Content morphemes (e.g. nouns, adjectives) can be used from both matrix and embedded languages as these are words that have pragmatic and semantic functions. Functional morphemes (e.g. bound morphemes), on the other hand, are morphemes that determine the relation

between the content morphemes. They are the cement for the building blocks that build a clause. Myers-Scotton (1993) argued that functional morphemes can only be used from the matrix language, and content morphemes from both languages. Therefore, in order to determine the matrix language, the functional morphemes are crucial. Myer-Scotton argued that the matrix language is determined by the presence of functional morphemes and the amount of content morphemes.

A theory which explained linguistic reasons for code-switching in Germanic languages is the triggering theory proposed by Michael Clyne (1967, 1980). Clyne argued that code-switching in cognate languages occurs when a word is preceded of followed by a trigger word, that is a cognate. These cognates are words that are similar in form or spelling in both languages (e.g. *bal-ball*) and as a result, induce code-switching because both languages are activated in the mental lexicon (Clyne, 1980). These words are connected in the mental lexicon of the bilingual and make it easier to switch between both languages. Broersma (2009), Clyne, (1980), and Kootstra et. al. (2012) have all found instances where this theory that proposed triggered code-switching, has proven to be valid. An extended synthesis of these researches and evidence for this theory will be presented in the next subsection about the triggering theory in Germanic languages.

2.3 Functional Approach

Gumperz and Blom (1972) explored code switching in light of social events by making a distinction between *situational and metaphorical code-switching*. Situational code-switching refers to the fact that code-switching is directly linked to the social situation the bilingual speaker is in. A code-switching instance represents a change in the setting where certain connotations are linked to certain activities or situations. There are, however, also situations in which there is no change in activity and where code-switching is used in a communicative manner, for example, to change topics, also referred to as *metaphorical code-switching*. In *metaphorical code-switching* situations, the social settings remain the same, but the shift in conversational topics is induced code-switching. For example, two Japanese-English bilingual friends use English when talking about school, but opt for Japanese when they discuss hobbies and sports. When talking about topics that are considered to be more colloquial, this involves Japanese as a choice of language. Nevertheless, when diverting to another topic that is formal, English is chosen. This shows that code-switching has a discourse function that is topic related. The discourse functions have been categorized by Gumperz (1982) in the following categories: quotation, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification and personalization versus objectivization. These functional classifications have been found in the speech of bilinguals in a variety of language communities (e.g. Song, 2016; Nguyen,

2012). It can be suggested that code-switching is used as a communicative tool and a linguistic resource with pragmatic functions. The code-switching practices of a bilingual are not random, but designed to direct conversations and to facilitate communication.

Another framework based on the relation between language mixing and society is Myers-Scotton's (1993) *Markedness Model* which describes how a language choice is based on the norms of society that determine the dynamics between interlocutors. She makes a distinction between *unmarked* and *marked* choice*s*. The unmarked language is the language that is determined and expected by society in designated social situations. For example, for a Dutch-Turkish bilingual child in the Netherlands the unmarked language is Dutch at school. The marked language, on the other hand, is the language that deviates from the norm. In this example this would have been Turkish. The Dutch-Turkish bilingual child could have opted for Turkish to challenge a teacher's authority. In this case it is an unmarked choice because it is a conscious choice to deviate from the expected language. In other words, Myers-Scotton's (1993) *Markedness Model* implied that the language choices of a bilingual, are conscious decisions that reveal a speaker's identity and attitudes.

2.4 Triggering hypothesis in Germanic languages.

This subsection is dedicated towards evidence for the *triggering theory* (Clyne, 1967; Clyne, 1980) and alternative theories. The existing debate around the triggering theory (Clyne, 1967; Clyne, 1980) are discussed in more detail. This is done to to show examples of triggered code-switching in Germanic languages. In the discussion section, later on in this paper, the results of the studies surrounding the triggering theory (e.g. Clyne, 1980; Broersma, 2009; Kootstra et. al., 2012) are compared to the analyses surrounding code-switching in Asian languages.

Michael Clyne (1980) proposed that code-switching was not just a random process, but a linguistic one, which occurred under the influence of trigger words. The original triggering theory by Michael Clyne (1980) stated that words that precede or follow a cognate are switched. This theory had been tested on the Dutch- and German-English bilingual community in Australia. To be more precise, code-switching occurs in anticipation and under influence of trigger words, when lexical transfers, bilingual homophones, proper nouns, and compromise words are present. There was a relationship between triggering words and speech errors and how they influence sentence planning and lexical processing. It was found that trigger words cause linguistic disorientation which induces code-switching in the mental lexicon of bilinguals. In (1), the trigger word is Show, which induces a switch to English in the following sentence.

(1)

'Kartoffel für die **Show**. <u>I've been doing it for the last fifty years</u>."

(Clyne, 1980, p. 401)

Overall, the data showed that switching took place from L1 to L2, due to the trigger words. Clyne (1980) also found that the Dutch-English bilinguals switched a lot back and forth, because Dutch and English share equivalents of, for example, function words, that were very similar in sound and form.

Furthermore, Clyne pointed out that some languages share integrated lexical transference, semantic transference, or compromise forms. In languages like Dutch and English, these so called compromise forms are caused by their phonological transference, which sometimes makes it difficult to distinguish whether the code-switching is a form of transference as in (2) where it could be an insertion of *of* in the Dutch phrase or a phonological transference of the sound /ə/ in *een.*

(2)

 een kop of koffie (a cup of coffee)

/ən kɔppɔfkofɪ/

(Clyne, 1980, 403)

Clyne also pointed out that the bilinguals showed instances of *syntactic transference*. He gave an example of syntactic transference in Dutch-English bilinguals in Australia where the SVO order of English had taken over their L1 grammar, such as in (3), where the word order is SVO (English) but the words inserted are from their L1 (Dutch).

(3)

'Ik was achtenzestig jaar, before ik <u>kon get </u>mijn <u>pension</u>." (1st generation postwar Dutch immigrant)

(Clyne, 1980; 403)

Another type of triggered code-switching added to the original triggering theory, are so-called *speech errors*. Speech errors occur when the speakers are occupied with trying to avoid code-switching, but as a result, put too much attention on trying retrieve a word or unit, therefore

neglecting neighbouring units. This induces the pronunciation of the L2 words with the phonetic system of L1 which as a results triggers the L1 lexicon for further switches.

Clyne (1980) extended this original triggering theory by adding that speech errors can induce code-switching as well. Clyne's (1967) original triggering excluded early lexical processing, and only focussed on late lexical processing, i.e. the sentence structure. Clyne's (1980) adjusted theory included triggered code-switching induced by speech errors, i.e. early lexical processing.

Although, Clyne's (1980) study introduced code-switching in relation to mental processes, this was not done extensively as Broersma (2009; Broersma & de Bot, 2006) stated that the original theory by Clyne needed adjustments with more recent knowledge on cognitive processes.

Broersma and de Bot (2006) tested Dutch-Moroccan-Arabic bilinguals and proposed an alternative hypothesis to the original triggering hypothesis proposed by Michael Clyne (1967) and provided results based on the hypothesis. The theory by Clyne (1967) proposed that code-switching is facilitated by trigger words that directly precede or follow words and that these adjacent/neighbouring words have an increased chance of being code-switched. The weakness of this hypothesis was that the original triggering hypothesis did not extensively take bilingual production models, that are based on mental processes, into account and only focusses on the surface structure of speech (word sequence for pronunciation of the sentence) instead of lemma selection. Previous research has shown that the lemma selection of bilinguals takes place in the mental lexicon before they are placed within the surface structure. The adjusted theory by Broersma and de Bot (2006) proposed that triggering is takes place during lemma selections. The adjusted theory preserves that original essence of the theory, but considered code-switching at a clause level.

Broersma and de Bot (2006) provided statistical evidence based on a Dutch-Moroccan Arabic corpus of Dutch-Moroccan informants. However, this adjusted theory was later tested in with the speech of a Dutch-English bilingual in New Zealand.

Broersma (2009) investigated code-switching in relation to cognate words, whether code-switching only occurs when a cognate directly precedes or follow a word, and the role trigger words play at clause level. The data was retrieved from an adult Dutch-English bilingual who immigrated from the Netherlands to New-Zealand. Dutch and English are typologically related languages, the context for investigation contained a more dense context of code-switching than, for example, the Moroccan-Arabic-Dutch corpus (Broersma & de Bot, 2006). Contrary to an earlier study conducted by Broersma and de Bot (2006), the results from the study were collected from an informant who belonged to a group of first-generation immigrants, instead of a group of second generation immigrants in the data from Broersma and de Bot (2006) and Boeschoten et al. (1987).

Results from the data showed that the utterances from the Dutch-English informant were saturated with code-switches and cognates. The data showed that 71.4 % of the speech were cognates and 17% of the speech consisted of non-cognate words. When investigating code-switching at a clause level the following results showed that, 57.8% of basic clauses contained a cognate and 34.6% of these clauses contained a code switch (Broersma, 2009, p. 449). The code-switches were of a variety of types. These types were syntactic, lexical, morphological, and phonological switches. Broersma classified the results using the *classification systems* by Muysken (as cited in Broersma, p. 449) of insertion, alternation and congruent lexicalization and Clyne's (as cited in, Broersma, 2009, p. 449) of syntactic, semantic, morphological, and phonological transference.

      Muysken (2000) classified code-switches as insertions, alternations and congruent lexicalization (as cited in Broersma, 2009, p. 449). All types were present in the data collected by Broersma (2009). The insertional switches consisted of single words that were embedded into the other language. In the example (4) below, English words are embedded into the Dutch speech and vice versa (p. 450).

(4)

De enige ding wat we hadden was dat linker en rechter verkeer. Dat was onze probleem. BECAUSE *als we dachten naar huis te gaan dan gingen we net die andere kant op. We zaten net aan de verkeerde kant van de bus te wachten.*

"The only thing that we had was that let and right traffic. That was out problem. Because if we thought we were going home, then we went just the other way. We were waiting on the wrong side of the bus."
(Broersma, 2009, p. 450)

Sometimes a larger constituents underwent code switching. For example, an NP in (5) was embedded into the English context. The data from Broersma also showed instances where code-switching occurs between sentences, also referred to as alternations as in (6).

(5)

I DON'T THINK THEY HAVE A *goeie reglement.*
"I don't think they have a good regulation."
(Broersma, 2009, p. 450)

(6)

CAN je je voeten op zetten. WOULD BE QUITE NICE AT THE MOMENT.

"You can put your feet on (it). Would be quite nice at the moment."

(Broersma, 2009, p. 454)

Furthermore, there were also instances found where both languages shared a grammatical structure. Therefore, lexical items from one language can be used in the other items, also known as *congruent lexicalization*. There were also instances of syntactic transference where the informant showed frequent use of Dutch words in combination with English sentence structures as in (7).

(7) *Later ik naaide voor mensen.*

"Later I sewed for people."

(Broersma, 2009, p. 450)

Dutch grammar follows the SVO word order, nevertheless, if a sentence adverb is added in sentence-initial position, the order of the subject and verb is inverted. In (7) the adverb 'later' precedes the subject 'ik' (I), which in turn precedes the verb 'naaide' (sewed). The adverb 'later' is similar in form to the English equivalent and shares a similar meaning in Dutch and English. This triggers the use of the English grammar in combination with Dutch words.

Broersma (2009) assessed the results using the alternative triggering hypothesis that she proposed in earlier work (Broersma & de Bot, 2006). This new alternative theory investigated code-switching not solely on a linear level, where code-switching is investigated at a sentence structure level (preceding or following a trigger word), but investigates induced code-switching words at clause level. The clause level in Broersma's (2009) study is the basic clause. A basic clause was assessed to be a code switched clause when it contained words from two different languages, or when the words from that specific basic clause contained words that were different from the previous basic clause. The previous study by Broersma & de Bot (2006), which was based on a Dutch-Moroccan-Arabic corpus, showed that words following a trigger word did have an increased chance of being code-switched than words that did not follow a trigger word. On the other hand, words that preceded a trigger word did not have an increased chance of code-switching. It was found that words that did not adjoin the trigger word but were part of that same basic clause had an increased chance of being code-switched. Broersma (2009) found evidence showing that

there was an increased chance of code-switching if there was a presence of a trigger word in at basic clause level. Furthermore, Broersma (2009) found a larger variety code-switches compared to the earlier study on Moroccan-Dutch bilinguals (Broersma & de Bot, 2006) where trigger words mostly consisted of nouns. She also found that in the study conducted on the Dutch bilingual informant, not only words that matched the cognates, but also words that showed moderate overlap induced code-switching. Broersma (2006; Broersma & de Bot, 2009) assessed code switching at both word and clause level, but concluded that cognates in a general sense induced code-switching regardless of the position in the utterance. These findings support Clyne's (1967) hypothesis that cognates induce code-switching.

Kootstra et al. (2012) provided additional evidence induced code-switching in Germanic languages. This study did not only consider syntactic constraints (e.g. Poplack, 1980) that induce language mixing, but also *structural priming*. Structural priming refers to the tendency of speakers to repeat the sentence structure that was earlier presented. Kootstra et al. (2012) not only found evidence supporting the triggering theory by Clyne (1967, 1980) but expanded this theory. Kootstra et al. (2012) explored the role of repetition, cognates, and language proficiency in structural priming. The Dutch-English bilinguals used for this study, were asked to repeat a priming sentence that was code-switched from Dutch to English. Afterwards, the participants were asked to describe a target picture while being provided with the code-switched sentence (Dutch to English). Kootstra et al. (2012) found that the participants switched at the same position as the switch occurred in the prime sentence. This was the result of lexical repetition between prime sentence and target picture and the presence of a *cognate*. Furthermore, the participants were less like to code-switch if the prime sentence did not contain a cognate.

In summary, this subsection provided a synthesis of studies surround Clyne's (1967; Clyne, 1980) triggering hypothesis. Clyne's (1967) original triggering theory was extended by Broersma and de Bot (2006) in the study of Dutch-Moroccan-Arabic bilinguals. Broersma (2009) used this found statistical evidence supporting this alternative theory in the speech of a Dutch-English bilingual in Australia. Kootstra et al. (2012) demonstrated that the presence of a cognate in a prime sentence induced an increased chance of code-switching when describing a target picture. All in all, the studies surrounding cognate induced code-switching pointed agreed that cognates, in a general sense, induce code-switching. The studies in this subsection will be discussed in light of the results obtained from Asian languages in the meta-analysis.

3. Meta-Analysis

This section contains a synthesis of the results of studies surrounding code-switching in Asian languages. The results of the studies have been divided into a structural and a functional analysis. The structural analysis focuses on grammatical structures and the types of code-switches (intra- or intrasentential). The functional analysis explores code-switching patterns that refer to pragmatic or discourse functions used in interpersonal communication. Additionally, the functional analysis section examines additional social factors that influence language mixing.

3.1 Structural Analysis

Fotos (1990) revealed that the subjects of investigation showed instances of code-switching. The majority of the data consisted of English speech with Japanese insertions. The results obtained from the this study indicated that the code-switching behaviour of the four Japanese-English bilingual children agree with findings from previous studies. The results from the study conducted by Fotos (1990) showed the intra-sentential switches consisted of nouns. This is the simplest form of code-switching, because single lexical items can be integrated successfully without violating the syntax of the dominant language. In general, switches tended to occur between sentences or independent clauses, rather than intra-sentential, and Fotos (1990) suggested that this was caused by the lack of grammatical symmetry between Japanese and English, which was also proposed by Poplack (1980). Japanese follows the SOV order which is different from the SVO order that English follows. As a result, intra-sentential code-switching of a variety of syntactic units was not feasible.

In addition, data showed, similar to previous studies (e.g. Boeschoten & Verhoeven, 1987) that in Japanese-English instances of code switching the *free morpheme* constraint was violated. There were instances where English morphemes were attached to Japanese nouns. This was done in order to make the Japanese forms plural or to turn them into a genitive form as in (9). Furthermore, instances where found of Japanese verbs that were marked with English tense morphemes. The past tense suffix *-ed* was attached to the Japanese verb as in (10).

(9)

mimizu-s (worm + English plural suffix -s)

(Fotos, 1990, p. 1680)

(10)

and then she got yukai-ed (verb means to kidnap)

(Fotos, 1990, p. 1680)

Kumars (2013), also showed instances of intra-sentential code switches in the data collected from a 23-year-old Japanese-English bilingual. These intra-sentential switches consisted of Japanese words and phrases that were inserted into the English grammatical sentence structure. In (11) utterance the Japanese adjective おかしい and the NP 英語の先生 are inserted into the English context. These are, however, small lexical units or items and therefore can be inserted without the facing incongruence.

(11)

Momo：ところで、haha~ very おかしい！You made a mistake!! You are 英語の 先生！

[Tokorode, haha 〜very okashii！You made a mistake!! You are

eigo no sensei！]

• By the way, haha 〜very amusing! You made a mistake!! You are

an English Teacher！

(Kumar, 2013, p. 17)

Gyogi (2015), Namba (2012), Nakamura (2005) revealed the same results as Fotos (1990) and Kumar (2013) in the data of Japanese-English bilinguals. Gyogi (2015) tested two Japanese-Bilingual children from two different families. In most cases, the children showed alterations between Japanese and English of the intra-sentential type. However, the children also showed instances of inter-sentential switches, which consisted of short phrases, such as *'I don't know'* and *'There is no point'* which serves as discourse markers (p. 753).

Namba (2012) tested Japanese-English bilingual children and found in (12) that the grammatical structure of both language did overlap. The english form is serves as a copula verb to link the NP (proper noun) *Boogu- seijin* to the NP *atarashii uchuujin*. The grammatical structures of both languages overlap in this example. In (13), on the other hand this is not possible because the Japanese VP is not able to follow the English copula verb. Here the sentence follows the Japanese grammar.

(12)

Boogu- seijin is atarashii uchuujin

PROPN   new alien

'Boogu-seijin is a new alien'

(Namba, 2012, p.468)

(13)

e   is   kai-ta   zo

picture   draw-PAST   FP

'As for the picture, I drew it'.

(Namba, 2012, p.468)

Namba also found that English copula serves to express propositional meanings. The English copula *is* becomes a Japanese topic marker when inserted into the Japanese context as in (14).

(14)

and it's Shurikenjaa is waru-ku   nat-ta   too

         PROPN   bad-INFL   become-PAST

'and then Shurikenjaa (Super hero) became bad, too'

(p.469)

In the majority of the utterances it was found that in both *it's + [Japanese Phrase]* and *[Japanese Phrase] + is + [Japanese Phrase] examples,* English was the matrix language which dominated the pragmatic discourse and the Japanese insertions are there to convey propositional meaning and provide new information.

      Nakamura (2005) showed that the subject of his study, who was Japanese-Bilingual subject between age 7-9, created new words using the two languages. The child created new derivational words and idioms by mixing English and Japanese. This was not due to incompetence and conflicting languages, but due to his language development. Speaker S. in (15) added the negative prefix 'un-' to the Japanese stem hasami.

(15)

 M*: Koodo ga   hasamatteru kara,   moo ichido akete.*

     cord   NOM   be caught in because more once   open (NOM= nominative particle)

'The electric cord is caught (in the door), so open (the door) again.'

S: ***Un-hasami*** *shimashita yo* .

   Neg. prefix UN- + be caught in did   PP (PP= pragmatic particle)

   'I did un-be caught (it).' (= I took it out.)

Nguyen's (2012) data showed that the majority of the code-switching instances of the Vietnamese-English students were intersentential (66.7%) as in (16).

(16)   Excerpt

H1: *Quà này là vừa*   *tặng vừa ăn được*

    gift   this   be   both   offer both eat PosM

(This gift is good both for presentation and for eating.)

H2: *Cái   kia mới   quan trọng. Nó to nhất mập nhất, ha ha ha*

    Class. that EmM important   it big most fat most

(That one is more important. It is the biggest and fattest)

H1 ((smiling)): You, you can use it tonight

H2: Keep it! ha ha ha

      Everyone: ha ha ha…

(Nguyen, 2012, p. 43)

The remaining instances of code-switching instances were intra-sentential (33.3%). In these sentences. Consider the following example in (17).

(17)

Speaker 1:   N. cũng đang **celebrate** cái sinh nhật.

          N. also Prog. **celebrate** Class. birthday

          N. is also celebrating a birthday.

(Nguyen, 2012, p. 44)

In the sentence above, the verb *celebrate* should have been augmented by the present participle suffix *-ing*, making it the form *celebrating*. However, this is not the case for this sentence, because Vietnamese grammar does not have any inflection at all. Vietnamese is the matrix language,

therefore the language that determines the grammatical structure of the sentence. Vietnamese and English share the same word order (SVO), however, these languages because Vietnamese verbs do not use any inflectional morphemes and English does. Data also showed that the Vietnamese-English bilinguals were more likely to use intra-sentential switches in a context where English was the dominant language and Vietnamese the embedded language. English lexicon was activated and more readily available and therefore easier to access than their L1 lexicon.

Setiawan's (2016) textual analysis of Indonesian local newspapers and documents on the internet, showed that the majority of code-switching instances found were intra-sentential. These intra-sentential alternations were single to small lexical items with sometimes a phonological adjustment. Bahasa Indonesia and English share a similar SVO word order, which makes intra-sentential switching of NPs and VPs possible. In (18) the English NP and VP are successfully integrated into the Indonesian sentence structure. Therefore, confirming Poplack's (1980) *equivalence constraint*.

(18)

M: Kayak confirmation letter (NP) misalnya kalau kita booking hotel (VP) itu emalnya menggunakan Bahasa Inggris.

(Just like letter confirmation when we book a hotel the email is written in English)

(Setiawan, 2016, p. 1548)

Liu's (1991) structural analysis of the code-switching behaviour of a Chinese-English bilingual church fellowship revealed majority of the switches were from Mandarin to English than from English to Mandarin. The data from the intra-sentential switches showed that the switches from Mandarin to English mostly consisted of the following combination:

ADJ + N(P), ADV + V(P), DET + N(P), M + N(P), MD + V(P), and V + N(P)

(Lu, 1991, p. 144)

These combination were possible because Mandarin and English share syntactic patterns. The use of intra-sentential switches were topic related. Topics such as, speaker arrangements, prayer partners, and money matters all induced intra-sentential code-switching. The intra-sentential switches consisted of discourse markers, speaker turns, verbs, and nouns. These topics elicited heavy discussions and suggestions from the informants, that induced code-switching.

To sum it up, the data from the structural analysis showed that code-switching instances were of both inter- and intra-sentential. The majority of the code-switching instances were intra-sentential, and a noun of verb from an embedded language were inserted into the dominant language. This follows Myers-Scotton's (1993) MLF model. Code-switching occurred regardless of the constraint proposed by Poplack (1980). Although, in some cases Poplack's (1980) equivalence constraint was verified, this was not in all cases. The free morpheme constraint was also violated in the data provided by Fotos (1990) where the Japanese-English bilingual added the English plural suffix '-s' to Japanese nouns and the past tense suffix '-ed' to Japanese verbs. So, all bilinguals showed instances of intrasentential and intersentential code-switches, even though not all languages have a grammar similar to the English grammar. Therefore, it can be concluded that Poplack's (1980) *equivalence constraint* and *the free morpheme constraint* are not universal.

3.2 FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS

3.2.1 Relationship between interlocutors

Chung (2006) encountered that codeswitching depended on the relationship between the interlocutors. The informant in Chung's study were 2 bilingual children from parents who immigrated from South-Korea to the United States. Their father believed in a Korean language policy at home and preferred Korean to be the language of conversation. The 11-year-old daughter who was a Korean-English bilingual switched to English when she was in conversation with her mother, because her mother was more lenient when it came to the use of Korean at home. With her father, on the the other hand, she would not frequently show this code-switching behaviour since his views on bilingualism at home was different from the mother. In other studies the relationship between the interlocutors also determined the amount of code-switching and the direction of code-switching. This was shown for Japanese-English bilinguals (Namba, 2012; Nakamura, 2005), where a change in interlocutor showed a change in language mixing.

3.2.2 Cultural Values

Cultural values and social hierarchy were relevant in the data of Korean-English bilinguals (Chung, 2006; Shim, 2014). The children in Chung's (2006) study used Korean to address certain members of the community. Family members at home were addressed in Korean out of respect. The son switched to English when addressing his sister with *Nuna*, his father with *A-pah*, as can be seen in (20), and his mother with *Um-ma*.

(20)

Son: Good night. Nuna (Sister). Goodnight, A-pah (Daddy)

(Chung, 2006, p. 301)

The children showed similar behaviour when addressing people of authority or older people. This study showed that the children used, for example *sunsang+nim* (teacher+suffix of respect for authority and elders) to address his piano teacher. The child does know the English equivalent of these Korean words, but consciously opt for the Korean equivalents. This example suggests a link between social cultural values that are passed on from generation to generation, and the conscious choice for a switch of codes. Furthermore, Chung (2016) also noticed that the father used English instead of Korean when showing signs of affection, as can be seen in (21), where the father expresses his love for his children and asks for a hug in English.

(21)

Father: I love you. Midam. Hug-do haeyaji. (Give me a hug)

(Chung, 2006, 301)

Chung (2016) ascribed this behaviour to the differences between Korean and American cultural values. In American culture it is common practice to show affection, while in Korean culture men are required to repress their emotions. Chung also found that the father used the English expression *goodnight* when putting his children to bed as in (21). Chung (2016) ascribed this to the fact in Korean culture, it is not a custom to use an expression to wish someone goodnight when going to sleep (p.305).

Shim (2014) showed kinship and group membership played an important role in the Korean community. These factors had an impact on the amount of code-switching. The stronger the relationship between the interlocutors the higher the frequency of code-switching and the use of English. On the other hand, the bilinguals opted for Korean in conversations with acquaintances. The participants spoke in Korean to unfamiliar interlocutors as this was done out of respect, which was characteristic of Korean cultural values (Shim, 2014, p.42). The findings also implied that codeswitching was determined by the age differences between interlocutors. The younger interlocutors spoke Korean to the ones senior to them and the interlocutors who were older spoke English to the interlocutors junior to them. This was not solely a custom among the first generation Korean immigrants but also prevalent among second generation immigrants that were fluent or not

fluent in Korean. However, although the majority of the instances of code-switching depended on already established cultural values in Korean communities, there was also room for deviation. Some participants had the were inclined to deviate from the norms in the Korean society in America. They did not abide to these code-switching traditions and code-switched regardless of age differences and the amount of affinity to the interlocutor. This was interpreted by the researcher as evidence that cultural values that determine code-switching practices can change over time. The second generation and future generations can change the status quo as this micro event apply to bilingual communities on a macro level. Both studies (Chung, 2006; Shim, 2014) posited that code-switching was used as a communicative strategy to facilitate communication between the different generations and to establish cultural identity and social cultural values.

3.2.3 Discourse functions

The majority of the studies showed evidence for code-switching as a means to clarify meaning. In Chung's (2006) study, the informant resorted to English when referring to numbers and the time, he does so, deliberately, to make it easier for his children because they faced a great challenge understanding the Korean numeral system than the English one.

Foto's (1990) found that conversational code-switching took place for the discourse function of quotation, clarification, emphasis, getting attention and topic shifts. These correspond to the functional classifications proposed by Gumperz (1982). They also found that code-switching served as a strategy for the children to intensify narratives, dramatization, and personalization or objectification. In (22) an example is shown of intersentential code-switching where one of the Japanese-English bilingual children used code-switching to dramatize and emphasize by reiteration in Japanese. The child used the Japanese sentence to emphasize that the day was really awful. Fotos also found instances of Japanese discourse markers that were inserted into the English context as in (23).

(22)

my day was awful

boku no day wa awful   (My day was awful)

I (masculine) possessive topic marker

datta no ne

copula + past tense particle tag

(Fotos, 1990, p. 89)

(23)

ne   (well)

did I tell you about Toni

(Fotos, 1990, p. 91)

Ha (2014) also took a sociolinguistic approach on the topic of code-switching and showed that data, collected through interviews and questionnaires, revealed that code-switching was used a communicative strategy to facilitate meaning. Ha (2014) conducted a longitudinal study on a group of adolescents in Vietnam who showed signs of code-switching behaviour. The majority of those surveyed reported that codeswitching was used to make their speech less formal, save time, or they used code-switching because it was popular. An estimated one-third of the respondents reported that they utilized code-switching to save money, practise their English or to discuss taboo topics. Moreover, around a quarter of the informants utilized language mixing to replace Vietnamese lexical items that were difficult to retrieve from their Vietnamese lexicon, with English equivalents.

The subjects from this study code-switched to make their speech less serious, so for connotational purposes. In (24) one of the informants used the word *stupid* instead of the Vietnamese equivalent, because according to one of the respondent it sounded "less serious" (p. 14). The respondent intentionally opted for the English equivalent since the word in English is more understated. By doing this, certain undertones in a sentence are neutralized. The same applies to sensitive or taboo topics, such as death.

(24)

Damn, tao **stupid** quá, sorry mày!

(English lexical items inserted in a Vietnamese context);

(Ha, 2014; p. 11)

Nguyen (2012) also found that the informants code-switched when describing or discussing themes and topics that were related or associated to a particular language, due to cultural differences. The example is given of the word *winter break* (p.45). The student never used a Vietnamese translation for the word *winter break,* because a winter break did not exist in Vietnam due the tropical climate which is different from the one in the US. Furthermore, the students switched to English when they greeted and addressed a newcomer to avoid misaddressing the person. Another theme found in the

data was that code-switching was used for a topic change or a quick response to an action, to reiterate, to emphasize, for solidarity, and connotational functions. The themes confirm that code-switching is used for conversational purposes and as a strategy to improve conversations.

Kumar's (2013) study was based on a Japanese-English bilingual of 23 years old. She participated in an experiment where her written speech, consisting of Skype chats, were analysed for codes-switching. In the written conversations with a English speaker, 18 instances of code-switches were found. All instances of language mixing were intentionally made because the subject was of the opinion that the English language often lacked the necessary connotational effects that illustrate her feelings more accurately. The informant explained that certain feelings can only be conveyed in English through gestures, body language and tone of voice. In (25), the participant uses a Japanese adjective in the English context to emphasize the fact that she enjoyed *purikura3* very much.

(25)

Interlocutor 2: Isn't purikura3 fun? Everyone looks like a film star, don't they?

Interlocutor 1: Yes its 超楽し〜〜〜〜い！！！

[Yes its chou tanoshi〜〜〜〜i!!!] [~ implies that she is making it sound longer than it really is]

• Yes it's very fun!!!

(Kumar, 2013, p.42)

The informant also reported that Japanese words carry the same undertones and connotations in spoken and written language, which she felt was not the case in English. Kumar (2013) did not only collect written forms, but also interviewed the informant in order to gain more insight on whether these code-switching choices in her written speech would also be the same for spoken. The participant reported that she would also code-switch for the same motivations as in the written speech. On top of that, Kumar (2013) also revealed that a group of eight other Japanese-bilinguals reported that they would make similar choices as the 23-year-old bilingual. From these results it can be suggested that the these motivations for code-switching are common among Japanese-English bilinguals.

Song (2016) tested code-switching as a way to clarify meaning during at home literacy events. The participants used for this experiments were a Korean-English bilinguals and their parents. The children and their parents used a combination of two languages as a method to get a

better grasp of meaning in the other language. One of the children got a better understanding of a concept, because his mother was able to explain meaning in a language that suited him best.

Song (2016) also found that some English words and phrases had no counterparts in Koreans. Korean was then used for the enunciation of English words with the Korean phonetic system. Translating made the cooperation between both children parents more efficient because one language was able to assist the other language to facilitate meaning. Korean words that were unknown to the children induced more code switches to English in the conversation between child and parents. This was done so that the children could get a better grasp of the explanation and meaning of the word introduced. Switches to English also occurred when parents and child encountered words that were essential in everyday life. All in all, translanguaging and code-switching made teamwork between parent and child during at home literacy events more manageable.

3.2.4. Practicality and Language Learning

One of the two participants of Gyogi's (2015) study reported that, in contrast to the other subject, she code switches as a result of a lower level of language proficiency. Naomi attributed this to the growing gap between her Japanese and English. The concern she faces was that she was unable to find the correct word in her mental lexicon.

Ha (2014) revealed the Vietnamese that students code-switched to learn or to improve their English. It was reported by the respondents that English is a *lingua franca* and therefore a desired language to acquire. Nevertheless, not all students have the resources to acquire English since outside of the classroom they do not have a partner to practise their language proficiency skills with. Therefore, code-switching in the classroom gave them an opportunity to practice English at school. Although, it was not comparable to an English teaching course, students accepted the means they were provided with.

Setiawan (2016) found in his research that code-switching in the private corporations in Indonesia mainly served as a compensation strategy for the infrequent use of English in full utterances. In general, there was not a requirement of English language proficiency at the workplace and basic knowledge of the terminology used during working hours was deemed sufficient. Code-switching was used by employers and employees to introduce terminology necessary for work. The use of English words would improve the communication at the workfloor. One respondent of the interviews did express that code-switching was minimal. Moreover, the use of English was necessary because some terminologies were impossible to translate into Indonesian or

the translation would be less concise. In addition, Setiawan (2016) also expressed that English equivalents of words were more compact in carrying meaning.

3.2.5 Self-image and Prestige

Gyogi (2015) found that the Japanese-Bilingual child, whose dominant Language at home was Japanese, used code-switching to construct a positive image of herself for others. When talking to Japanese peers she decided to conversate in Japanese, because she did not want to show off, but when she does want to construct the image of a bilingual speaker she does speak English. Her choices depend on the situation and the interlocutor. This implies that the child is free to make her choices and is aware of her code-switching practices. The other participant also showed that she was able to exercise agency. She believed that Japanese should only be spoken to Japanese speakers and English to English speakers. This was her language policy. Agency was also found present in the subject of Nakamura's (2005) study. where the child consciously used both languages to create new derivational words and idioms by mixing English and Japanese. This was not due to incompetence and conflicting languages, but due to his language development and creativity.

Setiawan (2016) showed that Indonesian locals made an attempt to use English words in Indonesian contexts. This, however, led to incorrect spelling of words, such as *treckball* (for trackball), *komplen* (for complain) , and *beshit* (for bedsheet). This can be attributed to the phonetic pronunciation of these words by the Indonesian locals, but a lack of knowledge concerning the correct spelling of the English words. Despite the incorrect use of English, Setiawan (2016) argued that the use of English is associated with prestige.

The participants in Liu's (2017) research was based on young professionals, who were Chinese-English bilinguals that lived and worked in London. The subjects of Liu's (2017) study showed many instances of code-switching in their written speech, but also in their oral communication. Liu (2017) proposed that this was caused by the fact that in their written mode, they were provided with more time to deliberately write down their thoughts. Therefore, they were able to carefully construct their self-image. They, for example, were able to portray themselves as someone with a higher status by showing off their education and language skills. The correlation between their believes on code-switching and their actual code-switching behaviour matched in most cases since the informants, who had a positive outlook on code-switching and bilingualism, were more likely to code-switch than the ones that had a negative attitude.

All in all, bilinguals of Asian languages code-switch to English as a results of the relationship between interlocutors, cultural values, to facilitate communication, practicality, and

image-construction. Many of these factors have been proposed by (Gumperz, 1982). The next section contains a discussion of the results from code-switching in Germanic languages and Asian languages. On the basis of these findings, my research question will be answered.

4. Discussion

This section contains a discussion of the results obtained from Asian languages and Germanic languages. The motivation for code-switching to English in Asian languages are compared to the motivations for code-switching in Germanic languages. The background section discussed the triggering hypothesis (Clyne, 1967; Clyne, 1980) that explained the linguistic motivations for code-switching in Germanic languages. The studies of Broersma and de Bot (2006), Broersma (2009), Clyne (1980), and Kootstra et. al (2012) have explored the triggering theory by Clyne in a number of studies. These studies provided evidence for the code-switching practices that are induced by the presence of a cognate. Although, the original theory by Clyne (1967) was the foundation for future adjustments of the theory. The weakness of this theory was that it only looked for triggered code-switching at a sentence level. Clyne (1967) looked at cognates that immediately preceded or followed a code-switched word. The issue that arose was that bilingual language production models, that were based on cognitive processes, were not considered in this theory. Broersma and de Bot (2006), therefore, opted for a an improved version of the original hypothesis. This adjusted hypothesis considered bilingual language production models and looked at code-switching at lemma selection. The results of the studies on Germanic languages had in common that the presence of a cognate increased the chance code-switching. This was attested attested by Broersma (2009), Broersma and de Bot (2006), Clyne (1980) and Kootstra et al. (2012).

This theory which states that a cognate induces codeswitching did not apply to the data found in the analysis on Asian languages. None of the Asian languages shared cognates with the English language, therefore this theory did not account these languages. Therefore, a different explanation for these code-switching patterns was investigated. The meta-analysis on Asian languages showed a structural and a functional analysis of the code-switching patterns. Therefore it can be included that the motivation for code-switching are a combination of structural and functional elements.

The structural analysis of Asian languages considered two structural frameworks that differed from the triggering hypothesis by Clyne (1980). These two constraints were the *Matrix Language Frame Model* by Myers-Scotton (1988) and Poplack's (1980) constraints. Poplack (1980) proposed that bound morphemes cannot be switched in both languages. The Japanese-English data of Foto (1990) found evidence that disagree with this constraint as shown in data provided by Fotos (1990). I assume that the same result will account for in other languages that switch back and forth to English. This is because bilingual use their creativity to create new words with two languages.

The *equivalence constraint* stated that intra-sentential code-switches can only occur when two languages share a grammatical structure. This theory flawed, because there are languages that share certain grammatical structures, but not all structures. However, these languages employ code-switching nevertheless. Some studies (e.g Namba 2012) showed the equivalence constraint was verified. For example, in the Japanese-English (Namba 2012) these constraints were verified in some cases but in other cases it did not. The same applies to the majority of studies conducted on Asian languages. Myers-Scotton's (1988) MLF model was mentioned in the studies that covered intra-sentential code-switching. The matrix language served as the syntactic framework for the insertions from the embedded language. I suggest that the constraints proposed by Poplack (1980) are not universal and outdated. These constraints need to be adjusted and further testing in other languages.

The functional analysis of Asian languages presented the code-switching social and functional patterns in Asian languages. These studies were based on the functional classifications of Gumperz and Blom (1982). These theories considered code-switching as a linguistic resource to carry out social and discourse functions. The meta-analysis section divided the collected data in the following subsections : 1) relationship between interlocutors 2) cultural values 3) discourse functions 4) practicality and language learning and 5) self-image and prestige.

Chung (2006), Liu (2017) and Namba (2012) all found accounts of code-switching that are related to the dynamics between the speaker and addressee. These findings support Gumperz (1982) classification of speaker and addressee relationship. This factor is related to the cultural values of a community. In the Korean communities respect for authority and elderly people determined the amount of code-switching and the language choice (Chung 2006, Shim 2014). These accounts confirm Myers-Scotton's (1993) Markedness Model, which implied that language choice is based on the norms of society that determine the dynamics between interlocutors. In these communities respect for authority is the norm. The results from the analysis also showed that the main reasons for code-switching were determined by discourse functions, such as emphasis, addressee specification, interjection, and topic shifts (e.g. Fotos, 1990; Ha, 2014; Nguyen, 2012, Song 2016).

The remaining factors that influence code-switching practices were practicality and language learning, and self-image and prestige. The local population of Indonesia code-switches as a stepping stone to learn English (Setiawan, 2016). While the Japanese-English bilinguals of Gyogi's (2015) and Nakamura's (2005) study code-switch to exercise agency and to construct a positive self-image.

The data presented in the meta-analysis show that code-switching is used as a communicative strategy to facilitate communication and to establish establish cultural identity and social cultural values. This functional analysis corresponds to the functional analyses conducted on other Indo-European languages (Boeschoten and Verhoeven, 1987; Broersma and de Bot 2006).

In the introduction my hypothesis predicted that the motivations for code-switching were sociolinguistic motivations. The meta-analysis has shown that code-switching in Asian languages are determined by structural and functional elements. Therefore, it can be concluded that the reasons for code-switching in Asian languages are of sociolinguistic nature. While the MLF model by Myers-Scotton (1988) was proven to be valid, the constraints by Poplack (1980) were flawed and were verified in all cases. Furthermore, the studies that have been conducted on code-switching in Germanic languages have all been structural analyses on the topic of codeswitching. Previous studies have not dealt extensively with the functional analysis of this phenomenon.

5. Conclusion

The research question of this thesis was as follows:

In what ways do the motivations for code-switching to English from Asian languages differ from the motivations from Germanic languages to English?

To answer this question, I have conducted a meta-analysis based on studies which explored code-switching to English from Asian languages The findings were compared to the reasons for code-switching in Germanic languages. My hypothesis was that the motivations for code-switching to English from Asian languages were of sociolinguistic nature. It was found that cognates increased the probability of code-switching in a sentence. The studies conducted on Vietnamese-English, Chinese-English, Indonesian-English, Japanese-English, and Korean-English bilinguals all found evidence supporting theories that point towards code-switching as a linguistic resource to carry out social and discourse functions as was was presumed by Gumperz and Blom (1982) and Myers-Scotton (1988). Even though Asian languages are non-cognate languages, switching to English codes still occurred. These motivation for this behaviour depended on the factors, such as the relationship between the speakers, cultural values, attitudes on code-switching, and discourse functions. The findings showed that code-switching was not a random process, nor was it solely a case of a low level of language proficiency. It has also been proven to be a linguistic resource for speakers of different levels of language proficiency. Code-switching is a common practice in the bilingual and multilingual community, regardless of age, gender, location, and level of proficiency as had previously been suggested by Clyne (1980). Results from the Asian languages showed that bilingual children and adults, regardless of their location, and regardless of their language proficiency code-switch (e.g. Setiawan (2016),

I have also investigated existing constraints (Poplack, 1980) and analysed whether or not these described the code-switching behaviour of the unrelated Asian-English language pairs. Poplack's (1980) constraints are not generalizable for all languages. The main weakness of these constraint rules is that some code-switching instances were validated by the constraint rules. On top of that, these constraints are outdated and I predict that other languages will show similar results to the Asian languages. Bilinguals will use their creativity to create new words, therefore, violating these constraints. Further research is needed to test validity of these constraints in other languages.

On top of that, I would suggest further research is needed to obtain functional analyses on Germanic languages.

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